

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

IMPACT OF THE GHANA SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME ON  
EDUCATION AND POVERTY REDUCTION IN THE SAVELUGU-  
NANTON DISTRICT

BY

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THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT  
STUDIES, FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, UNIVERSITY OF CAPE  
COAST IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR  
THE AWARD OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN  
DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

NOVEMBER 2012

## DECLARATION

### Candidate's Declaration

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

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

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## **ABSTRACT**

Poverty in the Savelugu-Nanton District has a long history reinforced by its geographical location and cultural practices of the people. The study set out to assess the impact of the Ghana School Feeding Programme on basic education and poverty reduction in the Savelugu-Nanton District in the Northern Region of Ghana.

This impact study, involved content analysis and field survey that assessed the implementation process and examined the effect of the programme on the beneficiary communities. This involved four sets of survey instruments and a study sample of 52 persons from the Ghana School Feeding Programme institutional set up, donor agencies and beneficiary schools and communities. ANOVA was used to compare schooling attainments for the effects of the school feeding programme in the beneficiary communities.

The main findings of the study were irregular funding, lack of collaboration and participation by major stakeholders and the non compliance with selection criteria. The food production component was implemented in the study area. Though school enrolment and drop-out were improved, there was no improvement in school attendance. It was concluded that the implementation processes was not fully effective and therefore, failed to attain a model for community-based development in the Savelugu-Nanton District. It is recommended to the Government of Ghana to review the policy through parliament for full compliance and adequate funding. Further, food

production by the Ministry of Food and Agriculture should be tied into the programme to sustain the school feeding.

### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I express my gratitude to all those who gave me encouragement during the period of this course. To my supervisors; Prof. S. B. Kendie and Dr. D. Essaw, this is my show of appreciation for the able manner they walked me through the pages of this thesis to this final presentation. It has been wonderful and godly working with them and to them I say a big thank you. I take this opportunity to say thank you to all senior members of the institute as well as course mates for their profound support throughout this course. For me, this has been a rare experience with each one of you and with these words I show my appreciation. . My gratitude go to Dr. Oheneba Akyeampong, Okatakyi Dr. Amenfi VII and Mr. Ackom for their support during the thesis writing.

My sincere gratitude also go to my wife, Rose and children as well as my elders and chiefs for the gap filling devices in ensuring things went well at home during the period of this entire course. In particular, I thank Prince Percy Taylor and Neenyi Mensah Koomson and to anyone who out of concern supported me magnanimously. I am most grateful.

### **DEDICATION**

To my wife, Rose Coleman and children

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

Content	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xi
<b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1</b>
Background to the study	1
Problem statement	5
Objectives of the study	6
Research question	6
Hypothesis	7
Scope of the study	7
Significance of the study	8
Organization of the study	9
<b>CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITTERATURE</b>	<b>10</b>
Introduction	
10	

Neoliberal Development Theory	
10	
Motivation theory	
18	
Theory of Distributive Justice	
20	
Implementation theory	
22	
Poverty analysis	
26	
Poverty reduction	
38	
Empirical evidence	
44	
The Ghana school feeding programme	
49	
School feeding in the Northern Region of Ghana	
54	
Conceptual framework	
55	
<b>CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY</b>	
<b>58</b>	

Introduction	
58	
Study design	
58	
Study area	
59	
Study population	
60	
Sampling procedure	
62	
Data collection instruments	
64	
Field work and challenges	
66	
Data processing and analysis	
68	
Pre-test	
70	

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**73**

Introduction

73



	GSFP implementation process
	74
	Schooling attainments
102	
	Poverty reduction
116	

## **CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

<b>123</b>	
	Introduction
123	
	Summary
123	
	Summary of the main findings
	124
	Conclusions
	125
	Recommendations
127	

## **REFERENCES**

**129**

## **APPENDICES**

145

Appendix 1:	SURVEY INSTRUMENTS
145	
Appendix 2:	LETTER OF INTRODUCTION
165	

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1	Access to Basic Services by places of residence; 1990-1994
32	
2	Household expenditures and per capita expenditure by
region	36
3	School attendance rate, by region, age and sex (percentages)
37	
4	The study samples
64	
5	GSFP; beneficiary pupils as at 2009
96	

6	Children's education
97	
7	School enrolment
105	
8	Comparing enrolment in schools
106	
9	Comparing enrolment between school
107	
10	Comparing enrolment: pairwise test
107	
11	Pupil's average attendance per term
110	
12	Statistics of school attendance data
111	
13	Tukey's simultaneous comparison of attendance means
112	
14	Comparison of pupil's attendance (pairwise test)
113	
15	Drop-out from school
114	

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	
Page	
1	Maslow's hierarchy of needs
19	
2	Ghana: Poverty Levels by region
31	
3	The GSFP implementation process: input and outcome
57	
4	Savelugu-Nanton District
61	
5	Organogram of the GSFP
78	
6	Trend in enrolment
103	
7	Comparing enrolment in beneficiary schools
104	
8.	Enrolment pattern in schools
108	
9.	Comparison of attendance between schools
113	

## **LIST OF ACRONYMS**

ADRA	Adventist Development and Relief Agency
CAADP Programme	Comprehensive African Agricultural Development
CRS	Catholic Relief Services
DAP	Development Assistance Program
EKN Embassy)	Embassy of the Kingdom of Netherlands (Dutch
FCUBE	Free, Compulsory Basic Education
FFE	Food for Education
GAIN	Ghana Agriculture Initiative Network
GES	Ghana Education Service
GET FUND	Ghana Education Trust Fund

GHS	Ghana Health Service
GLSS	Ghana Living Standards Survey
GPRS	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy
GSFP	Ghana School Feeding Programme
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
HGSF	Home Grown School Feeding
IDP	Internally Displaced People
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFDC	International Fertilizer Development Center
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MOE	Ministry of Education
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NS	National Secretariat
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PRS(P)	Poverty Reduction Strategy (Papers)
RCC	Regional Coordinating Council
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SEND	Social Enterprise Development Organisation (SEND Foundation)
SF(P)	School Feeding (Programme)

SIGN	Schoolfeeding Initiative - Ghana Netherlands
SNV	Netherlands Development Organisation
SPII	Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute
THR	Take Home Rations
UNDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UNESCO Organisation	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural
UNICEF Fund (now	United Nations International Children's Emergency
	United Nations Children's Fund)
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Program

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **Background to the study**

Global attention on poverty reduction as a means to accelerating growth and sustaining development resulted in the interest in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as a basis for development planning in most developing countries. The MDGs, a set of eight time-bound goals with concrete, numeric benchmarks were adopted in September 2000 by the United Nations (UN) for tackling critical global development issues. These included poverty and hunger, education of the child, gender equality and women empowerment. The main objective was to make sure that development reached everyone, everywhere. The MDGs have become central to the way governments and international development agencies carry out their development efforts including poverty reduction strategies (Apusigah, 2005; Todaro & Smith, 2009).

The target of MDG 1 set to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger is; a) to halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1 a day, b) to achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people and c) to halve between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who are below the minimum level of dietary energy consumption. The second goal, which aims to achieve universal primary education targets children everywhere, boys and girls alike, to enable them complete a full course of primary schooling by 2015 (UN, 2005).

The UN has since 1948 in its “Universal Declaration of Human Rights” (UNDHR), Article 26, declared education as a fundamental human



right and essential for the exercise of all other human rights. Yet millions of children and adults remain deprived of educational opportunities, many as a result of poverty (UNESCO, 1995). To achieve its objective on education, the UN body advocated for the abolition of school fees in member states.

Around the globe, the poor experience food insecurity and hence face malnutrition. Malnutrition in early childhood is known to reduce children's intellectual capacity and achievement. This may lead to significant functional impairment in adult life as a result of delayed mental development. Making these observations, Jyoti, Frongillo and Jones (2005), noted that children also suffer most in their social skills and abilities. In many parts of the world, children arrive at school with empty bellies with some having participated in family labour before school. Such children lack the energy to concentrate or participate fully in school and often drop out of school. This contributed to the estimated 115 million school-aged children around the globe who are out of primary school reported by UNICEF (2006). Though some improvements have been observed worldwide since then, the 68 million primary-school-age children presently denied the right to education is still high (UNESCO, 2010).

School feeding (SF) programmes, therefore, offer the opportunity to alleviate hunger among children. Parents who enroll their children and encourage them to stay in school receive bigger benefits through school feeding as incentives. In the poorest pockets of the world, this strategy has been shown to double primary school enrolment in just one year (UNICEF, 2006). A century ago, feeding school children was not considered a state responsibility. The National School Lunch Programme was started in 1946 in the United States. This was adopted by many industrialised countries in

Europe and Japan with marked improvement in the education of children in marginal communities (Morris, 2003; Rutledge, 2009). Rutledge (2009) contends that there is a policy emergence and diffusion representing an emergent international norm - a norm that there is a public responsibility beyond the family to feed school children.

Given that most poor people in developing countries live in rural areas and earn livelihoods in the agricultural sector, school feeding is now considered as a promising synergistic entry point to improve educational outcomes and jump-start local agricultural development in Africa. Africa has 49 per cent of the 77 million children worldwide who are not in school (Afoakwa & Chiwona-Karlton, 2007). According to Reuters (2009) more than a million children in Ghana do not go to school because they have to work to help their parents pay the bills. A substantial proportion of these are forced away from school as a result of poverty (Niels-Hugo, 2006).

The Northern Region of Ghana experiences food insecurity up to about five months each year (Quaye, 2008). The level of poverty is assigned to the historical, geographical and the traditional patterns of food production (Sutton, 1989; Songsore, 2003; Poel et al, 2007). Welfare indicators depicting a high level of poverty in the Northern Region include a low annual household per capita expenditure of GH¢ 303, a low school attendance of 61 percent, a high proportion of the population between 42.5 and 79.3 percent who have never been to school and an adult literacy rate of 22.3 percent (Ghana Statistical Service, 2008).

Over the years, a number of Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) have assisted in poverty alleviation activities including health services,

technical and material support to farmers, food for work and school feeding in the Northern Region. SEND-Ghana has made significant contributions to education, health and poverty reduction in collaboration with the Christian Aid UK and Oxfam Canadian Cooperative Association as its external partners (SEND-GHANA, 2008).

Ghana's educational development profile started with a tuition-free primary and middle school education introduced in 1952. The Education Act of 1961 declared primary education compulsory making it an offence for a parent not sending a child to school to be liable to a fine. The expanded enrollments as a result of these policies at the basic level lasted till the mid-70s (Oduro, 2000). The "Free, Compulsory Basic Education programme" (FCUBE) instituted in 1996 gave support to the Ghana Basic Education Sector Improvement Project (1996-2002) with direct District Assembly participation in cost sharing (World Bank 2002). Other support came from the Capitation Grants, District Assemblies Common Fund and the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFUND) making education accessible to all (Oduro, 2000).

Notwithstanding these pervasive efforts by government, problems of low school attainments have persisted particularly within the poor rural communities of Ghana. In October 2005, the Government of Ghana adopted the Home Grown School Feeding (HGSF) concept; an initiative of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) under its Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP) Pillar III. Ghana instituted the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) under this protocol in an attempt to resolve the low school attainments and poverty with community participation. Children in kindergartens and primary schools would be served

with one hot, adequate and nutritious meal, prepared from locally grown foodstuffs, on every school day (Afoakwa & Chiwona-Karlton, 2007).

### **Problem statement**

It is five years since the first batch of selected schools were put on the GSFP in the Savelugu-Nanton district in the Northern Region. The piloting stage of the programme (2006-2010) has ended. To answer the question of how the programme is affecting the beneficiary communities, it is only prudent at this stage to assess its impact.

To achieve the programme objectives, the GSFP policy proposed to provide a meal in each school day to each child cooked from foodstuffs purchased from the beneficiary community. The Savelugu-Nanton District is located in the Northern Region of Ghana where poverty has been as a result of its historical background, geographical location and traditional farming practices. Enabling local participation in this programme by growing foodstuffs for the school meals should make significant impact in the community. A study in this area is required to establish the empirical evidence that support the relationship between this concept of school feeding and its anticipated outcomes; improved school attainments and poverty reduction. This has created a situation where the real impact of the programme in the Savelugu-Nanton District must be determined so as to enable it inform the review of the programme for sustainability.

This study was intended to collect data on how the Ghana School Feeding Programme had operated in the Savelugu-Nanton District since its

inception and assess its impact on basic education and poverty reduction in the district.

### **Objectives of the study**

The general objective of the study was to assess the impact of the GSFP on basic education and poverty alleviation in the Savelugu-Nanton district in the Northern Region of Ghana. The specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Examine the effectiveness of the implementation process of the GSFP.
2. Compare schooling indicators; enrolment, attendance and drop-out before and after the GSFP for the promotion of basic education in the beneficiary district.
3. Examine how the implementation of the GSFP has influenced poverty reduction in the beneficiary district.
4. Make recommendations for the improvement of the programme.

### **Research questions**

The following research questions informed the study.

1. To what extent has the process of implementation of the GSFP policy been effective?
2. What is the impact of the GSFP on school enrolment, attendance and drop-out at the basic education level in the beneficiary areas?
3. How has the implementation of the GSFP influenced poverty reduction through the production and purchase of foodstuffs in the beneficiary areas?
4. What strategies may be put forward to improve the programme?

## **Hypothesis**

The following hypotheses were tested to determine the impact of the GSFP.

1. Ho: There is no significant relationship between the implementation of the GSFP and school enrolment in the beneficiary district.
2. Ho: The GSFP has produced no significant difference in school attendance in the beneficiary district.

## **Scope of the study**

The study focused on the implementation structures of the GSFP, from the top of its organisational hierarchy to the beneficiary community. These included the national secretariat and donor institutions in Accra, the regional secretariat in Tamale, institutions on the District Implementation Committee and the beneficiary communities. The target population was all those personnel who managed these institutions as well as beneficiary schools and their community members. The time frame covered by the study was the entire period of the piloting of the school feeding programme; from the 2006/2007 academic year to the time of the study in April 2011.

Faced with time and resource constraints, the Northern Region, one of the three poor regions in Ghana was chosen with the Savelugu-Nanton district as the study area. The choice of the Savelugu-Nanton District was based on its having predominantly rural cropping communities and acknowledged among the rural poor areas in the region. Two of the schools in the district have been GSFP beneficiaries since the piloting period that this study intended to

examine. The proximity of the district to the regional capital, Tamale, was an added advantage.

The study first focused on the processes for the implementation of the GSFP policy from the ministry where it was formulated to the operational levels in the beneficiary community. It then explored for evidence through the assessment of schooling records for the impact of the GSFP on schooling. Finally, an examination of how the implementation of the GSFP had induced changes in poverty levels in the community through the production and sale of foodstuffs for the programme was done.

The policy targeted poor communities and schools with low schooling indicators as beneficiaries. There were only one school in all communities selected and hence the selection process adopted by the programme managers tied the communities to schools. Communities in which beneficiary schools were situated became beneficiary communities. Groups refer to the independent variable; the beneficiary ('schools with') and the non beneficiary schools ('schools without'). The latter group is referred to as control schools. The dependent variable is the continuous variable; class attendance data.

### **Significance of the study**

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of the GSFP on basic education and poverty reduction in the Savelugu-Nanton district in the Northern Region of Ghana.

Poverty in the Savelugu-Nanton district in the Northern Region of Ghana has a long history reinforced by its geographical location and cultural practices of the people. Improving schooling with a long term effect on the

literacy rate through a programme that avails community participation for poverty reduction must have a wider systemic effect on society. The evidence adduced from this study may help policy makers and implementers to have empirical data to guide future policy formulation for its sustenance and promotion of poverty reduction among the rural poor in Ghana. The study may help the community members to appreciate the usefulness or otherwise of the programme and serve as a resource for similar studies in other districts in future and add to the body of knowledge in the subject area.

### **Organisation of the study**

This study is organised into five chapters. Chapter One is introductory and gives overview of the entire study. The main contents are the background to the study, the problem statement, research objectives, research questions and hypothesis. The relevance and scope of the study are included in this chapter.

Chapter Two reviews literature related to the study, the theoretical and conceptual issues bordering on poverty, underdevelopment and development, education, motivation and evaluation are discussed. Chapter Three is about the research methodology, which includes the study design, study area and population, the sample and sampling procedure and data collection and instruments, field work and challenges, data processing, challenges and the pre-test. Chapter Four presents the results of the study and analysis and Chapter Five, the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations.



## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

#### **Introduction**

In this chapter, relevant literature to the study has been reviewed. The following were reviewed in this section: neoliberal development theory, motivation theory, theory of distributive justice, implementation theory and concepts and programmes on poverty, education and school feeding. A conceptual framework for the evaluation of the GSFP was proposed to guide the evaluation process in the selected study area.

#### **Neoliberal development theory**

According to Pattnaik (2008) neo-liberal development theory is based on the foundations of free market, free trade, and integration building policies that envisage a world order glowing with growth and prosperity. It has globalisation as its key instrument and the driving forces are the transnational corporations and international financial institutions intended to create a new 'harmonious one world'. Neoliberalism comes with a consumer culture often dominated by the industrialised countries creating "a new de-territorialised geo-political order". These cultures are promoted by the global information infrastructures: a conglomerate of CNN, Poly Gram and Sony among others. These through the world market with inexorable icons like Coca-Cola, McDonald's and Disney seen as the thrust of cultural imperialism in developing countries.

Using the World Bank data on poverty, Pattnaik (2008) indicated that the gap between the developed and developing nations widened in spite of the

benefits of global capitalism. As a result, Neo-liberal economic systems have caused inequalities while the global capitalistic institutions with their financial supremacy also managed the political elites and served their interests. This often led to bad governance and loss of accountability in the delivery system in the developing world (Pattnaik, 2008).

Simon (as cited in Desai & Potter, 2002, p. 86) suggested that the dramatic oil price hikes of 1973 and 1979 triggered a slowdown and severe recession in the north and the world economy as a whole thereby precipitating the “debt crisis” in the south in the early 1980s. Simon sees neoliberalism as an economic creed that seeks to deregulate markets and as much as possible promote “free” trade as a panacea to state involvement which was identified to be inefficient, bureaucratic and a drain on public coffers. The policies and measures designed to address these situations in the south by the north as a result of an ideological concept became an economic orthodoxy applied globally.

According to Batley (as cited in Desai & Potter, 2002, p.135), the United Kingdom is said to have experienced the first “structural adjustment” programme when in 1976 the United Kingdom negotiated a loan from the International Monetary Fund (IMF). This loan was in return for public expenditure cuts, divestiture of public enterprises, a floating exchange rate and restraints on money supply. These terms then became the template that was applied globally. Countries that were slow in adjusting to the new economic order got themselves into deep difficulties of debt and inflation like many African countries. External pressures from the World Bank and IMF, the question of uniformity of application across countries with diverse socio-

economic conditions and the unbalanced ways of implementation led to the deeper crisis and poverty in those countries. Third World countries were quick to cut consumption and make changes in the distribution of income. Yet the expected structural changes to boost the efficiency of private production and public administration have stalled or taken much longer (Batley as cited in Desai & Potter, 2002, p. 135).

Hahn (2008) cited the oil crisis in 1973-74 as a consequence for the high unemployment and high inflation, which challenged the 'scientific' economic intervention of the major capitalist states making outcomes almost unattainable. Increased public expenditure led to persistent government deficits and appeared to exacerbate the phenomena of global crisis, leading to the destruction of Keynesianism. According to Hahn (2008), without substantial historical evidence, the mantra-like claim of neoliberalism is continually repeated: that the state is inefficient and corrupt and that private corporations are efficient and less corrupt. Neoliberal policies range from fiscal austerity, privatisation, liberalisation to decentralisation, deregulation and anti-labour legislation, and are naturalised through the mantra of globalisation as 'the only game in town', known as the "Washington Consensus" (p. 142).

The Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) imposed by the IMF in the 1980's as a response to the debt crisis, falls under this Consensus. These have forced weaker states to open their frontiers by lifting import and export restrictions, to remove price controls and state subsidies, to enforce rapid privatisation or divestiture of all or part of state-owned enterprises, to

implement user fees for basic services such as education and health and to cut social expenditures (Hahn, 2008).

Chang and Grabel (as cited in Hahn, 2004, p.142) claimed that although some particular social groups have benefited from SAPs, the bulk of the populations in the South have experienced SAPs as a disaster. Those Latin American countries that followed the SAPs virtually stopped growing, while sub-Saharan Africa experienced negative growth, and many former Communist economies have simply collapsed. The neoliberal free market approach in the 1980s demonstrated a significant failure. Because of the severe human consequences of the neoliberal project, it can be argued that many governments and social movements will automatically oppose neoliberalism.

The relevance of the neoliberal development theory to the overall aim of this study is that it addresses the issues that have necessitated the implementation of the GSFP. As Robinson (2002) stated, from the viewpoint of a broader social logic, the model is irrational, and at best it has generated widespread mal-development. With few exceptions, neoliberal adjustment results in a fall in popular consumption and social conditions, a rise in poverty, immiseration and insecurity, 'food riots', heightened inequalities, social polarisation and resultant political conflict. The GSFP is a social intervention programme designed to mitigate the rising poverty situation and low schooling attainments in poor communities in Ghana as effects of neoliberal policies that the Government of Ghana has executed over the past years.

## Ghana's experience under Structural Adjustment Programmes

The experiences of Ghana under the SAP have been documented by researchers including Clark and Manuh (1991), Kraus (1991) and Berry (1994). Hilson (2004) reported that Ghana became the first country in sub-Saharan Africa to undergo SAP. The ambitious programme from 1983 resulted in increased domestic price of export commodities, leading to the expansion in cocoa and mineral production. Also there were restraints on wages and government expenditures and transfer of resources to sectors producing tradeables that generate or save foreign exchange. These created a more favourable climate for foreign investment and local private enterprise. Kraus (1991) noted that Ghana experienced the longest period of sustained economic growth since independence in 1957 with a real growth in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of 5.7 per cent per annum during that period or a 2.7 per cent per capita.

These macroeconomic improvements did not translate to the individual at the microeconomic level. The effects on people of Ghana were high interest rates, foreign goods undercutting the sale of Ghanaian goods, rising school fees and university costs. Borehole and well fees became prominent and well known to peasants while consumers saw the end to subsidized goods and rising prices. Kraus (1991) added that these propelled identifiable groups like the Trade Union Congress (TUC), intellectuals, students, workers, businessmen and the rising ranks of dismissed and unemployed workers to oppose SAP policies.

Barwa (1995) commented that private sector investment response has been low, making the difficulties fall rather disproportionately on the people in

general and the poor in particular. Barwa (1995), (quoting Yankson, 1992) pointed out that a corresponding drop in the purchasing capacity affected not only patronage of goods and services produced by informal entrepreneurs but also the liquidity position of the entrepreneurs. The observations were that goods and services provided on credit did not bring immediate cash payments; blocking capital for considerably long periods of time.

Besides shrinking demand, the informal sector entrepreneurs also faced competition at three levels: (a) from local manufacturers in the formal sector, (b) local manufacturers in the informal sector and (c) imports of similar products, Barwa (1995) noted. Enos (1995) reported that over 120 industries had closed down since 1988 and that the increases in the number of small and medium firms remained fixed in size and employment. Since the adoption of the Structural Adjustment Programmes in Ghana within the industrial sector, large scale industries either closed down or became 'static'.

According to Berry (1994), substantial loans were contracted by government to promote cocoa, gold and timber production for export at the expense of health and education without a compensatory increase in government revenues. He further commented that the introduction of "user fees" for education and health services and retrenchment of workers resulted in a net decrease in household real incomes. It also resulted in an increase in the number of poor households which by virtue of their low purchasing capacity decreased the demand for urban informal sector products. Berry (1994) also stated that women were most adversely affected due to their comparatively low educational qualifications and family responsibilities. There were some women, as single heads of households, and when their

children had to be withdrawn from school to supplement family income, joined the already choked market-space of the informal sector; a situation that led to an increase in the criminal records of the society (Berry, 1994).

Education, according to Konadu-Agyemang (2000), suffered most among the social services sector under SAP as its share of budgetary allocation fell from 4.3 per cent of government expenditure in 1982 to less than 1 per cent in both 1996 and 1997. Linking a child's health, malnutrition and mortality to the mother's education, Konadu-Agyemang (2000) observed that malnutrition became more prevalent in the north because 33 per cent of mothers were less educated or were illiterate. This study further suggested that poverty levels in the rural areas had risen after 15 years of SAP.

As published by Gladwin (1991), Clark and Manuh (1991) reported that with lowered real income for both farmers and traders of local foodstuffs, agriculture and the informal sector were expected to absorb the bulk of the large number of unemployed workers displaced from public and private employment. Specifically for the northern parts of the country, Abdulai and Delgado (2000) claimed that low agricultural productivity and unfavourable domestic terms of trade for agriculture during the 1970s and early 80s were partly responsible for the massive decline in real agricultural wage rates over that time. They, however, showed that the effect of the reform programme had been to shift real agricultural wages upwards by 3.6 per cent. Abdulai and Huffman (2000) gave further explanations that previous failures to intensify food crop production in the Northern Region had been poor public policies, including subsidizing cereal imports that penalized domestic cereal production. Unfortunately under the SAP, the reduction or removal of

subsidies on agricultural inputs such as fertilizer, fuel or machinery increased farm input prices to farmers. To expand and increase production and improve efficiency of rice producers in Northern Ghana, government policy has to look at education, availability of capital inputs such fertilizers and machines and exposure to extension services.

Hilson (2004) also reported that SAP measures promoted perpetual expansion of mining and mineral exploration with disastrous impacts on the indigenous communities. These included outright displacement of subsistence groups, destruction of a much wider range of cultural resources with associated environmental problems; land degradation, contamination and chemical pollution. Despite these effects of the SAP, the mining sector contributed comparatively little to GDP; just between five and six per cent, suggesting that the increased mineral output benefitted multinational corporations.

The experiences of Ghana under the SAP as documented by scholars like Clark and Manuh (1991), Kraus (1991), Berry (1994) and Hilson (2004) show that SAP as prescribed by the IMF and the World Bank did not improve the living conditions of the poor. Under SAP policies children in the poor communities could not afford school fees while school facilities were also limited. The situation in the Northern Region could not be better. Similarly increased cost of farm inputs and farm labour limited food production and hence the incomes of farmers. In this way, SAP policies contributed to low school attainments and high poverty levels in the rural communities including the Savelugu-Nanton district. The GSFP was designed with the view to



mitigating the educational and poverty situations in the beneficiary communities.

### **Motivation theory**

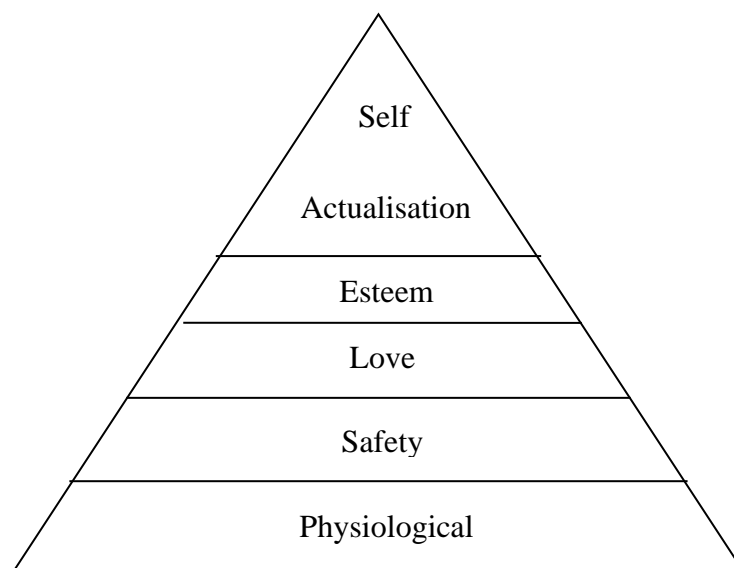
According to Graves (2001), motivation is the ability to change behaviour. It is a drive that compels one to act because human behaviour is directed toward some goal. He stated that motivation is intrinsic and comes from within based on personal interests, desires and the need for fulfillment. However, the extrinsic factors such as rewards, praise, and promotions also influence motivation. The premise behind needs theories is that if managers can understand the needs that motivate people, then reward systems can be implemented that fulfil these needs and reinforce the appropriate behaviour.

It is the opinion of Sirgy (1986), that in developed societies, members are preoccupied in satisfying higher-order-needs whereas for less-developed societies, members are rather preoccupied in satisfying lower-order-needs. Emphasising on the quality-of-life theory (QOL) he defined QOL in terms of the hierarchical need satisfaction level of most of the members of a given society. Using Abraham Maslow's concept of a progression from lower-order to higher-order needs, he stressed that since lower-order needs have a higher prepotency than higher-order needs, the individual is motivated to satisfy lower-order needs before higher order-needs.

Oleson (2004) drew the conclusion that in most humans there is an active drive towards health, growth and actualization of the human potential. The hierarchical placement of human needs shows why when the basic human needs (e.g. food and water) become sufficiently satisfied, another category of

needs soon emerges to take their place. A person who is lacking food, safety, love, and esteem would most probably hunger for food more strongly than for anything else and that all other needs may become simply non-existent or be pushed into the background.

In Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943) as shown in Figure 1, are five sets of goals which we may call basic needs. These are physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization needs. Tikkanen (2009) studied pupil's needs, wants and motivations related to school meals which cited the results from the study undertaken by Anderson (2004). Anderson (2004) showed that among the many explanations offered for Finland's excellent results in the triennial assessment of the knowledge and skills of 15-year-olds, was free school meals. The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) rankings organized by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) was to develop valid comparison across countries and cultures.



**Figure 1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs**

Source: Adapted from Maslow (1943)

Tikkanen (2009) concluded that pupils must be involved in developing school meals in order to meet their needs and wants.

Motivation theory underpins the essence of using the GSFP to improve schooling in the rural poor communities including the Savelugu-Nanton district. In a deprived area, children are hungry and would respond to free meals to satisfy their basic human need and attend school. In the same vein, purchasing foodstuffs from farmers in the beneficiary community would serve as a reward system to the community members and hence boost food production; a means to curbing poverty.

### **Theory of distributive justice**

Cosmopolitan claim to the redistribution of wealth throughout the world advance arguments focusing on a) contractarian, b) goal-based and c) rights-based brands of cosmopolitan justice. Caney (2001) on the rights based version of the theory of distributive justice stated that it is a common belief that all humans have rights, and among these are the rights to economic resources. By accepting the civil and political rights of the individual, the subsistence rights must as well be accepted. Everyone has a right to equal freedom and accordingly each is entitled to an equal amount of the Earth's resources (Caney, 2001).

Distributive justice entails equalizing midfare levels across persons that we should be concerned with the extent of people's capability or freedom to attain midfare as well as the midfare level actually reached. This statement credited to Sen (1982) was quoted from Roemer (1996) when Arneson (2006) observed that the midfare referred to was not one thing but a plurality.

Arneson (2006) stated that this referred to many functionings of doings and beings that people have reason to value so far as they are seeking their own well-being. He stated that this proposition holds that distributive values including equality must be balanced and should sometimes be sacrificed to aggregative values. That society should care about how much of the good things of life people get as well as how evenly they are distributed. According to Arneson (2006), the proposition put forward by Sen (1985) on the right basis for interpersonal comparison for the theory of justice should focus directly on the doings and beings of the individual which he called 'functionings' and the individual's real freedom to choose among different possible combinations of these. In this wise, Arneson (2006) agreed with Sen (1985) on the concern for enabling people to be and do with their resources, given their traits and circumstances.

Arneson (2000) reviewing egalitarian theories of distributive justice looked at the views of John Rawls on inequalities in life prospects generated by the basic structures of social institutions. According to Arneson (2000), to be just, these inequalities must work to everyone's advantage and more specifically to the maximal advantage of those who are worse off. He claims society has the responsibility for providing its members fair share of general-purpose resources and for establishing a morally acceptable framework for individual interaction. Provided this fair background is in place, individuals are free to lead their lives as they choose, within broad limits, and are responsible for the shape of their own lives (Arneson, 2000).

This is a theory that supports the welfare efforts of government to ensure that the needy are offered an opportunity for self expression. The

school feeding programme will provide opportunity for the education of the children of the rural poor. Facilitating community participation through small holder food production will also promote food security in the long run thereby reducing poverty. The rural people would then be able to make informed choices.

### **Implementation theory**

Implementation links policy making and outcomes; those actions by public or private individuals that are directed at the achievement of objectives set forth in prior policy decisions. According to DeLeon and Deleon (2002), the most detailed and, by natural extension, the most cumbersome definition of implementation is the one offered by Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983). This definition states:

Implementation is the carrying out of a basic policy decision, usually incorporated in a statute but which can also take the form of important executive orders or court decisions. Ideally, that decision identifies the problem(s) to be addressed, stipulates the objective(s) to be pursued, and, in a variety of ways, "structures" the implementation process. The process normally runs through a number of stages beginning with passage of the basic statute, followed by the policy outputs (decisions) of the implementing agencies, the compliance of target groups with those decisions, the actual impacts of agency decisions, and, finally, important revisions (or attempted revisions) in the basic statute. (pp. 20-21).

Implementation as an end result was used as a working definition by Hargrove (1981). In that paper, Hargrove (1981) emphasized on two key

components of the theory that enabled analysts to estimate how government programmes actually work. The components were:

1. The actions required by law are carried out;
2. Those actions encompass both formal compliance with the law and organisational routines consistent with compliance. (p.3)

Referring further to the theory as espoused by Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983), Hargrove (1981, p. 5) stated the main propositions for a successful implementation theory to be:

- i. The enabling legislation that mandates clear and consistent policy objectives;
- ii. The enabling legislation that incorporates a sound causal theory giving implementing officials sufficient justification to attain, at least potentially, the desired goals;
- iii. The leaders of the implementing agency must possess substantial managerial and political skill and are committed to statutory goals.

In reviewing the implementation theory by Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983), Ryan (1996) cited the six conditions to effective implementation synthesised from the variables of the theory, namely:

- the clarity and consistency of programme objectives;
- the extent to which programmes incorporate adequate causal (cause and effect) theory;
- the extent to which implementation structures support the achievement of objectives;
- the commitment and management skills of implementing officials and agencies;

- the commitment and active support of organized interest groups, the public, politicians and/or senior officials; and
- changes in socio-economic, public policy or technological conditions do not frustrate programme objectives, negate causal theory, or diminish political support.

The processes of implementation differ according to the character of the policy which can be classified typologically from the language of the statute and serves as the best benchmark for assessment of the degree of implementation. Citing Lowi (1963), Hargrove (1981, p. 8-9) characterised policies as:

1. Distributive: where great discretion for implementation is left to government authorities as no rule guiding government is formulated beyond the authorization of a process or declared privilege;
2. Regulatory: where the statute embodies rules of conduct with sanctions of the failure to comply; and
3. Redistributive: where categories of citizens are stipulated to receive special treatment according to specific rules.

According to Hargrove (1981), redistributive programmes in social policy are further re-categorised into those that serve goals of 'human development' and those that seek material 'welfare'.

Implementation theory had a major turn following the proposal of a series of commitment-oriented hypothesis assuming a command and control orientation that became known as a top-down perspective from Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983), Nakamura and Smallwood (1980) and Berman (1980). This empiricist perspective to policy implementation was dedicated to finding

the best way to move a policy proposal to its successful fruition. Lipsky (1971) stated that top-down studies assumed the existence of an authoritative, hierarchical prime mover, and therefore one needed only to minimize the communication distortions between that person (the principal) and his/her subordinate agents in order to effect successful implementation. This, according to Lipsky (1971) was the root of the implementation problem.

An alternative second generation approach to implementation theory led by scholars like Lipsky (1971) and Hjern ((1982) and Hjern and Hull (1982) proposed the bottom-up orientation. In their view, street level bureaucrats were the key to successful implementation and that the top downers ignored them at their peril. From their vantage point, implementation occurred only when those who were primarily affected were actively involved in the planning and execution of these programs (Mischen & Sinclair, 2007). They hold that public administration scholars often associate increased public participation in policy implementation with the advancement of democratic values making implementation practice more democratic. This they claim solidifies a role for administrators in the support and development of democratic institutions. Bottom-up theories of implementation are more democratic because they involve citizens directly in communications with policy implementers. In contrast, involvement in deliberations and participation of citizens in top-down models of implementation is limited and diffuse through elections of policy makers (Mischen & Sinclair, 2007).

In a review of the work of Ryfe (2005), Mischen and Sinclair (2007) observed that when citizens are invested in a process that legitimately involves them in the design and implementation of a programme, those participants are



more likely to see the policies and the implementations that stem from them as legitimate and adjust their behaviour accordingly. Furthermore if the community also accepts that those participants legitimately represent their interests, then their involvement may also lead to acceptance of program actions and adjustments in behaviour. Because public participation in policy implementation poses problems, normative theory should seek to balance top-down accountability with bottom-up responsiveness with the optimal balance being context dependent. This value-added approach (the amount of discretion exercised by implementers of public policy) seeks an optimal rather than maximal solution to the problem of more democracy.

Implementation is said to be the missing gap between policy and policy outcomes. The causes for which any action is taken are embedded in a causal theory that informs the policy direction. This theory provides the essential preconditions; both actors and conditions, for actions directed towards achieving set objectives in policy decisions. These set of actors and conditions and how they are managed determine the level of completion or success of a policy outcome. This theory is, therefore, a critical focal point for the consideration of this study which seeks to examine the effect of a government policy on education and poverty.

### **Poverty analysis**

The Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute (SPII) (2007) claims poverty is a multi-disciplinary concept and not an exclusive domain of any single science, including economics. In its very simplest and narrow definition, it means lack of income but considered in a much broader sense

poverty can be seen from its multidimensional concept encompassing other issues such as housing, health, education, access to services and to other avenues of accessing resources. It also includes 'social capital' and access to social power relations. The condition of poverty is dehumanising as the individual is subjected to a state of powerlessness, hopelessness, and lack of self-esteem, confidence, and integrity, leading to a situation of multidimensional vulnerability. Poverty cuts across age, ethnicity and gender dimensions with each category experiencing different reaction to its impact (SPII, 2007).

Income poverty, most commonly used by the World Bank, the IMF, and the UN is defined from the monetary based approach. Income poverty is the shortfall below some minimum level of resources, which is termed the poverty line. In this case, income poverty is a headcount or proportion of the population with income below the poverty line of \$1.25 and \$1.45 a day - adjusted according to purchasing power parity of any particular country. This allows the categorisation of countries on Gross National Income per capita and provides the basis for setting levels of income or consumption as a measure of poverty (Todaro & Smith, 2009; Laderchi, Saith & Stewart, 2003; Osberg & Xu, 2008).

White (as cited in Desai & Potter, 2002) considers poverty from its multidimensionality defining it as deprivation to material consumption, health, education, social life, environmental quality, spiritual and political freedom. Other approaches to the definition of poverty include the basic needs approach (Mihyo as in Spoor, 2005), the human development index approach developed by the UNDP (Todaro & Smith, 2009) and the capabilities approach espoused

by Sen (Pressman & Summerfield, 2002). In almost all countries, the conditions - in terms of personal consumption and access to education, health care, potable water and sanitation, housing, transport, and communications - faced by the rural poor are far worse than those faced by the urban poor (Khan, 2001).

In 1990, at the beginning of the period tracked by the MDG, 42 percent of the people in the developing countries lived on less than \$1.25 a day. The level of poverty in the developing world is overwhelming because the developing countries account for no less than 65 percent of the world's population. Today, Africa has one-third of the persons below the poverty line - 300 million out of one billion worldwide with a rising proportion of global poverty attributable to Africa. The World Bank as a result talks about the 'Africanisation of world poverty' (Mkandawire, 2010, p. 37-55). Put in another context 41.1 percent of the world's population and 83 per cent of the population of sub-Saharan Africa is in the extreme poverty category (World Bank, 2006; IFAD, 2007). Among the 65 countries designated as low income, 40 are in Tropical Africa and 30 percent of the 50 countries regarded by many UN bodies as least developed are also within Tropical Africa.

#### Causes and effects of poverty

Khan (2001) attributed some of the causes of poverty to:

- political instability and civil strife;
- systemic discrimination on the basis of gender, race, ethnicity, religion, or caste;

- ill-defined property rights or unfair enforcement of rights to agricultural land and other natural resources;
- high concentration of land ownership and asymmetrical tenancy arrangements; corrupt politicians and rent-seeking public bureaucracies;
- economic policies that discriminate against or exclude the rural poor from the development process and accentuate the effects of other poverty-creating processes;
- large and rapidly growing families with high dependency ratios;
- market imperfections owing to high concentration of land and other assets and distortionary public policies; and
- external shocks owing to changes in the state of nature (for example, climatic changes) and conditions in the international economy.

Hastie (2010) indicated that the poor within any society tend to have lower quality health, lower education levels, and poorer academic performance. There is persistent hunger or food insecurity, reliance on traditional systems of food production, basically grains and pulses, large family sizes with lack of adult wage earners. Poor households have accumulated debts and are unable to pay or borrow additional money. Their communities lack the vital social facilities to sustain life (Khan, 2001; White (2002) as cited by Desai & Potter, 2002; IFAD, 2007).

Poverty is commonly cited as a reason for children opting to work rather than being in school. It is the limited option open to children who belong to families at the edge of survival rather than investing in them as human capital accumulation in the form of schooling. Empirical studies by

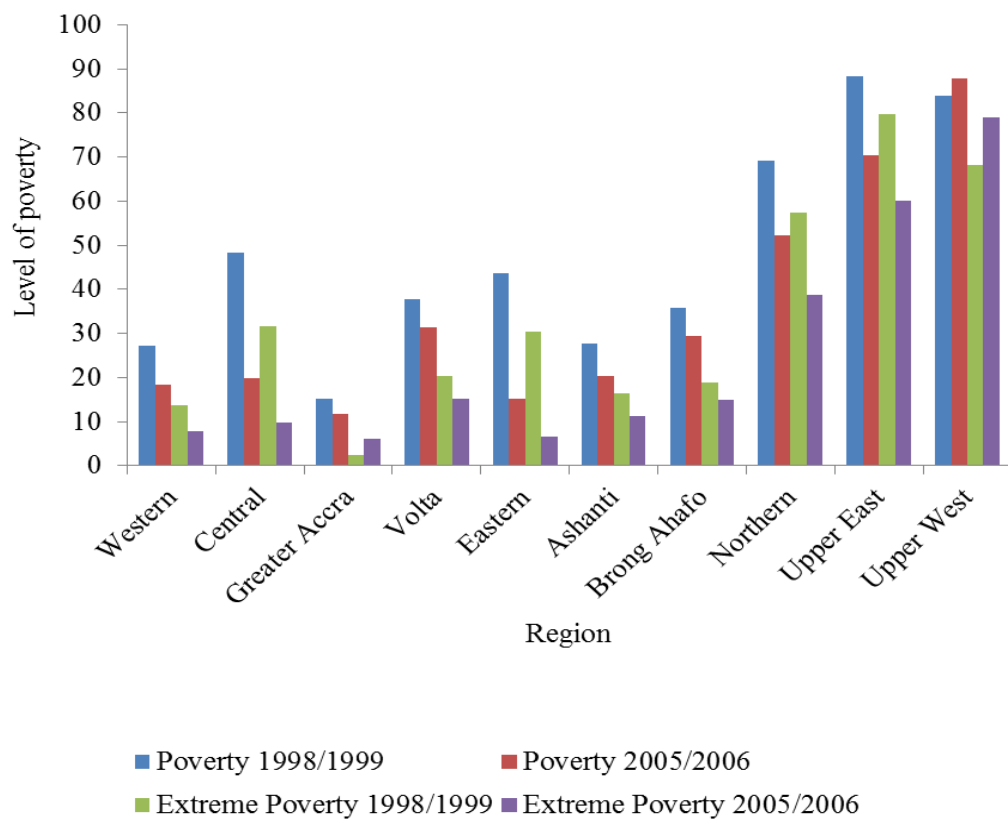
Subrahmanian (2002) (as cited by Desai & Potter, 2002) reveals that; (a) the economic contributions of children who work as wage labourers, self employed or in family enterprises, often help cushion adult household members over difficult economic patches where livelihoods are insecure or employment casuals, (b) children are sent to work at young ages to develop their skills in preparation for adult employment or to form social networks with future employers where there is a high degree of competition for employment, (c) where there is high adult unemployment, reinforcing the point that children's wages are not supplementary, but often substitute adult labour, thus undermining household economic welfare, (d) children's role in some cases sustain family enterprise and thereby enhance adult employment, (e) children work as a result of mortality and fertility determinants of family size, and the impact that this may have on household economic decision making. The report further shows that poor educational outcomes in many developing countries are the result of underinvestment in education by governments. Poor quality schools result in poor performance at examinations and increasing truancy and drop-outs.

### Poverty in Ghana

Using the local currency, the poverty line in Ghana was put at Gh¢0.55 per day and in the 1998-99 survey period, 39.1 per cent of Ghanaians fell below this poverty line appreciating to 30.10 per cent in the 2005 survey period (World Bank 2008; GSS, 2008). Poverty accentuated through spatial and social inequalities developed earlier during British colonial rule in Ghana. The generalised pattern of spatial inequalities based on the differential

resource endowment of the regions was perceived within the colonial development paradigm. According to Songsore (2003) and Poel et al (2007), this view continued to reflect strongly on current patterns of development in Ghana after independence.

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2003) reported that four out of every ten Ghanaians still lived in poverty. Figure 2 shows the levels of poverty across the country by regions. Many of the people, who are poor, work as food crop farmers while others were engaged in micro and small enterprises, or live on a survival income from daily casual labour. Two thirds of the working population outside agriculture is active in the informal economy. This has become a poverty trap into which a very large proportion of the poor, particularly women, are engaged in survivalist activities. The



**Figure 2: Ghana: Poverty levels by region**  
 Source: Extracted from GLSS 5(GSS, 2008)

survival rate for men at 65 years is given as 50.9 percent while that of women is 55.0 percent. Though life expectancy at birth on the average is 56.6 percent, that of men is 55.7 percent lower than the 57.5 per cent of female (UNICEF, 2010).

Adjasi and Osei (2007) estimated from the GLSS data that most households rely on wood fuel, do not have access to tap water and live in rooms rather than full apartments. They also observed that expenditure inequality was high and greater in the rural areas compared to the urban areas. Table 1 is the level of access to services by

**Table 1: Access to basic services by place of residence, 1990 – 1994**

Region	Access to electricity	Access to piped water	FHHH with no education	MHHH with no Education	HFD
Urban	74.0	75.8	22.3	12.2	79.3
Rural	6.0	12.8	46.8	32.9	28.0
Western	26.4	25.3	34.1	17.8	36.3
Central	29.6	48.7	35.6	18.5	34.8
G/ Accra	80.4	89.3	19.4	9.8	79.6
Volta	8.5	19.3	34.3	20.8	33.3
Eastern	26.6	28.4	27.1	16.9	55.3
Ashanti	38.3	39.0	33.0	17.4	53.2
B/Ahafo	19.1	19.1	30.8	21.7	53.6
Northern	11.3	16.4	75.9	62.0	14.6
U/ East	10.3	6.3	67.9	56.9	22.1
U/ West	10.3	15.2	66.5	50.9	16.9
All	30.6	25.4		38.3	26.2

Legend: FHHH: Female headed household; MHHH: Male headed household; HFD: Health facility delivery

Source: Extracted from Konadu-Agyemang (2000)

region. A household was less likely to be poor if the head was educated, as well as if the household was urban based. Again, households with heads employed in the clerical, sales, services, and agricultural sectors were more likely to be poor compared with those employed in the administrative and managerial sectors.

The Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS) had failed to adequately diagnose the dynamics of the informal economy and devise a meaningful strategy for poverty reduction for, what is in effect, the overwhelming majority of private businesses. The only alternative to provide livelihood for the people to move out of poverty is a decent job, through training to acquire vocational skills (ILO, 2004). Canagarajah and Mazumdar (2004) observed that there was too little skilled labour in Ghana, and demand for industrial goods had been weak, in part because the cost of credit was high and savings were too low for inefficient, state-run enterprises to buy the equipment they needed. Canagarajah and Mazumdar (2004) hold the view that whereas in Ghana there was inadequate growth of the productive sector in the non-agricultural economy, by reducing public employment or altering public spending much could be invested in more agricultural and infrastructural employment to reduce poverty.

Using the squared poverty gap measure that includes international remittances in household expenditure (income), Adams (2006) determined the effect of such remittances on poverty. Adams (2006) concluded that international remittances reduced the severity of poverty by 34.8 percent, but internal remittances reduced the severity of poverty by only 4.1 percent. This is as a result of the differential impact of these two types of remittances on



poor households. Households in the poorest decile group received 22.7 percent of their total household expenditure (income) from international remittances, as opposed to only 13.8 percent of such income from internal remittances. When these poorest of the poor households received international remittances, their income status changed dramatically and that in turn had a large effect on any poverty reduction measure (Adams, 2006).

#### Special case of Northern Ghana

Harsch (2008) reported that tackling poverty was especially difficult in the north and that small changes can have a noticeable impact. He indicated that while the rest of the country experienced a fall in poverty levels from 52 percent in 1991-1992 to 29 percent in 2005-2006 as estimated by the Ghana Statistical Service, the change was from 63 per cent to 52 per cent in the Northern Region.

Poverty in the Northern Region has a historical basis. According to Songsore (2003), the redirection of the northern trade route to the south and the subsequent slave raids on the Gonja people in the eighteenth century by the Ashanti's slowed any growth and development within the northern territories of Ghana. The development of cash crops agriculture, especially cocoa, and mineral exports in the south in the classic colonial models from 1874 to 1957, sharpened the differences between the south and north. This resulted in the marked pattern of spatial inequality between the north and south of the country. This was a deliberate colonial development policy creating satellization, in which resources were defined and exploited according to needs.

Another deliberate policy of the colonial administration ensured that the fairly vigorous investment in education in the Colony and Ashanti and the encouragement to missionary effort in general was not to be repeated in the Northern Territories. Consequently, northern Ghana fell a century behind the south in terms of educational development. The need for cheap, untrained and docile labour from northern Ghana was given impetus by a labour recruitment policy to draw labour from the peripheral areas of northern Ghana to work in the southern cocoa-mining economy (Songsore, 2003; Sutton, 1989).

By independence, the national space had already been designated into three: growth areas, resource frontiers and depressed regions. The largest areas of northern Ghana used as labour reserve for the growth areas of southern Ghana emerged as a depressed region. Hence the corollary of the 'wealth of the coast was the impoverishment' of the hinterland (Songsore, 2003). The development of southern Ghana into industrial and agricultural estates enforced the migration pattern of the colonial era that continued into the period after independence. Northern Ghana still remained a subsistence agricultural enclave as opposed to the colonial cash crop and mineral economy of southern Ghana to which has been added post-independence industrialisation (Songsore, 2003).

The second attribute to the poverty situation of the Northern Region is owed to its geographical features contributing immensely to the poor food situation and hence poverty as mentioned by Sutton (1989), Songsore (2003) and Poel et al (2007). Quaye (2008) reported on food security situation in the three northern regions of Ghana and observed that most of the foodstuffs produced were for subsistence; production of yam, corn, millet, soya beans,

groundnut and rice. Farmers used their own low yielding seeds, local implements and traditional farming systems resulting in low harvests. Without any credit facilities most households would be without food for five months each year in the Northern Region and so they had to resort to other means for their livelihood.

Table 2 is a summary of household expenditure and per capita expenditure for comparison. This gives an overview of the proportions of the different levels of poverty in the regions.

**Table 2: Households expenditure and per capita expenditure by region**

Region	Quintile					All	MHE (GH¢)	MAPCE (GH¢)
	1	2	3	4	5			
Western	5.8	16.7	18.5	23.1	35.9	100	1,924	648
Central	7.0	13.7	21.0	23.8	34.5	100	1,810	676
G/Accra	4.6	9.1	15.5	24.7	46.1	100	2,907	1,050
Volta	12.7	23.2	21.4	20.3	22.4	100	1,514	491
Eastern	4.9	1.3	23.1	25.7	31.9	100	1,794	613
Ashanti	7.9	14.6	16.3	22.3	38.9	100	1,967	682
B/Ahafo	11.0	19.8	21.1	21.5	26.5	100	1,614	514
Northern	32.9	20.7	15.4	15.3	15.6	100	1,529	362
U/East	54.8	19.1	13.0	7.2	5.9	100	1,066	229
U/ West	76.7	12.5	5.3	2.4	3.1	100	901	166
National	12.6	15.5	18.2	21.6	32.0	100	1,918	644

Legend: MHE: Mean household expenditure; MAPCE: Mean annual per capita expenditure

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2008)

The fifth round report of the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS) (GSS, 2008), reported that family sizes were larger, five and a half on the average, than the national average of four but the total number of 484 households was among the low numbers. The GLSS records (GSS, 2008) also show that while many men headed households (85.1 per cent), their female counterparts were much older; 50.5 years for women as against 46.2 years for men.

Health care facilities were inadequately distributed within the region and childhood diseases were much higher in the northern regions because a lot more never get vaccinated. Vaccination coverage does not exceed 10.8 percent. Girls get pregnant at an earlier age of 15 years with about 2.5 – 5.7 percent being pregnant between 15 and 19 years. There is low contraceptive use.

**Table 3: School attendance rate, by region, age and sex (percentages)**

Region	Age Group			
	6 - 11		12 - 15	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Western	94.0	93.7	98.9	94.5
Central	97.3	96.5	99.6	97.7
Gt. Accra	92.5	93.4	98.1	97.4
Volta	80.0	82.0	97.6	95.5
Eastern	93.3	92.7	98.6	96.8
Ashanti	97.7	95.6	98.0	94.1
B/ Ahafo	89.8	91.4	95.3	91.8
Northern	61.1	57.4	63.7	57.9
U/East	66.4	63.9	58.3	67.7
U/West	65.5	69.2	68.9	69.3
National	86.1	86.2	90.4	88.5

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2008)

On record, only 3.9 percent of the population are registered with the National Health Insurance Scheme. School attendance records also show disparities with a much wider gender differentiation in some regions, (Ghana Statistical Service, 2008). Table 3 provides gender and age data on school attendance for regional comparison.

### **Poverty reduction**

Kay (2006) reported that exclusive reliance on the market mechanism and the 'trickle-down' effect did not resolve the poverty problem. Hastie (2010) also stated that policies aimed at addressing poverty should be focused on reducing inequities and the conditions that marginalise, neglect, exclude, or 'leave out' certain people, and on providing access to resources and participation for all people.

These conditions can be achieved through the welfare system by direct payments, also called social security, or through subsidising social goods, such as education and health care. Hastie (2010) suggested another method of addressing inequality through differential taxation rates by increasing the minimum wage. And that possibly, poverty alleviation could be achieved through the provision of further redistribution of income through equal levels of income. Kay (2006), however, supported redistribution with significant social investments, especially in education and health, mutually supportive interaction between agriculture and industry and appropriate human resource to facilitate the reduction of inequality and poverty.

Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) are one of the new approaches to development planning in which low-income countries write

their own plans for reducing poverty. They are an attempt to reverse marginalisation of the vulnerable, spatial disparities and poverty reduction in developing countries. Essentially, PRSPs deal with building capacities of government machinery including legal systems (World Bank, 2003). Bradshaw and Linneker (2003) and Hoge and Hens (2007) also asserted that PRSPs should have country ownership with civil society participation, distributive equity and service evaluation. This must have detailed time-line with measurable indicators and costing of proposed policies that promote actual implementation and facilitate impact analysis.

However, Kay (2006) further remarked that PRSPs have not worked because they were embedded within a neoliberal framework. It is only by enhancing state capacity, domestically as well as globally, and by implementing appropriate development strategies, nationally and internationally, will it be possible to make major inroads into poverty reduction. Developing countries which have followed redistribution with growth development strategy have been more successful in reducing rural poverty (as a result of a comprehensive agrarian reform) than those countries which have implemented an import-substitution industrialization strategy (which largely neglected the peasant).

#### School feeding programmes: rationale and benefits

Education and health rank high among the indices of poverty. From Pressman and Summerfield (2002), Sen placed emphasis on the lack of capability to function effectively in society as poverty. This encapsulated inadequate education or illiteracy as a form of poverty. While a severe lack of

goods and services hurts every human, poverty hits children hardest. This is most threatening to children's rights: survival, health and nutrition, education, participation, and protection from harm and exploitation. It creates an environment that is damaging to children's development in every way – mental, physical, emotional and spiritual (UNICEF, 2009).

When emergencies like draught, war and economic depressions strike, families descend further into poverty. What parents do in such circumstances is to pull their kids out of school to work. Hopes for an education and development can suffer a huge blow. School feeding offers them something to count on in a period of dangerous uncertainty as it happened in Nairobi and Mombasa (Lambers, 2010). School Feeding is supporting displaced children or those recovering from conflict in enabling them concentrate on their academic work and sustaining their health. In Afghanistan, Angola, Liberia and Iraq, school feeding implemented by NGOs partnering with food-giving organizations like World Food Program and government donors have been a good strategy to improving children's health and schooling (Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies, 2007; Meir, 2009).

The WFP has become the largest organiser of school feeding programmes in the developing world. Presently, it is feeding more than 15 million children in schools in 69 countries in partnership with national governments and other local institutions. Using school feeding as a social safety net, the WFP envision that no child should attend school hungry by 2015. With a 300 million chronically hungry children worldwide, the WFP anticipates a bill of \$3.2 billion per year with US\$1.2 billion for the 23 million children in Africa. The WFP estimates just costs US\$0.25 to fill a cup with

porridge, rice or beans and give a monthly ration to take home. With US\$50 a child can be fed for an entire school year (Riggle, 2009).

In the Humanitarian Emergency and Acute Food and Livelihood Crisis involving 3.24 million people in Somalia between 2006 - 2008, children were among those who suffered most. Approximately 22 per cent of the population (equivalent to more than 700,000) were children and youth of school going age. Only 28 per cent of children and youth of school going age were in school due to conflict, drought and poverty. The high level of food insecurity, significant incidence of malnutrition and collapse of traditional coping strategies in Somalia made it relevant to provide school feeding. The programme had an entry and exit criteria and school feeding programmes were initiated and terminated according to the criteria. The exit criteria included the community being no longer a food deficit or a low income area (Somali Education Cluster, 2008).

According to Riggle (2009), school feeding as an in-school meal provides children with breakfast, lunch or both in schools and which are either prepared in schools, in the community or delivered from centralized kitchens. Take-home rations, however, are dry grain with flour mix that is packaged to school children to be taken home to be cooked. Quantities invariably depend on family size serving as an extension of the programme to benefit siblings and parents when a school going child attends school regularly. In some countries, in-school meals are combined with take-home rations for particularly vulnerable students such as girls or orphans and vulnerable children (OVC) to generate greater impacts on school enrolment, retention rates, cognitive capacity, and nutrition. Riggle (2009) commented that food



rations function like conditional cash transfers, their value compensating for the costs of sending the child to school.

Bundy et al (2009) observed that though school feeding does not immediately increase household income, and may in fact reduce income by making the children unavailable for work, in the long run, additional schooling should increase the child's income as an adult and help interrupt the intergenerational cycle of poverty. Thus, school feeding programs are among the several safety net programs that can have significant long-term benefits beyond the value of the immediate transfer. With community participation as suppliers of foodstuffs for the school feeding, India, Chile and Brazil incorporated SF in their Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (Bundy et al, 2009; Riggle, 2009).

In the Philippines, the Department of Education partnered the 'Agriculture Program for the Masses' of the Department of Agriculture in school gardening. This was an advocacy for the use of organic gardening technologies to produce selected vegetable varieties to supplement the protein, energy, vitamin A and iron deficiencies among students. Under the programme, students harvested and took home the produce to create public awareness on good public health and the economic benefits of small-scale farming. This project, according to Hicap (2007), was to combat hunger; a major reason why 2.35 million elementary and high school student dropped out of school, or perform poorly in school and 19 percent of the 3.26 million families face hunger and malnutrition.

Studies show that for every extra year of primary education there is an increase in a person's productivity (hourly wage rate) by 10 to 30 percent. It is

also observed from a study of thirteen low income countries that four years of basic education resulted in an 8 percent increase in farm production. From these findings, a 10 percentage point increase in girls' primary enrolment is expected to decrease infant mortality by 4.1 deaths per 1000. The high rate of return on education clearly defines it as the surest way of breaking cycles of poverty (UNICEF, 2006).

NEPAD has given the African continent a big impetus for school feeding. In 2003 in Maputo, African Heads of State and Government at the African Union Summit adopted the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) for the restoration of agricultural growth, food security, and rural development in Africa. The specific goal of CAADP is to attain an average annual growth rate of 6 percent in agriculture. The Pillar III framework recognizes the fact that, notwithstanding the gains made in agriculture, healthcare, and education in sub Saharan Africa, more than 40 percent of the population still live under the poverty line. Pillar III therefore focuses on the challenge of ensuring that vulnerable populations have opportunity to both contribute to, and benefit from agricultural growth. It is therefore seen as the focus that operationalises the entire vision of CAADP's commitment to achieving sustainable food security in Africa. The CAADP, Pillar III targets the development of smallholder productivity and improving responses to food emergencies. This is expected to simultaneously achieve the agricultural growth agenda and Millennium Development Goal 1 (MDG 1) with reduction in hunger and malnutrition. This concept is linked to school feeding whereby the small holder farms produce foodstuffs for purchase to

feed school children in their communities; named the Home-Grown School Feeding (HGSF) (FAO, 2002).

### **Empirical evidence**

This section reviews studies on school feeding that demonstrate the relationship between school feeding and schooling under various conditions. SF is generally acknowledged to enhance schooling. Ghana has piloted SF in the past five years under the concept of Home-Grown School Feeding. The programme has been designed with straight objectives to be replicated and scaled up after its piloting. To do so successfully, the programme requires field testing and evaluation to determine its efficacy to effect the changes it has been designed to do. This evaluation may also establish the contribution of school feeding in achieving goals I and II of the MDGs.

The following studies are reviewed to provide insight into the various methodologies and application of theories to guide the study of the GSFP in the Savelugu-Nanton district.

#### **Indonesian School Feeding Programme**

In a study of the Indonesian School Feeding Programme by Studdert (2001), the feeding programme was found to be associated with significant increase in student attendance even during economic crisis when non-SFP schools showed a decline. Studdert (2001) stated that the programme represented an innovative approach to school feeding involving multiple participants and beneficiaries in community-based implementation.

In 1998, two years after the programme, 280 school principals (143 in SFP schools) were surveyed to determine the effects of Indonesia's economic crisis on student attendance patterns. A further 16 SFP schools were purposively selected for observations and in-depth interviews with programme stakeholders to evaluate the benefits of SFP implementation.

The interview report revealed that the program was implemented in all targeted schools, according to guidelines, with a high degree of community participation. Food was purchased from local farmers who recognized this as a program benefit, especially during the crisis when market demand and prices declined (Studdert, 2001).

The results of the study suggested that the Indonesia's SFP was a successful model for engendering community involvement in children's schooling. It provided economic benefits to local communities and appeared to provide incentives to increase student attendance amidst declines elsewhere. The SF replaced snacks that would have been purchased or home provided foods to the children making an income transfer to families. The purchased food from the local farmers also constituted programme benefits directly to the farmers in that time of the economic crisis with declined market demand and prices of commodities. The involvement of families and farmers in this design of SF constituted a direct participation of the community. Finally, the method developed to evaluate interventions that affect program participation provides insights and understandings of effects that were previously unavailable. On student attendance, the SFP was associated with significant increases in student attendance even during the crisis when non-SFP schools showed a decline. Ordinary least squares models and regression analysis was used to

analyze the two components of change in attendance data in SFP schools compared to non-SFP schools. These were student recruitment to attendance and attrition (loss) from attendance. Recruitment rates were significantly greater in SFP schools, even during the crisis, while attrition rates did not differ (Studdert, 2001).

#### Food for education in Northern Uganda

In Northern Uganda, a prospective cluster randomized controlled evaluation was conducted from 2005-2007 with the view to ascertaining the outcomes of Food for Education (FFE) programs, primary school participation and education attainment and the design of FFE programs (Alderman, Gilligan & Lehrer, 2008). The study used a prior baseline survey in the first year. The study compared the impact of World Food Program's in-school feeding program (SFP) with an experimental take-home rations (THR) program. The THR consisted of grain, cooking oil and beans, a fortified corn-soy blend tailored to meet 75 percent of the household's food needs depending on household size. There was a child caregiver controlling the distribution of the ration and provided ration to those making up 80 percent of school days each month to qualify for rations. The in-school meals consisted of fortified mid-morning snack (micronutrient fortified corn-soy porridge) and lunch (beans/maize meal/rice meal) to all students enrolled in schools operating the programme. The study examined how outcomes are affected by the timing of meals and the placement of incentives with children versus parents. Data were based on detailed household, school and health questionnaires. Data collected

included gross and net enrollment, net attendance, and age at primary school entry, grade repetition, and progression to secondary school.

Regression analysis was used to estimate the impact of the SFP and THR programs. Results showed that FFE programme had no impact on primary school enrolment rates, which were already high following the introduction of free Universal Primary Education in 2002. School attendance (morning and afternoon) was measured through unannounced attendance visits to overcome bias in attendance data collected from respondents or school registers. Both programs had large impacts on school attendance, with impacts varying by grade and gender (Alderman, Gilligan & Lehrer, 2008).

The study identified that SFP program increased boys' morning attendance rates in grades 1-2 by 13 percentage points and increased average afternoon attendance by 9.3 percentage points. THR increased boys' afternoon attendance by 9-12 percentage points. In grades 6-7, THR had significantly larger impacts than SFP, increasing average attendance by 17-18 percentage points, and girls' morning attendance by 30 percentage points. Both SFP and THR reduced grade repetition, but SFP impacts are larger. SFP also reduced girls' age at entry. Neither program affected progression to secondary school. However, children in grades 6-7 in SFP schools in 2005 were significantly more likely to remain in primary school in 2007, suggesting that school meals induce hungry children to delay completing primary school (Alderman, Gilligan & Lehrer, 2008).

The random assignment of internally displaced people's camps (IDP) into treatment groups makes it possible to place a causal interpretation on estimated impacts. The intuition is that if access to the program is random

within a group of similarly eligible IDP camps, beneficiary or treatment status cannot be correlated with the outcomes. As a result, any observed differences in average outcomes over time between the treatment groups and the control group must be a result of the program. When access to the program is not random, measures of program impact based on a comparison of mean outcomes between program beneficiaries and a non-experimental comparison group may be biased due to selection effects. Selection effects are caused by characteristics of the IDP camps or households that are correlated with the outcomes of interest and with the probability of receiving the intervention.

#### School feeding in rural Kenya

Hulett (2010) evaluated the effects of animal source foods on school performance among primary school children in rural Kenya in a longitudinal study. The objectives for the study were to; i) assess the relationship between dietary intake and school performance measured by end-term test scores, ii) to assess the relationships between the covariates (sex, age, maternal literacy, and attendance and iii) to assess the relationship between nutrient intakes, such as iron, zinc, vitamin B12, and usual caloric intake from home, and school performance.

Hulett (2010) applied the group randomized, controlled feeding trial for the study with a control group. Each intervention grouping had a Githeri (local vegetable stew) base with meat, milk or fat as the supplement; all ingredients provided locally. The choice of the supplements was to ensure that the children received the vital minerals and vitamins expected to make the

impact in the children's nutritional status. Two cohorts of first years enrolled in 1998 and those enrolled in 1999 as second cohorts were used for the study.

Data was collected over a three year period on individual child and school measures, family, household and community characteristics as well as home food intake and cognitive test scores. Attendance was calculated as a percentage of possible number of days of attendance per school term. Univariate analyses were conducted on variables: descriptive statistics for continuous variables and percentage distributions calculated for categorical variables. Bivariate analyses included correlation and ANOVA assess any test score differences. T-tests were used to identify possible differences between groups, malaria status and anaemia status in predictor variables and covariates at baseline. A Pearson correlation coefficient was used to assess the strength of linear associations between variables and to identify possible multicollinearity between baseline covariates.

The study concluded that animal source foods had a positive impact on changes in end term test scores providing greater potential for children to benefit from future educational opportunities. Children in the meat group and to a lesser extent in the milk group showed the highest gains in test scores compared to the energy or control groups. Increases were statistically significant at the  $p = 0.05$  level. The largest changes in scores indicate the greatest improvement in academic achievement (Hulett, 2010).

### **The Ghana school feeding programme**

School feeding in Ghana has largely been pioneered by the work of two key religious based NGOs in Ghana; the Catholic Relief Services (CRS)



and the Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA). The primary focus of these institutions have been on identifying and addressing social injustice and deprivation in developing countries and more specifically areas where their churches operated. In Ghana, the efforts of CRS and ADRA have been targeting food security, economic development, primary health and basic education projects including school feeding (CRS, 2010; McGill, 2009).

The CRS entered Ghana in 1958 and by the early years of the 1960s, its focus had shifted from general welfare aid to targeted assistance and pioneered in school feeding across the country. Most beneficiaries were the poor or vulnerable communities; providing in-school feeding and take home rations to preschool and primary school children (up to age 12 years). Following the economic downturn in the late 1970s, the droughts and food shortages that devastated Ghanaians through the 1980s, CRS provided food assistance to those most in need, particularly families with young children and food-for-work programs that ensured access to food for adults who participated in community development projects, such as digging wells and building community infrastructures (McGill, 2009).

The Catholic Relief Services (CRS) since 1997 through USAID PL480 title II resources targeted the northern regions in a bid to increase enrolment and attendance especially for girls. Their programmes included sensitizing communities (rural), building their capacities to support their schools and assisting them to raise structures to house children in schools without shelter. This emphasis was to reverse the high illiterate population, which due to chronic poverty and ignorance does very little to encourage enrollment and retention of children in school particularly the girl child. The benefits that

accrued from the CRS/MOE/GES partnership had been one of capacity building management, project implementation and monitoring, records keeping and accountability to all categories of stakeholders (CRS, 2010).

ADRA Ghana, a non-sectarian, development-oriented organization commenced operations in Ghana in 1983. In line with its objective of improving the nutritious value of foods to vulnerable households, it added the use of soya-based meals to its school feeding programme in the three northern regions in partnership with the World Soy Foundation. A two prong result were anticipated; to facilitate the production and consumption of soya bean due to its high protein content and to make farmer earnings higher from this cultivation and increase protein intake of the people in these vulnerable areas.

Ghana adopted the Home Grown School Feeding programme concept in 2005 as a professed national solution within the broader framework of the UN MDGs. Ghana started with 10 pilot schools in 2005. By December 2008, the project had expanded to cover one-fifth of a national total of 2,875,519 pupils enrolled. The GSFP in accordance with its design was to receive collaboration from the Ministries of Education, Food and Agriculture, Health, Finance and Economic Planning and Women and Children Affairs as well as the Metropolitan-Municipal-District Assemblies to complement the budget and support related activities. These were outlined in the Annual Operating Plan (2010) for the GSFP in 2007 (Netherlands Development Organisation, 2007).

This programme fall in perspective of the objectives of Ghana's Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy, the Education Sector Plan, Imagine Ghana Free from Malnutrition, Food and Agriculture Sector Development

Policy, National Social Protection Strategy and the decentralisation policy.

The key strategic partners for the programme as at December 2009 were:

- Embassy of the Kingdom of Netherlands (Dutch Embassy);
- World Food Programme;
- Netherlands Development Organisation (SNV);
- Social Enterprise Development Organisation (SEND Foundation);
- International Centre for Soil Fertility and Agricultural Development (IFDC);
- Ghana Agriculture Initiative Network (GAIN);
- AgroEco-Organic farming; and
- Schoolfeeding Initiative - Ghana Netherlands (SIGN).

The programme manual (Government of Ghana, 2007), sets two levels of objectives; short term and the long term. The short term objectives are:

- Reducing hunger and malnutrition;
- Improving enrolment, attendance and retention;
- Improving performance; and
- Increasing domestic food production.

The long term objectives are poverty reduction and improving food security in the poor communities of Ghana. Over 80 percent of the programme cost is to be spent in the beneficiary communities to invigorate the local economy and to break the cycle of rural household and community poverty in the long run. The GSFP is managed by a Programme Steering Committee that takes responsibility from the Office of the President through the representative

sector ministries. The programme is coordinated from a Programme Secretariat in Accra with Regional Secretariats acting in consultation with the Regional Coordinating Councils of each region. At the district, municipal and metropolitan areas, the assemblies have an eight-member Implementation Committees and a School Implementation Committee at the beneficiary school. The partners and other donors collaborate with the national secretariat and ministries in Accra.

The policy sets standards of hygiene for the kitchen, personnel and food safety as well as nutritional balance of the meals to be served to the children. The District Desk Officer is responsible for the documentation and reporting of the activities of the programme in each locality. The policy also sets out terms for the contract of the caterers and finally provides a format for reporting not only on finances but all other indicators in which the programme seeks to make an impact. Training programmes for all categories of participants and stakeholders form part of the policy outlay.

The selection criteria for schools are defined by the following:

1. A deprived district based on GPRS definition or classification;
2. Poorest and most food insecure districts;
3. Low literacy level districts;
4. Low school attendance rate (high absenteeism) districts;
5. Low school enrolment districts;
6. High school drop-out rate districts;
7. High communal spirit districts;
8. High communal management capability districts;
9. Increased utilisation of diversified balanced local diet districts; and

#### 10. Judicious management of the environment districts.

The ten point criterion for the selection of beneficiary schools are generally too broad and might leave a lot in the hands of officials to decide. Though the GLSS provides records on poverty levels, selection criteria for such a programme must be clear and precise. Hence specific cut off points must be set so as to avoid vagueness. This refers to items 1 to 6

The policy document does not define what a high communal spirit and a high communal management capability districts are. The ambiguity in these two items still exposes the implementation of the policy for manipulation by officials in the selection of beneficiary schools. In much the same way, knowledge of what constitute a balanced diet and use depends on education and economic status of the household. Traditional and vulnerable as they are described, this is an ambiguous criterion to use because dietary practices could be culturally inclined and not follow the ideals of balanced diet. The need to protect the environment has invariably been the result of some religious beliefs but these have not survived the increasing poverty situations under the traditional farming practices. Such communities with serious environmental abuse depict serious poverty situations and need to be revamped with such a programme with best practices.

#### **School feeding in the Northern Region of Ghana**

The level of poverty in the Northern Region attracted a number of NGO activities into the regions. CRS made early entry into the region to be followed by ADRA. A number of poverty related interventions including school feeding were instituted to help the rural poor. ADRA put in place the

Development Assistance Program (DAP) to assist household enhance food security. Tremendous increases in food crop yields and household income, improved nutritional status among children of targeted households are the outcome of this intervention. It has also resulted to reduction in sanitation related diseases and improved access to potable water in client communities (ADRA, 2004).

The integration of the activities of the WFP from 1999 gave much support to the programmes of the CRS and ADRA. In an expanded form, food for work support entire household with rations while ensuring that children went to school and were adequately housed (WFP, 2007). A number of local NGOs operate independently within the Savelugu-Nanton district all within poverty reduction objectives. These are Amasachina, Tumakuvi, Gub Katimali, Tiyum Taba and Maata Ntudu.

### **Conceptual framework**

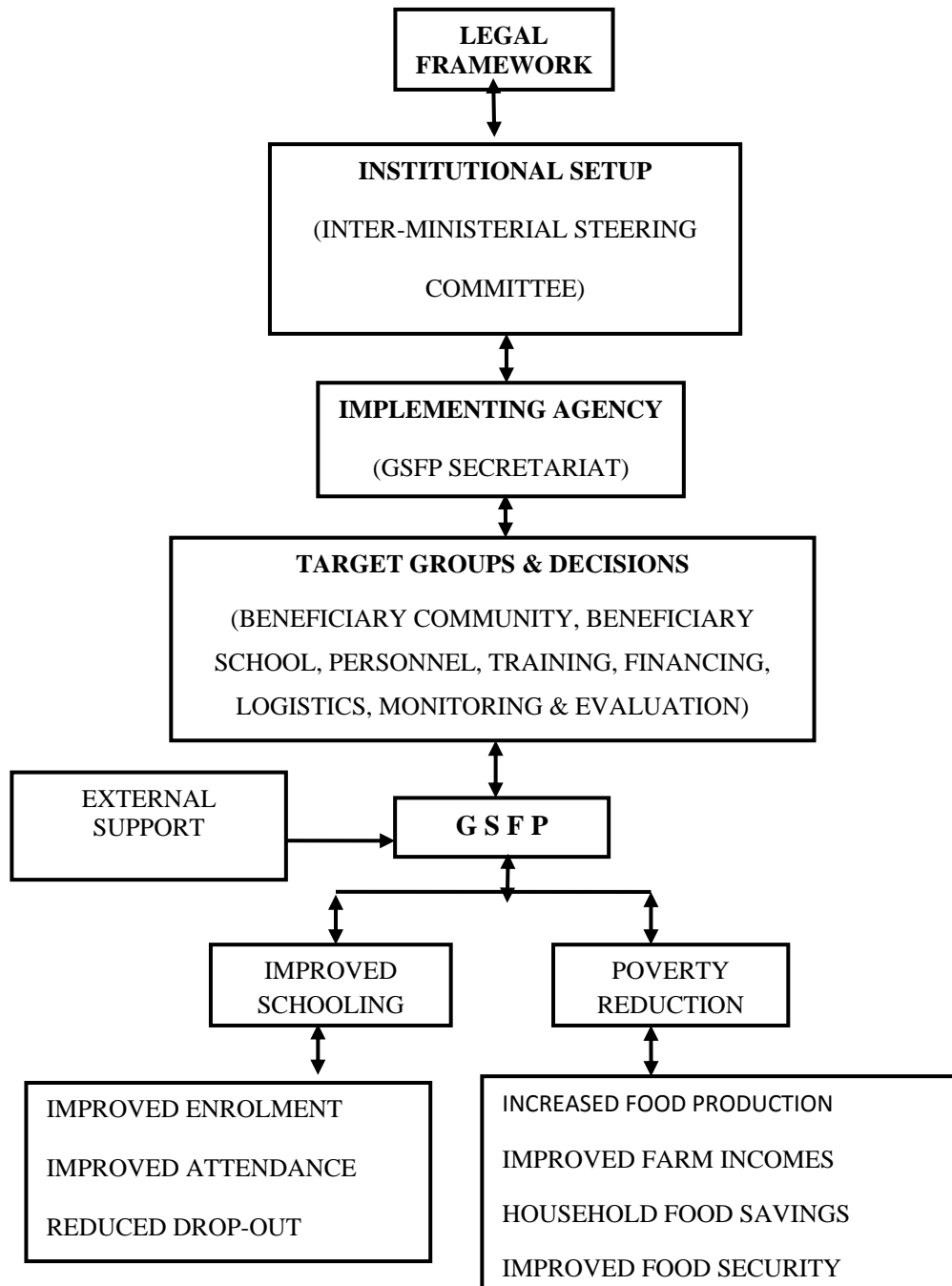
The conceptual framework for this study is based on the tenets of the implementation theory as defined by Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983). The key component is the 'statute' or the legal framework out of which the implementation of a policy is structured. The statute then defines an institutional set-up which administers or implements the policy; in this particular study the GSFP. Looking at the greater dimension of it, this institutional set-up would include the National Secretariat (NS) of the GSFP and the Inter-Ministerial Steering Committee comprising: the Ministries of Local Government, Education, Youth and Sports/Ghana Education Service and Women and Children's Affairs. This holds the policy and interprets it by

making decision. These policy outputs establish the scope and modus operandi of the GSFP. It manages the activities of the NS, lower level implementing agencies or committees and the target groups from which the impact can be measured. The interrelationships between the stages and processes as well as the key actors are set up in the framework in Figure 3.

On top of the conceptual framework is the legal framework which defines the entire GSFP and its institutions. The institutional setup below the legal framework is a set of administrative and policy guiding organization that manages the GSFP. This institutional setup established the GSFP National Secretariat and its agencies lower down to the beneficiary communities. The GSFP National Secretariat implements decisions through the target groups lower down and provides them with all that is administratively required to execute the policies of the institution to achieve the objectives of the GSFP. The policy outputs are the schools selection, establishment of committees, logistical support to all levels of the administrative setup, staff recruitment and training of all personnel, financing and monitoring and evaluation of the programme activities.

The framework shows external support, the technical and financial assistance offered the Government of Ghana by strategic partners to the GSFP and the outputs envisaged from the programme. The outputs are the improved schooling attainments and poverty reduction in the beneficiary communities. The arrows in the framework show the relationships between the components which are bi-directional. This indicates the direction of flow of policy down to the target groups and a system of reporting on activities executed by them back to the implementing agency and the institutional setup.

The study considered the policy framework, the institutional setup and their operations, the activities of the donors and the impacts of the programme at the beneficiary level (school and community). These impacts must be measurable to enable assessment of the impact of the policy.



**Figure 3: The GSFP implementation process: input and outcome**  
Source: Drawn from Government of Ghana (2007)



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter discusses details of the research methodology. These include the study design, description of the study area, study population, sample and sampling procedures. The section also provides details of the data collection procedure and instruments, and the data processing and analytical methods employed.

#### **Study design**

This is an impact study designed to explore whether the schooling and poverty indicators have changed over time with the implementation of the GSFP. Impact study falls within the scope of evaluation research. Impact analysis is based on the outcome of a programme or service but differs from a typical outcome analysis. A typical outcome analysis, asks whether the programme and services are doing what they were expected to do but impact analysis asks how programmes and services have affected the community. Impact studies pull data from many different sources and often look at many different aspects of the issue. Its relevance to this study is drawn from the fact that it can answer questions of the usefulness of programmes and services to its target groups (Sarantakos, 2005).

The study employed triangulation which offers the advantage of considering the issues in more than one perspective to enrich knowledge and test validity (Sarantakos, 2005). The study therefore required the collection of

both primary (interview) and secondary (school records) data for analysis in line with the set out objectives.

### **Study area**

The Savelugu-Nanton District is one of the 18 administrative districts of the Northern Region of Ghana established by Legislative Instrument 1450 of 1988. Savelugu is the district capital; about 5 km away from the regional capital, Tamale. The district lies directly north of the Tamale metropolitan area.

The annual rainfall volume of 750 mm to 1050 mm is in a single rainy season with a long dry season from November to April. The vegetation cover is predominantly Savannah scrubland. Generally the land is under populated and under cultivated. Using the 2000 population as the base, the population of the district was projected to 127,155 for 2011 based on the exponential growth rate model from Tsirel (2004). The population growth rate of the district was three percent, slightly above the regional rate of 2.8 percent (Savelugu-Nanton, 2010). The total land size is 1,790.7 sq. km. with a population density of 63 persons per sq. km., also much higher than that of the region of 25 per km.

The district has 12,150 households with an average household size of nine though extreme cases of up to 47 persons exist. Households are predominantly headed by men with only 5.5 percent headed by women. Of the 150 communities, 143 of them are rural in which 80 percent of the district population reside. Agriculture and forestry engage over 70 percent of the

economically active population. This places 40,000 people out of the population (almost 44%) within the extreme poverty bracket (GSS, 2008).

The weather characteristics do not favour large scale agricultural enterprise. What ameliorate the situation are the four small dams which facilitate dry season farming. These are in the Libga, Bunglung, Dipale and Sugu-Tampia communities. The main crops are maize, vegetables, soya beans and ground nuts. The women also do collect Shea butter for processing. All livestock species are raised in the district at various levels of commerce.

Adult literacy rate is low; four out of every five adults are illiterate in the district but more females (64.8 per cent) have completed primary school than males in the district (Ghana Resource Center, 2010; Savelugu-Nanton, 2010). The Savelugu-Nanton District is one of the districts in the Northern Region that has benefited from the GSFP. There are 87 basic schools in the district. At the time of this field study, six schools were benefiting from the pilot phase of the GSFP. When the programme was started in 2006, two schools; Tibali and Kpalang Primary schools were among the schools selected to pilot the programme in the district. It was in 2008 that additional four beneficiary schools were added to the two in the district (Savelugu-Nanton, 2010). Figure 4 is a map of the study area showing the selected communities and those involved in the GSFP in the district.

### **Study population**

The study population consisted of: school pupils, school heads and their assistants in the district, cooking staff in beneficiary schools and community's representatives on the project management committees as well

as parents and farmers in those communities. Also included in the study population were the personnel of the GSFP national and regional secretariat, and district assembly, GES and MOFA.

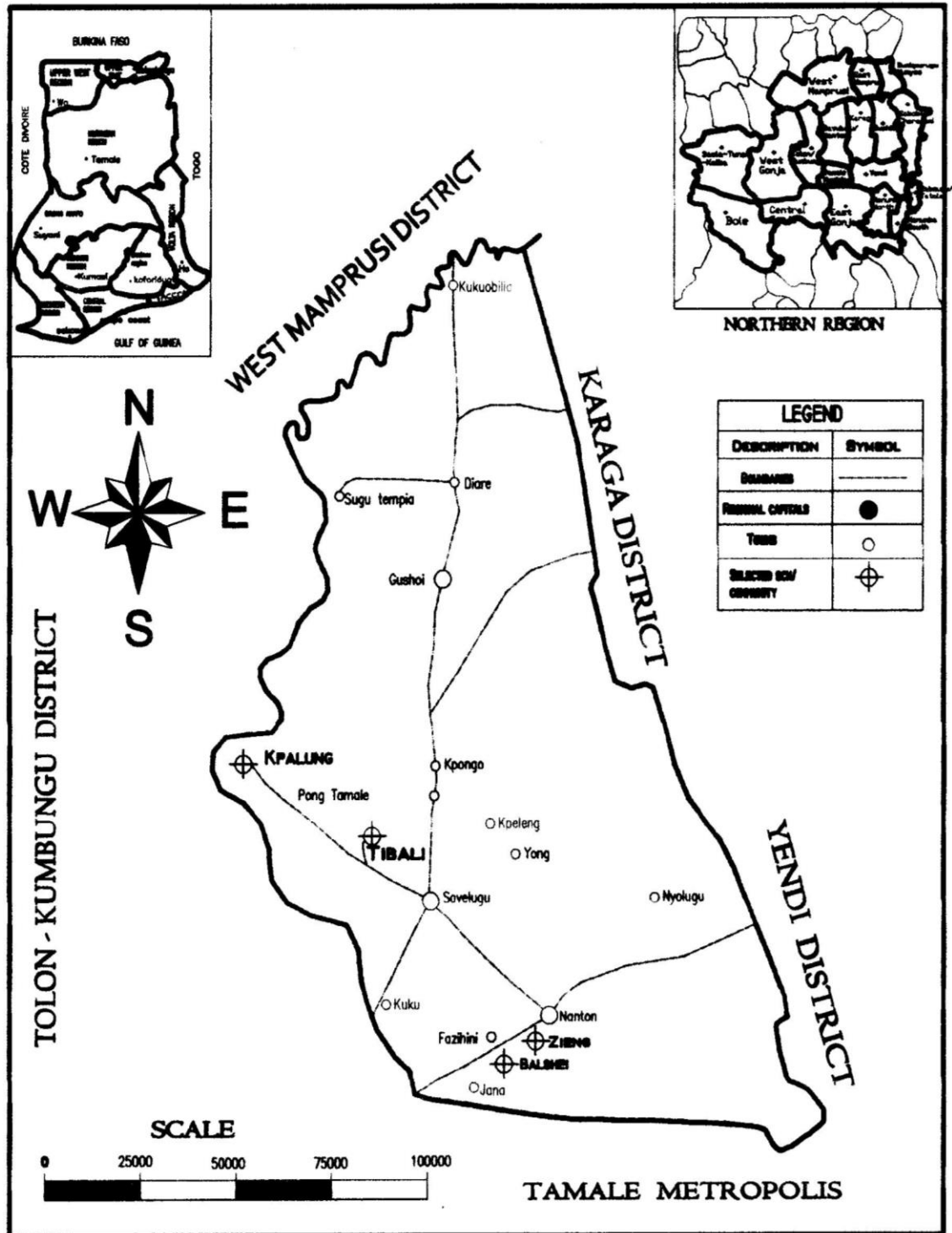


Figure 4: Savelugu-Nanton District

Source: Savelugu-Nanton District Profile (2009)

## **Sampling procedure**

Both probability and non-probability sampling were used in selecting samples for this study. There were six schools that benefitted from the GSPF in the study area. Out of the six, two had been part of the programme since 2006. This study was to assess the effects of an intervention and the usefulness of those outcomes to the beneficiary community. This study required data from respondents with a long term contact with the intervention for their in-depth experience and knowledge of the programme and tested the performance of the indicators under the programme. In such situations where all the desired information is only available in those two schools, census is applied in the selection of the two schools (Devore, 2004). The selection of the two schools that had been with the programme the longest would satisfy the condition of obtaining information from personnel who had been on the programme for considerable length of time to provide definitive and cogent responses to the enquiry. This was to ensure validity and reliability of the study (Sarantakos, 2005).

To make a 'with and without' comparison, the study involved two other schools as control for comparison during the analysis. Records at the GES office gave 87 schools in the district. It was shown that 39 of them had benefitted from some form of school feeding in the past and conditions were much improved in such schools. This left 48 schools that had not benefitted from any form of school feeding. These schools were used in a probability sampling; by employing simple random sampling using the lottery method for the selection of the control schools. This method provides each sample unit an equal opportunity of being selected and is independent of each other. The 48

schools were numbered and the numbers written onto slips of paper and folded into a box. The first two numbers picked after thoroughly mixing had the corresponding schools selected as control schools. (Sarantakos, 2005).

By status and relation with the GSFP in the study area, purposive sampling was used for teachers at the schools and desk officers at the GES and MOFA for the survey. This ensured that respondents chosen for this study were key stakeholders to the policy's implementation processes and were in position to know its effects on the schools and communities.

There was one school per community and therefore a school selected brought on board the community in which it was situated as a beneficiary community. In all four schools and four communities were selected. For each beneficiary school and community, 15 community members comprising parents and farmers, who sell to the programme and the community representatives on the SFP Food Committee, were purposively selected for the focus group discussion. Both school heads and their assistants, and the District Agricultural Officer who had knowledge of the farmers in the beneficiary communities assisted in their selection.

Enrolment records from the schools admission registers and drop-out numbers determined from class registers were compiled with the assistance of the assistant head teacher from each school. The project started in the district in 2006. The base year for the analysis was 2005/2006 academic year. School data (enrolment, attendance and drop-out rates) from 2001/2002 to 2005/2006 academic years (before the programme) served as the base line data. School records from 2006/2007 to 2010/2011 were used for the programme's pilot period.

The sample included the four schools selected for the study. There were two beneficiary schools (with GSFP) selected by census; Tibali and Kpalung Primary Schools and two non-intervention schools as control schools (without GSFP) selected by simple random sampling were Balshei and Zieng Primary Schools. The data collected was computed into term and yearly attendance averages per pupil for all four schools. Table 4 provides the samples for the survey.

**Table 4: The study sample**

Category of Respondent	Total population	Number selected	Remarks
Teachers	Teachers in all 4 schools	8	1 school head from each school 1 assist. school head each
Kitchen staff	4	2	1 cook from each beneficiary school
Community	All beneficiary community members	32	15 farmers & parents each 1 food committee member each
Key Stakeholders	All staff of key stakeholders	10	Focal person on GSFP-MOE; District Agric Director; 3 representatives from GSFP NS; 1 representative each from Dutch Embassy, ADRA and CRS; Desk Officer for RCC and representative from MLGRD head office
Total		52	

Sources: Author's construct (2011)

### **Data collection instruments**

Two sets of data; primary and secondary data, was required to satisfactorily conclude on the processes of implementation of the policy establishing the GSFP and its effects on the beneficiary communities and schools. To do this, two sources of data were used; primary data obtained from

respondents from the field and secondary data from publications on the GSFP, mainly articles, reports and books and attendance records compiled from class attendance registers.

Structured interview schedules were used to collect secondary data from the school record books (class registers). Special forms were attached to the questionnaires for compiling the school data and were administered on school heads and their assistants. This was to accomplish the requirements for properly analysing data for the effect of the GSFP on school attainments. The key variables on schooling compiled from the school record books were school enrolment, weekly attendance and drop-out data. Table 1 attached to the questionnaire was for enrolment data; it requested for each year, from 2000/2001 to 2010/2011, the number of pupils who entered class one only. School drop-out numbers were entered in Table 2 as number of pupils who dropped-out of school through the same years as for Table 1 for each class. For each class it was number in present year deducted from number from its previous year. Table 3 recorded class attendance as total number of pupils who were marked as present daily in class through the 13 weeks of each of the three terms of the each academic year for the years 2001/2002 through to 2010/2011. After cross checking the entries in Table 3, a summary was produced for the entire period from class one to six as computed averages per pupil per year. With the observation that number of weeks spent per school term were not even across the four schools selected, the lower limit of 13 weeks that all reached was used as the cut off duration for the data collection.

Interview guides were used on all respondents who were government officials and the strategic partners (donors). Basically this provided the



primary data for the study. The interview guide was, therefore, used for the GSFP desk officers at MOFA and GES, MLGRD and GSFP National Secretariat personnel and Regional Coordinator. The rest were representatives of donor agencies; the Royal Netherlands Embassy, ADRA and the Catholic Relief Services. An interview guide was used in this instance to obtain in-depth information on the processes of implementation, roles played by the agencies and how the poverty reduction component of the GSFP was implemented.

A third instrument, a focus group interview guide, was used for the two focus group discussions in the two beneficiary communities. Discussants were made up of parents and farmers who sell to the programme, and the community representatives on the food committee. This provided the views of the community members on their participation in the programme and the poverty reduction component of the intervention in their communities.

### **Field work and challenges encountered**

The instruments were administered successfully to senior officials (government and donor agencies) in Accra and in the study area. A major hindrance experienced was the need for several trips to the offices of the senior officials to meet them personally to administer the instruments. With little knowledge of how the programme started, it was useful getting past staff of the GSFP NS who worked with the programme from beginning to provide in-depth information from the NS point of view. Unfortunately, it was a difficult task interviewing the Regional Coordinator at Tamale. This officer who claimed to have just been posted to the office was not sure of the purpose

of the research into the GSFP; that this could be politically motivated. Getting her responses on the implementation and operations of the programme was difficult.

Language played an important role in the administration of the instruments in the government offices and donor agencies. Things were much easily done than for the administration of the instrument in the communities. The language demanded extra patience and care which made the process slow in the communities. To ensure that respondents understood issues being discussed, the questions were rehearsed several times in English and Akan. Some of the discussants who understood both English and Akan interpreted to the rest in Dagbani and likewise their responses to enable all focus group discussants contribute effectively to the issues. As the communities were very far apart with transportation difficulties, instrument administration in the communities also took much time. The entire exercise was expensive and time consuming.

The only institution that failed to support this study was ADRA. Though the front desk officer requested that the instrument be left for the project officer to study, no responses were obtained despite several trips to the ADRA Secretariat. No special reasons could be attributed to this failure. In general, however, responses to the instruments were very helpful.

### **Data processing and analysis**

As a quality control measure data obtained from the field were edited. They were then checked for accuracy, conformity and uniformity in respect of questions posed to respondents before entries were made for analysis. Two

sets of data were collected from the fieldwork. These were the oral recordings from the focus group discussions from the two beneficiary communities and the responses from respondents across the GSFP organizational hierarchy and class records of pupils. The oral recordings were first transcribed and rearranged thematically: general knowledge of the programme; selection process, appointment of caterer and cook and conditions of service, foodstuff purchases, the feeding processes, monitoring activities, local capacities to produce foodstuff, benefits and future of the programme.

Content analysis was used to examine the publications on the GSFP to derive conclusions for the study on the implementation process. According to Sarantakos (2005) content analysis is a documentary method of social research that aims at a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the content of texts, pictures, films and other forms of verbal, visual or written communication. These are related to the intentions of the communicator and techniques of persuasion among others. The information contained in the processes specified by the policy document and operational manual were studied in line with other publications. The study of the documents addressed the meanings and interpretation of the policy for its implementation. The responses from the survey; respondents from GSFP institutional set up and the transcribed responses from the focus group discussions on the implementation processes were used to compare the policy guidelines for effectiveness in the operationalising of the policy as stated in the first objective of the study.

Statistical tools from Microsoft Office Excel version 2007 was used for the statistical analysis of data. Using the average enrolments figures, a graphical presentation of enrolment trend was presented as well as a 'before

and after' the intervention covering the period 2000/2001 to 2005/2006 and 2006/2007 to 2010/2011. ANOVA was used to determine further any relationship between means of the beneficiary and control schools and along the years for both enrolment and attendance. In the case of attendance the computed mean annual attendance per pupil per year was used.

In general, the purpose of analysis of variance (ANOVA) is to test for significant differences between means making it a suitable statistical technique for hypothesis testing. Two different groups (with and without GSFP) were being compared; ANOVA produces results as if it were the Student t-test for dependent samples. A specialty of ANOVA is that it incorporates a post-hoc analysis (Tukey's test) which though similar to doing several t-test does pairwise (multiple comparison) between groups all at the same time. The measured variables (class attendance) are the dependent variables and the manipulated variables (groups in the GSFP: beneficiary and control schools) are called factors or independent variables; in ANOVA this is termed Treatment. The test results refer to the four schools; Tibali, Kpalung, Balshei and Zieng Primary Schools as treatments (Bluman, 1998; Lucey, 2002).

The stable numbers of pupils reporting for the beginning of the next academic year were deducted from that of the previous year to obtain the drop-out numbers. These were fewer numbers of records and no statistical analysis was applied. Using these statistical techniques the second objective to compare schooling indicators were effectively done.

For the third objective, a qualitative analysis of the responses from the field was used to examine how the implementation of the programme has influenced poverty reduction in the beneficiary district. These included the

responses from GSFP officials and the transcribed recordings from the focus group discussions that were focused on poverty reduction in the study. There were two beneficiary schools and hence the focus group discussions were held in the two communities in which the schools were situated as beneficiary communities. The outcome of the two focus group discussions was used to draw conclusion on any poverty reduction impact of the programme in the area of the study.

### **Pre -Testing**

The pre-test was conducted at Yamoransa in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District in the Central Region. The selection of Yamoransa follows the fact that the Central Region is classified as the fourth poorest region in the country. The socio-economic characteristics are similar; it is a farming community about 8km to the regional capita, Cape Coast, as the study area is to Tamale, in the Northern Region. The Yamoransa Roman Catholic Primary School is a beneficiary of the GSFP. The pre-testing was done from 6<sup>th</sup> to 9<sup>th</sup> April 2011.

The instruments were pre-tested on the school head and the assistant, representatives of the community on the School Implementation Committee, the cook, and the GES desk officer on the District Implementation Committee. The purpose was to enable shortfalls in the instruments to be detected and corrected so as to maximise their utility for the survey in the study area. The additional information from this pre-test enabled the fine tuning of the instruments and the redesigning of the tables for the schooling data collection. Critically, the pre-testing offered opportunity to determine the possible

duration for the administration of the instruments in the study area for logistic planning. After the pre-test, some questions were modified for clarity and accuracy, and others were deleted. This was done to standardise the instruments.

### Fieldwork

The fieldwork was started in Accra from 25<sup>th</sup> to 28<sup>th</sup> April 2011 where the instruments were administered on government officials on the programme. The officials included the desk officer at the Ministry for Local Government and Rural Development, Officials at ADRA, CRS, the Royal Netherlands Embassy and the GSFP National Secretariat. The field study in the Savelugu-Nanton District was from 10<sup>th</sup> 27<sup>th</sup> May 2011. No research assistant was used in the survey except for some members of the community who assisted researcher to understand the local dialect when interviewing the cooks who only spoke the local Dagbani.

All officials as responded were served with letters of introductions that described the researcher and the purpose of the research. After gaining the consent of the heads of department in the various institutions, the selected officials were informed and interviewing dates fixed. With the school heads this worked out well to enable them select the class registers needed for the study to be put together while the community members for the focus group discussion also enabled them consult themselves for the day appointed. Two Saturdays; 14<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> May were set aside for the FGD in the two beneficiary communities.

The interview guide was read out to the discussants in English and interpreted into Dagbani and a mixed language; Akan, Dagbani and English were used for the discussion during the FGD. With the consent of all respondents during the fieldwork, the researcher taped their responses, in order to avoid missing out on important information raised during the interviews and discussions. The recording of the class records were personally done by the researcher to ensure the right entries into the tables provided for the class details.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter analyses and discusses empirical findings from the field. The discussions and analyses are based on the objectives and research questions for this study. The processes of implementation of the GSFP and its impact on education and poverty reduction in the Savelugu-Nanton District were examined. Qualitative analysis, mainly content analysis, was used to discuss the implementation processes and how the programme has influenced poverty reduction in the study area. Quantitative analysis, mainly statistical analysis, was however, used to determine the influence of the programme on education; school attainments in the study area. Poverty reduction component of the programme was analysed qualitatively.

The questionnaire was administered to respondents who were made up of: school heads and their assistants in the each of the four schools; 32 community members made up of parents, farmers and the community representative on the food committee; two kitchen staff from the two beneficiary communities; seven government officials and three officials of the three strategic partners (donor) of the GSFP. Alongside the survey, various publications were reviewed to support the discussions on the first objective of the study.

This chapter is, divided into three sections in line with the three specific objectives and research questions of the study; the implementation of the policy, impact of the programme on education and finally poverty reduction.



## **Ghana School Feeding Programme implementation process**

The first specific objective was to examine the effectiveness of the implementation processes of the GSFP. The discussion in this section is based on the conceptual framework under the six key issues; policy framework, institutional structure and participation, staffing, funding, school and community selection criteria and monitoring and evaluation.

The implementation of a policy is a process that “ ... normally runs through a number of stages beginning with passage of the basic statute, followed by the policy outputs (decisions) of the implementing agencies, the compliance of target groups with those decisions, the actual impacts of agency decisions” (DeLeon & DeLeon, 2002, p. 473). The discussion on the implementation process follows the main propositions for a successful implementation of a policy given by Hargrove (1981) which are:

- i. The enabling legislation that mandates clear and consistent policy objectives;
- ii. The enabling legislation that incorporates a sound causal theory giving implementing officials sufficient justification to attain, at least potentially, the desired goals;
- iii. The leaders of the implementing agency must possess substantial managerial and political skill and are committed to statutory goals.

Ryan (1996) also concluded on six conditions to effective implementation of a policy which are:

- the clarity and consistency of programme objectives;
- the extent to which programmes incorporate adequate causal (cause and effect) theory;

- the extent to which implementation structures support the achievement of objectives;
- the commitment and management skills of implementing officials and agencies;
- the commitment and active support of organized interest groups, the public, politicians and/or senior officials; and
- changes in socio-economic, public policy or technological conditions do not frustrate programme objectives, negate causal theory, or diminish political support.

The GSFP was conceptualised as a model for community-based development to be managed under Ghana's decentralised governance structure. As a process, the conceptual framework based on implementation theory guided the examination of the implementation process of the GSFP.

#### Policy framework

Implementation theory posits that there must be an enabling legislation that mandates clear and consistent policy objectives whose character determines formal compliance by implementing agencies and successful implementation and the attainment of desired goals (Hargrove, 1981; DeLeon & DeLeon, 2002). The content of the legal framework structures defines the operationalisation of the policy.

On the issue of which legal instrument established the GSFP, it was found from key respondents interviewed that the government did not enact any legislative instrument; it was a Presidential Special Initiative following the

NEPAD agreement. The programme was initiated by the Ministry of Regional Cooperation and NEPAD in 2005 but had to be transferred to the MLGRD in 2007 because it was the implementing ministry for Ghana's decentralized system of administration. The GSFP was conceptualised to be a model for rural based development and accordingly, the MLGRD was resourced across the country to ensure its implementation. To ensure effective implementation of the tenets of the GSFP, the National Secretariat with the financial and technical support from the Danish government and the WFP produced a manual as the policy document in 2007 to facilitate the process.

In the manual, the membership to committees, channels of communication, the selection criteria and management of the feeding at the beneficiary schools are detailed. All key stakeholders interviewed confirmed the manual as the policy document with which all references are made. These observations indicate that though no statute was enacted, the programme was governed by a project manual that provided the framework for operationalising the GSFP as a Presidential Special Initiative. Though the carrying out of basic policy decisions are incorporated in statutes, they could also take the form of executive orders (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983). The adoption of a manual that guided the implementation of the GSFP, therefore, confirmed the tenets of implementation theory as espoused by Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983).

#### Institutional structure and participation

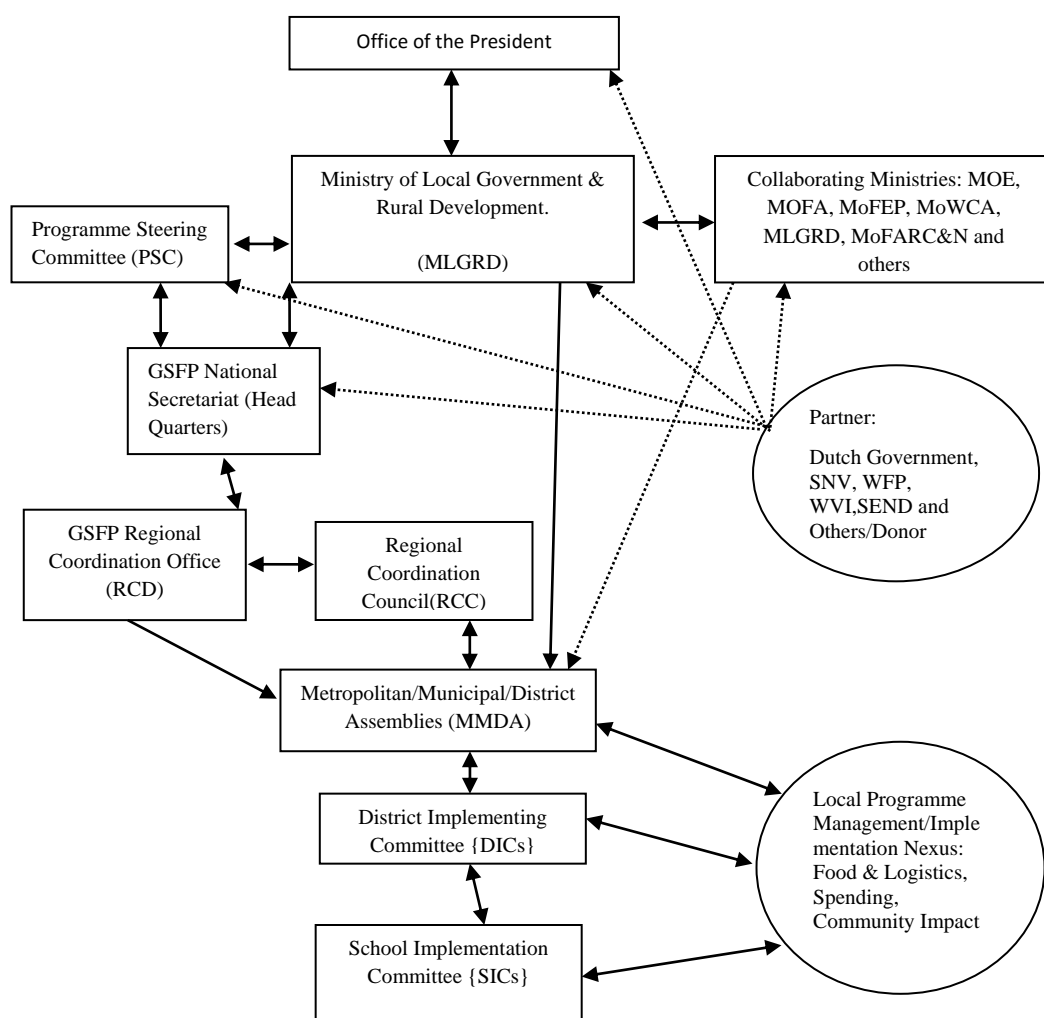
The policy framework; statute or executive order, details the structures for the implementation processes and provides the implementing agencies and

target groups with decisions to comply with (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983). Ryan (1996) stated that the effective implementation of a policy is dependent on the extent to which implementing structures support the achievement of objectives. The effective establishment of the structures contained in a policy and the linkages or level of collaboration between them, therefore, becomes a crucial issue towards successful implementation.

The District Operations Manual defines the organisational structure for the establishment and operations of the GSFP with clear roles and functions for all stakeholders. The organogram for the implementation of the project is shown in Figure 5. The activities of the GSFP are managed from the governmental level by the MLGRD in conjunction with an inter-ministerial collaborating committee of government ministries whose activities encompass education, children, health, food and agriculture and poverty reduction in the country.

The collaborating ministries from the organogram are; MOE, MOH/GHS, MOFA, MFEP and the MWCA whose officials at the district level represent them at the District Assembly. At the MLGRD the Project Steering Committee (PSC) oversees the established and operations of the GSFP National Secretariat (Head Quarters).

The National Secretariat, under its mandate, established the regional, district and beneficiary level unit committees. At the regional level, the GSFP has a Regional Coordinator and works with a number of monitors while the district level has an implementing committee.



**Figure 5: Organogram of the GSFP**

Source: Government of Ghana (2007)

Membership to these committees are drawn from departments of the collaborating ministries at the district and chaired by the District Chief Executive. The departmental heads or their representatives on the committee are referred to as desk officers. At the beneficiary community level the manual provides for a School Implementing Committee (SIC) comprising a representative of the Parent Teacher Association (PTA), the school head, a

representative of the school management committee, a traditional ruler from the community, an Assembly member and a boys or girls prefect of the school.

The Annual Operating Plan (Government of Ghana, 2009) lists the following as the strategic partners for the implementation of the GSFP:

1. Embassy of Kingdom of Netherlands (Dutch Embassy)
2. World Food Programme
3. Netherlands Development Organisation (SNV)
4. Social Enterprise Development Organisation (SEND Foundation)
5. International Centre for Soil Fertility and Agricultural Development (IFDC)
6. Ghana Agricultural Initiative Network (GAIN)
7. AgroEco-Organic farming
8. SchoolFeeding Initiative Ghana Netherlands (SIGN).

The field study involved interviewing the various officials along the hierarchy of the administration of the GSFP. The MLGRD took over the programme in the year 2007 and with support from donor agencies, established the national secretariat with directives from the Programme Steering Committee (PSC) and the strategic partners. The donor partners had an effective working relationship with the top hierarchy of the institutional set up of the GSFP. It was observed from the field study that the donors took active part in all activities involved in shaping the institutions and their compliance with the policy and had direct communications with the office of the President on such matters. The donor agencies for example, provided technical and financial support for the publication of the operations manual

which has been used extensively as the policy document for sensitizing government officials and the general public.

In the course of the interviews it was found from the national secretariat of the GSFP that two key institutions were set up; the District Implementation Committees (DICs) at the district level and the School Implementation Committees (SICs) at the beneficiary level, to manage the programme. The respondent at the MLGRD indicated that these structures were established in line with the policy manual. It was observed during the study that all these structures were in place at the time communities were selected to benefit from the programme. Reports by Agbey and Abu (2009) and De Hauwere (2009) on the institutional set up for the GSFP also confirmed the observation from the field study.

The field study also considered the issue of collaboration and participation among stakeholders in the implementation process. Among the roles and responsibilities of the National Secretariat is ensuring effective collaboration among participating ministries and their departments (MOE, MOH, and MOFA and the strategic partners). A review of the Annual Operating Plan for 2010 showed major activities and achievements for the year 2009 (Government of Ghana, 2009). This provided evidence of collaboration among stakeholders. Some of these were the work of the combined team of officials from the GSFP Secretariat, MLGRD and Audit Recommendations Implementation Committee (ARIC) on the Dutch Government's nine – point recommended measures. Also mentioned was the participation of the GSFP and MLGRD in the 'October Fair' in Tamale

involving 57 Community Support Organisations (CSOs) linked to School Feeding.

These were also corroborated by the reports prepared by Agbey and Abu (2009) and De Hauwere (2009). Both reports further indicated that the effective collaboration between the strategic partners, the Project Steering Committee and the GSFP National Secretariat resulted in the streamlining of the staffing problems of the project. This collaboration yielded benefits to the GSFP. The benefits from donor funding included donor funding for a Communication Advisor to address the communication needs of the GSFP, the development of an accounting and procedural manual for the implementation of the Social Accountability Project and the training of GSFP staff and sensitization workshops for senior government officials across the country. The Programme Officer of the CRS emphasized: “both the WFP and the CRS assisted in monitoring and evaluation and provided technical support to the National Secretariat”.

At the district level, the District Operations Manual required the district desk officer to coordinate activities between the collaborating departments in the district (GES, MOFA, MOH), beneficiary schools and the GSFP secretariat (national and regional). It was evident from the study that departmental desk officers were aware of their mandates as members of the DIC. However, responses from officials on the DIC revealed that the level of collaboration and participation was not effective and meetings were irregular. It was observed further from the field study that the absence of the SHEP Coordinator on the DIC was a critical problem facing the programme. The desk officer at the GES stated:



The SHEP Coordinator's responsibilities were very vital to the programme. The coordinator monitors food quality and hygiene at the schools; and in her absence the tendency would be for this feeding exercise to create health problems for the school children. Things are not as they used to be from the beginning; the cause of these changes can be attributed to lack of funding for organisational management. Although the GES made inputs in the selection of schools, the menu and the engagement of caterers, it was identified that the final decisions of all these issues were the responsibility of the office of the DCE.

The 2010 Annual Operating Plan (Government of Ghana, 2009) requested all District Assemblies, beneficiary communities, schools and other stakeholders to collaborate with SHEP to ensure the provision of sanitation facilities in beneficiary schools. The results of the field study did not confirm this to be the case and that the policy was not being complied with.

The manual also stated the roles of MOFA in promoting food production in beneficiary communities in collaboration with the regional secretariat. On the issue of participation by MOFA to improve food production, the desk officer at MOFA stated:

Collaboration is not effective and meetings are very irregular. There is lack of focus because MOFA has a lot to share to improve the programme through MOFA's block farming programme for farmers. Most of the times, decisions are already taken, and information is given to members at meetings.

This also attests to the fact that the policy directive on the roles and responsibilities of implementing agencies in the implementation of the GSFP was not wholly complied with. The views of the two beneficiary communities were sought through focus group discussions on their participation. The respondents from the community were emphatic that they did not participate in the processes of implementation of the GSFP in their communities. However, a common expression was identified from the focus group discussants of both beneficiary communities; although they never took part in the decisions that selected the schools or the communities, they were happy to be benefiting from the programme.

On the issue of how the selection of the caterer and the menu for the feeding of the school children were done, it was identified from the discussions that both communities were aware that such decisions came from the District Chief Executive's (DCE) office. Through the same process, the caterer was introduced to them as the one to be in charge of the feeding programme at their respective schools by the DIC. Generally, the focus group discussants emphasized how important the feeding of the children was to them and as community heads they ensured that they always met to resolve difficulties. The Kpalung representative commented:

Here we do not wait for the officers to come to us; we want our children to be fed so we respond to the call of the school teachers whenever they need our help.

It was also revealed from the field study that whereas the caterer was hired by the District Assembly, the actual cooking was done by a cook who was nominated by the community. The cook at the Kpalung school indicated that

she was happy the community nominated her and that she had been enjoying the support of the SIC and concluded: “they come in to help whenever we have problems with water, fuel or lack of funds for purchases”.

It can be concluded from responses obtained from the field that stakeholder participation and collaboration existed more effectively at the national level than at the beneficiary level. The communities seem to be doing it their own way; they have seized the opportunity to protect their interest to enable their children to be fed by government.

According to Mischen and Sinclair (2007) implementation occurred only when those who were primarily affected were actively involved in the planning and execution of those programmes. It can be concluded from field observations that the extent of collaboration and participation at the beneficiary level do not conform to theoretical constructs as explained by Mischen and Sinclair (2007) in policy implementation.

### Staffing

One principle for success in policy implementation is that leaders of the implementing agency must possess substantial managerial and political skills, and should be committed to statutory goals (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983; Ryan, 1996). Therefore the successful implementation of the GSFP required all categories of staff to be dedicated, committed and skilled managers at all levels.

It was identified from key stakeholders that the GSFP was managed by three sets of personnel. The first category comprised those directly employed and paid by the GSFP National Secretariat, the second category are personnel

representing the collaborating ministries (and their departments at the district level) and paid directly by their own ministries but served the project on committees in their professional capacities. The third category is the volunteering community members who by virtue of being beneficiaries of the project, are stakeholders and serve on the committee at the school.

This section on staffing focused on personnel in the first category; those employed and paid directly by GSFP. The personnel included the Regional Coordinator and the monitors, the caterer and the cooks. Staff of the regional secretariat was considered in the study area because they had a direct oversight responsibility of the management of the programme in the study area.

Recruitment of staff for the GSFP was by appointment. Recruited personnel to fill positions at the national and regional secretariats were by appointments after successful interviews. There were two exceptions: the caterer was appointed by the District Assembly and the cook nominated by the community members to assist the caterer. Information obtained from the field study indicated that advertisements were posted and those who applied went through an interview and then were appointed to their respective positions. These findings confirmed the report contained in the Annual Operating Plan that “interviews were conducted by the MLGRD and the Public Services Commission and 10 new GSFP Regional Coordinators were appointed” (Government of Ghana, 2009, p.16).

All key respondents interviewed confirmed passing through this procedure to be appointed. This procedure did not apply to the caterer; the manual specified this as a local process. The role and responsibility of the

District Assembly among others was to “interview and appoint caterers and ensure that appointed caterers/matrons .....” (Government of Ghana, 2007, p.17).

The manual also set the criteria for whom to engage as caterer: the caterer/matron should be i) one who is capable of cooking food on a large scale basis under hygienic conditions, and ii) one who can demonstrate basic understanding of the nutritional needs of children. Although, no mention was made of academic qualifications, the criteria set implied what level should be sought for in a competitive search. School feeding is not ordinary cooking. The importance of proper nutrition of the child was discussed in the case of the Kenyan example reported by Hulett (2010) and in the case of the findings of Jyoti et al., (2005) that malnutrition of the child affects the functionality and mental development of children. The manual, therefore, specified proper guidelines in line with theory for the engagement of the caterer/matron.

In the case of all the other officials (personnel at the national secretariat, the regional coordinator and the monitors) the project manual did not specify any guidelines or qualifications for their engagement. The fact that the Public Services Commission, the state agency responsible for the recruitment of personnel for government offices was involved in the interviews of GSFP staff, cannot be construed that competencies of persons engaged were the best for the project.

All responses on the mode of appointment of personnel only showed that officers responded to advertisements and gained appointments after successful interviews. The field study then relied on published reports on competencies of staff engaged for the GSFP. Documents reviewed showed

that the implementation of the policy had initial management problems as stated by Agbey and Abu (2009):

The entire management team had to go through some changes and staff that did not go through formal recruitment procedures had to go through the process and was issued with appointment letters. This is contrast to the past scenario where most staff felt vulnerable to the National Coordinator because they were working without appointment letters. The CRS with all its expertise in managing in school feeding programme in the three northern regions also stated:

The people who were employed to manage the programme did not have enough experience in school feeding and that was why the entire programme failed. They needed extensive training before the commencement of the programme.

Press reports reviewed on the programme also revealed that there was a high attrition rate with three National Coordinators being dismissed between 2007 and 2010 for various forms of impropriety, irregularity and non compliance with laid down procedures (GhanaWeb, 2010). De Hauwere (2009) reported that officers recruited friends for the programme and not those with requisite qualifications and experience.

Information gathered from the field study indicated that with the change of government in 2009, all Regional Coordinators and their monitors were changed. Though at the time of the study, that was in the second year of the government in office, the Regional Coordinator claimed she had just been appointed. According to the respondent, the monitors, though had been appointed, they had not taken up their positions yet. Information was not

readily available on their calibre and how many they were at the regional secretariat. Two years had gone by and the regional secretariat was operating without field monitors. Those in the office during the previous government had already vacated their positions. These observations only suggest that staffing was conditioned by political patronage. Apart from understaffing at the study area, staff competencies were not a major consideration in the engagement of personnel for the programme.

The implementation theory specifies for a successful implementation that leaders of the implementing agency must possess substantial managerial skill (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983). This view is also shared by Ryan (1996) who stated that a successful implementation depended on the commitment and management skills of implementing officials and agencies. The observations from the study show that staffing and staff competencies were not employed in line with implementation theory for successful implementation of the policy as espoused by Mazmanian & Sabatier (1983).

### Funding

Implementation, as defined by Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983), stipulates that statute decision identifies the problem(s) to be addressed, specifies the objective(s) to be pursued, and, in a variety of ways, “structures” the implementation process. It is inferred from this that implementation targets problems and directs ways to resolve them. The GSFP was instituted to resolve the low school attainments and poverty in the poor communities of Ghana including the study area. The solution to the identified problems was to

provide one hot meal on each school day, to children in kindergarten and primary schools.

The GSFP was designed to purchase from local farmers, home grown foodstuffs to feed school children to motivate them to attend school; a practice that would also boost local food production for self sufficiency. The purchase of foodstuffs required funding. Funding for the programme had two prong benefits which directly linked to the successful implementation of the policy: first by ensuring that beneficiary pupils were fed each school day and secondly foodstuffs produced by local farmers were readily bought for the school feeding. Adequate and readily available funding was therefore most critical issue for the successful implementation of the GSFP.

Key stakeholders showed that the entire exercise of setting up the structures specified in the policy, management and logistics also required substantial funding. The programme funds were managed by the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MFEP). The programme initially stipulated that each school child be fed on a quota of Gh¢ 0.30 a day which later was increased to Gh¢ 0.40 a day. The national secretariat paid caterers based on enrolment numbers at each school but such payments were directly through the MFEP.

The responses from key respondents showed that the GSFP national secretariat did not make direct payments. The reporting of expenditures in its AOP, therefore, was not comprehensive; it lacked details on quarterly and district disbursements and only provided summaries of national expenditures. Details at local levels were also not available because payments are made directly from the MFEP in Accra to caterers. The data available on



expenditure for 2009 on feeding was 33,470,456.00 (98.2% of total expenditure) for 656,624 beneficiary pupils in 1,698 schools nationwide but that for 2010 was Gh¢ 61,604,845.16 (98.86% of total expenditure) covering 697,416 beneficiary pupils in 1,741 schools (Government of Ghana, 2009). However, since the quota per child is the same across the country, the amount of money disbursed to each caterer depended on the number of children covered by the programme in the beneficiary school. The study focused on two key issues on funding; regularity and adequacy of funding.

At the two beneficiary schools, it was observed that the cook was not comfortable with the payment arrangements. The irregular and low payments of cooks caused low motivation amongst the cooks. It was learnt that most frequently the cooks had to be begged and persuaded to continue their work, even when not paid. Fund release from the national level almost always delayed. The cook at the Tibali Primary school said the work was difficult because they periodically run into problems of lack of funds to enable regular feeding of the school children. The cook at the Kpalung Primary school said: “it is not comfortable feeding the children, it is more of a sacrificial work; it takes a very long time to pay and the money government pays for the children is very little”.

From the focus group discussions at both communities, it was revealed that the community members periodically contributed towards the feeding of the children by supporting the programme with firewood and water at their expense. When money was not forthcoming and it was not easy to buy from the market, farmers in the communities provided support through hire purchasing. Indeed, there were critical times when children could not be fed

due to lack of funding. It was further observed that the low payments was a contributing factor to school children participating in kitchen chores at the school though the manual ruled against that practice. This was the result of the inability of the caterer to engage enough hands to undertake kitchen chores. All the key stakeholders interviewed commented on the low and delayed release of funds to the programme. The issue of delayed payments is reported as a challenge in the Annual Operating Plan (Government of Ghana, 2009) which corroborates findings from the field study.

Based on the general expression of concern over the low quota per pupil from key respondents at the district, the issue was explored further. In the opinion of the Regional Coordinator, at the stipulated rate of Gh¢ 0.40 per pupil and feeding large numbers, caterers should not complain of financial difficulties. Although foodstuff prices may differ depending on prevailing economic situations, the estimated cost reported by Riggle (2009) at US \$ 50 to feed a school child for the entire school year in the US and the WFP estimate of US\$ 0.25 for a child for a day were compared with the GSFP quota paid per pupil. The WFP has been involved in school feeding in Ghana. The two figures quoted work out to be at par with the GSFP quota per pupil using the local exchange rate. It can be inferred from the comparison that proponents for an upward adjustment of the GSFP quota will need better justification while considering also such issues like management and caliber of persons appointed as caterers. The possible effect of the low payments to caterers and cooks could be low quality and inadequate quantity of food given to pupils.

The GSFP was partly donor funded. The Royal Netherlands Government entered into an agreement on the funding of the GSFP to

reimburse the Government of Ghana with half of the cost of food purchased at Gh¢ 0.30 per child per day (De Hauwere, 2009). SIGN-Netherlands contributed funds for the publishing of the GSFP manual and offered to pay for a communications advisor to the programme to address communication problems facing the programme. The SNV provided capacity building while SEND Foundation provided participatory monitoring at the various District Assemblies (Agbey & Abu, 2009; De Hauwere, 2009). The main sources of funding for the programme according to the Annual Operating Plan (Government of Ghana, 2009, p.27) were the Government of Ghana, 78 percent, the Royal kingdom of Netherlands, 17 percent and the World Food Programme, five percent.

Administratively, all funds from donors were channelled through the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MFEP) from where disbursements were made. All respondents interviewed had knowledge that the GSFP was financed by the Government of Ghana with support from the Royal Netherlands government. However, there was other local support to the programme. The Energy Commission supplied kitchen resources to the beneficiary schools in return for tree planting to support the fuel wood needs for the programme.

Media publications on the programme reviewed indicated that the programme faced a number of challenges mainly managerial emanating from corruption and lack of transparency. With reports of huge sums of monies getting missing, De Hauwere (2009) reported:

When employees are low-paid, responsible for large sums of money, and often under financial and social pressures, it is difficult to make judgment about money 'disappearing'.

The Dutch government temporarily withdrew its support for the programme following the adverse findings made against the operations of the programme and demanded for the good governance as a prerequisite for the restoration of the support (GhanaWeb, 2010). The CSR also stated:

The Dutch decided to withdraw their support because of corruption in the entire implementation process, the World Food Programme offered to support the feeding of the pupils for three days in a week while the Government of Ghana provides for the other two days.

Documents that were reviewed showed that the restoration of the funding was facilitated by the concerted efforts of all the donor institutions following the adoption of sound accounting policies. Accounting procedures manual were introduced to serve as a guide to regulate financial transactions and procurement of services by the Dutch partners. They also facilitated development of the Social Accountability project proposal to improve management, accountability and transparency in the GSFP.

Implementation theory as espoused by Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983) provides for the establishment of structures to address objectives of policy decisions. These structures have been shown to require funding to effectively operate successfully. In the case of the GSFP these included the operational cost of feeding pupils in beneficiary schools. Observations from the field study indicate that funding commensurate to address this statute decision was irregular and inadequate. It can be suggested from the discussions that

mismanagement of funds contributed to the inadequacy of funding. It can be concluded from these findings that funding for the implementation of the GSFP did not confirm the tenets of implementation theory.

#### Schools and community selection criteria

The implementation of a policy must have a target to effect some change. From the definition of implementation, it is stated that there must be specified objective(s) to be pursued as stated by Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983). DeLeon & DeLeon (2002) stated that for implementation to be successful there must be a consistent policy objective which reinforces the definition of implementation. Hargrove also writing under implementation stated that a redistributive policy should categorise citizens who are stipulated to receive special treatment according to specific rules.

In the case of the GSFP, the target is the pupil and the poor community farmer where the programme expects to improve school attainments and reduce poverty. Compliance with the selection criteria specified in the GSFP manual are therefore important for the success of the programme to achieve stated objectives. From these theoretical constructs, selection of the poor, marginalized or vulnerable communities must conform to the policy guidelines. The District Operating Manual (Government of Ghana, 2007, p. 10) provided the criteria for the selection of beneficiary schools as follows:

- A school with low enrolment, attendance and retention especially for girls;
- High drop-out rate;
- A community with low literacy levels;

- High hunger and vulnerability status;
- Poor access to potable water;
- High communal spirit/or community management capability;
- Willingness of the community to put up basic infrastructure (e. g. kitchen, storeroom, latrines) and to contribute in cash or kind;
- Communities/schools not already covered by other feeding programmes.

The Annual Operating Plan of the GSFP (Government of Ghana, 2009) indicates that the programme began in 2005 with 10 pilot schools, drawn from each region of the country. An extract from the Annual Operating Plan provides the percentage of pupil beneficiaries (regional distribution) in beneficiary schools as shown in Table 5.

Making a case for the Northern Region where this study took place, this study observed from Table 5 that though the proportion of pupils enrolled compared to the national total was high (12%), its share of number of pupil beneficiaries is lower (40,320) representing 6 percent of the national figure. Though Ashanti Region had the highest proportion of enrolled pupils in the country (17%), its share of beneficiary pupils was 25 percent, four times that of the Northern Region.

With a low proportion of 8 percent of enrolled pupils for Greater Accra, its share of pupil beneficiaries is higher, 20 percent. The proportions of pupil enrolled for the Eastern and Western Regions, 11 percent, though almost at par with that of the Northern Region (12%), both have equally low percentage of pupil beneficiaries of 9 and 7 percent respectively.

**Table 5: GSFP beneficiary pupils (2009)**

REGION	Total pupil enrolment 2008/2009	% of pupil enrolment (Nationwide)	No. Of pupil beneficiaries	% of pupil Beneficiaries
Ashanti	520,795	17	171,185	25
Brong Ahafo	323,027	11	103,424	15
Central	300,142	10	41,648	7
Eastern	347,940	11	49,734	9
Greater Accra	255,463	8	129,375	20
Northern	372,089	12	40,320	6
Upper East	191,892	6	28,331	4
Upper West	129,439	4	17,343	3
Volta	270,482	9	27,872	4
Western	330,626	11	47,392	7
National Total	3,041,895	100	656,624	100

Source: Government of Ghana (2009, p. 11)

These observations show that there was disproportionate distribution of beneficiaries. To support further this observation, the field study considered the net enrolment figures across the country prior to the piloting of the GSFP in 2005 shown in Table 6.

With the exception of the three northern regions, the seven other regions had higher net enrolment figures above 0.6 but very low proportions of the 6 to 14 year old children who have never attended school (ranging between 0.12 and 0.08). The proportion of the 6 to 14 years that have never attended school for the Northern Region was highest among the three northern

**Table 6: Children's education**

Region	Primary school; Net enrolment (2003)	6 to 14 years never attended school
Western	0.749	0.08
Central	0.726	0.07
Greater Accra	0.809	0.05
Volta	0.647	0.18
Eastern	0.756	0.08
Ashanti	0.789	0.06
Brong Ahafo	0.693	0.12
Northern	0.499	0.43
Upper East	0.561	0.35
Upper West	0.511	0.40

Source: Akyeampong et al, (2007)

regions; 0.43. This shows that many more in this region never attend school. The Northern Region therefore had the need for a better proportion of pupil beneficiaries in the GSFP which was not the case from Table 5. It can be stated from these observations that the disparities in the distribution of beneficiary pupils at the regional level would eventually affect distribution within regions and hence the allocation to the study area; the Savelugu-Nanton District.

The manual required the DIC as its operational responsibility to ensure that “schools selected meet the criteria for eligibility as indicated at ...” (Government of Ghana, 2007). It was observed from the study that the final



list of beneficiaries was announced from the office of the DCE. This was then conveyed to the regional secretariat to the GSFP national secretariat through regular reporting. It was also identified from the study that the selection process involved the GES presenting a list of deprived schools to the office of the DCE from where the final list of beneficiaries was selected. The conditions detailed in the manual were a guiding principle in the nomination of potential beneficiary communities.

The processes of nomination were not accessible during the field study to identify how specific schools were eventually selected. The Savelugu-Nanton District had only two beneficiary schools in 2006; Tibali and Kpalung Primary Schools until 2008 when additional two beneficiaries were added on to the programme. It was found from interviews of key stakeholders at the district that the final list was presented to the DIC at a meeting. There was lack of transparency in how the final list was drawn and who mandated specific quotas for each district.

The communities showed appreciation for being considered as beneficiaries of the GSFP but were not aware of a selection process. From the district map it is observed that both beneficiary schools in the study area were located in the south western corner of the district (within a radius of 15 kilometers apart). Travelling around the district, a number of schools were seen in the district in much more deplorable conditions than the two beneficiary schools. School selection has not been public; the school heads of the control schools were not aware of any such process in the district except that the school head at the Zieng Primary school said “a school would be lucky

if inspectors came to the school to announce that they were to be given school feeding”.

Making observations on the trend of awarding the programmes across the country, the report by De Hauwere (2009) stated:

To increase school enrolment (the first GSFP goal), areas with high percentage of children who never go to school would seem a crucial target. And to reduce hunger and malnutrition, areas with the greatest food needs would seem a priority.

It can be stated from the observations made so far that regions with the highest level of poverty, low school enrolments and high proportion of children between 6 and 14 years that have never been to school have the lowest number of GSFP schools. The key components of the implementation theory put forward by DeLeon and DeLeon (2002) states that actions required by law must be carried out and that those actions encompass both formal compliance with the law and organisational routines.

Furthermore, Ryan (1996) also stated that implementation structures must support the achievement of objectives. The observation from the study indicates that the objective of having very poor beneficiary schools and communities benefit from the programme was not met. On the issue of selection of beneficiaries, it can be concluded from this discussion that the selection criteria as specified by the policy were not effectively applied in the distribution of beneficiary schools across the country and in the selection of beneficiary schools in the study area. This practice did not confirm implementation theory as espoused by Ryan (1996) and DeLeon and DeLeon (2002).

## Monitoring and Evaluation

Implementation processes conclude with actual impacts of agency decisions followed by revisions in the statute (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983). Monitoring and evaluation provide the requisite data needed for the consideration of revisions in the basic statute. The robustness of a policy is one that withstands the test of time. Monitoring and evaluation constitute a major component in the implementation process that ensures that policy outputs are sustainable. The implementation of a policy is therefore not complete without evaluation as noted by Bradshaw and Linneker (2003) and Huge and Hens (2007) when both scholars stressed on the need for service evaluation.

Reviewing the District Operating Manual, it was found that the organogram of the GSFP had an inbuilt activity and reporting mechanism. Section three of the manual provided formats for reporting to the GSFP National Secretariat. The project manual provided formats for reporting by all collaborating agencies and departments from the beneficiary level to the national secretariat of the GSFP. Since the operations of the GSFP were aided by NGOs as facilitators, formats were also provided for their inputs in the evaluation of the programme.

All key stakeholders remarked that the GSFP contracted the CRS based on its experience in school feeding to undertake monitoring and evaluation for the GSFP. The CRS as part of its contractual agreement with the GSFP placed staff that visited schools under the GSFP to make comparisons. At the national secretariat, these reports were evaluated within the framework of the policy.

From the focus group discussions, it was found that monitoring activities were carried out by the various agencies at the beneficiary level. Discussants in the two beneficiary communities were aware of visits by GSFP Regional and National Secretariat personnel and other NGOs in the school feeding sector to their school. These visits, though not very regular, were opportunities for in-depth interaction with the SIC and other agency monitors on the management of the programme in their respective schools. The food committee representative at Kpalung stated:

We always have open discussions with the officials that come, we complain about the difficulties we face with the school feeding, especially the matron, water and firewood supply to the kitchen.

The field observations indicate that the in-built monitoring and evaluation scheme in the GSFP manual was functional. The definition of the implementation theory by Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983) stated among others that implementation involved the compliance of target groups with those decisions, the actual impacts of agency decisions and finally important revisions in the statute. In practice, the compliance of orders by agencies and reporting back provides data for the revision of statutes. This practice therefore, confirmed the tenets of implementation theory on strategies for the revision of a policy.

To conclude on the implementation processes for the GSFP, it can be stated from findings made that though a policy document was used in place of a statute with the requisite structures set up in line with the policy the key directives in the policy were not complied with. It was observed that

collaboration and participation among major stakeholders at the study area was weak. Staffing was not adequate and staff lacked competency and the release of funds was delayed in most cases to the caterer that resulted in feeding sometimes being suspended for a while. It was also identified in the course of the field study that the process of beneficiary selection did not conform to the policy directives. Unfortunately, these constituted the core of the conceptual framework; activities of target groups and decisions that lead to policy outputs were not effectively complied with.

The implementation theory also states that the compliance of policy decisions lead to successful implementation. In view of the fact that target groups and decisions were not complied with, it can be concluded that the implementation processes for the GSP in the study area was not effectively carried out as defined by Mazmanian and Sabatier (Hargrove, 1981; DeLeon & DeLeon, 2002).

### **School attainments**

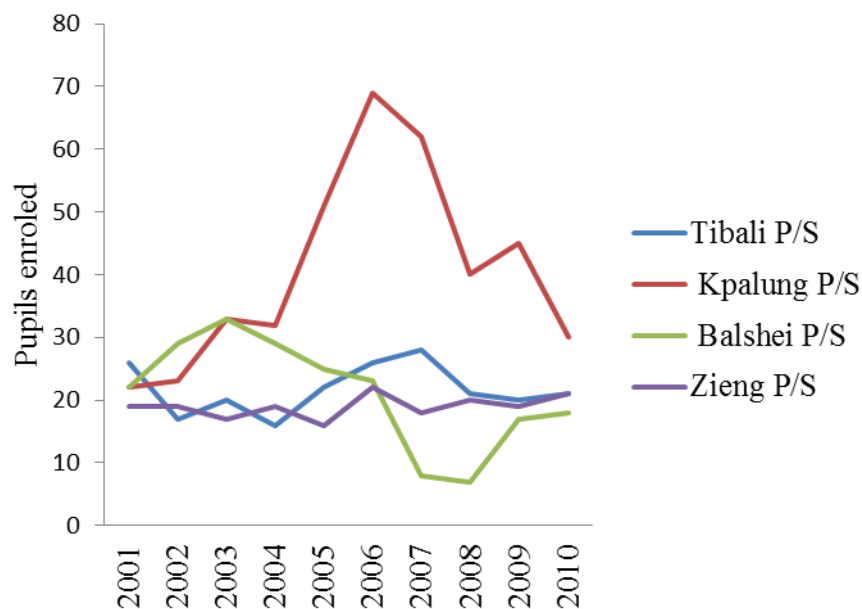
The second specific objective was to compare schooling indicators for the promotion of basic education in the beneficiary district. The research question was to determine the impact of the programme on the schooling indicators. Data on enrolment, attendance and drop-out in the selected schools were analysed and discussed in line with the research questions and hypothesis.

Anderson (2004) and Tikkanen (2009) using motivation theory as basis, showed that free school meals contributed to the high performance of the Finland 15-year-olds at the 2006 PISA rankings. School feeding has been

used as a poverty reduction strategy and welfare efforts underscoring the theory of distributive justice to improve schooling in deprived, marginalised and crisis stricken communities worldwide. The empirical evidence of school feeding in Indonesia, Northern Uganda and Kenya reported by Studdert (2001), Alderman, Gillian and Lehrer (2008) and Hulett (2010) show how school feeding results in improved school attainments.

### Enrolment

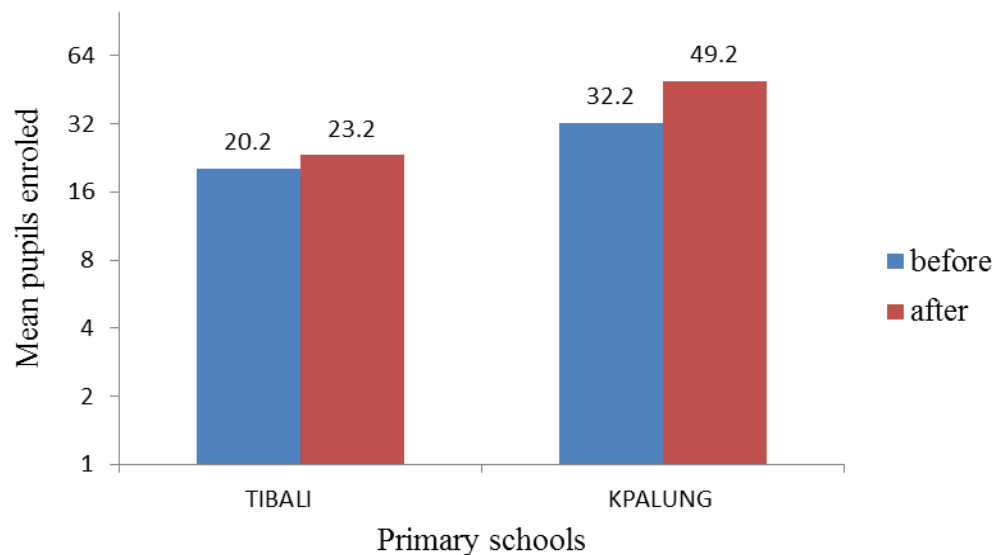
The trend in number of pupil’s enrolled annually for all the four schools were considered from 2001 to 2010. Figure 6 is a graphical representation of the trend in enrolments in all four schools.



**Figure 6: Trend in enrolment**

Source: Survey data (2011)

An appraisal of the data was conducted by comparing the average enrolment per year between the five year period before the intervention and the five years of the piloting of the intervention for the beneficiary schools. The result is represented by the bar chart in Figure 7.



**Figure 7: Comparing enrolments in beneficiary schools.**

Source: Survey data (2011)

The results in Table 7 show that both schools recorded an improvement in enrolment with Kpalung P/S enrolling the highest of 52.8 percent. This agrees with the reports of Agbey and Abu (2009) who reported a general national increase of 2.8 percent and De Hauwere (2009) reported an increase of 12.8 per cent. However, these reports also noted that some districts inflated the number of pupils to get more funds for the feeding. Table 7 is the trend in percentage change in enrolment between 2001 and 2010.

**Table 7: School enrolment**

Year	GSFP beneficiary schools				Control school			
	Tibali P/S		Kpalung P/S		Balshei P/S		Zieng P/S	
	Enrolment	% change	Enrolment	% change	Enrolment	% change	Enrolment	% change
2001	26		22		22		19	
2002	17	-34.6	23	4.5	29	31.8	19	0
2003	20	-23.1	33	50	33	50	17	-10.5
2004	16	-38.5	32	45.4	29	31.8	19	0
2005	22	-15.4	51	131.8	25	13.6	16	-15.8
2006	26	0	69	213.6	23	0.6	22	15.8
2007	28	7.7	62	181.8	8	-63.6	18	-5.3
2008	21	-3.8	40	81.8	7	-68.2	20	5.3
2009	20	0	45	104.5	17	-22.7	19	0
2010	21	-3.8	30	36.4	18	-18.2	21	10.5

Source: Survey data (20110)



To draw conclusions on the effects of the GSFP on enrolment, inferential statistical evidence as reported by other researchers cited was performed. The null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between the implementation of the GSFP and school enrolment in the study district was tested with ANOVA.

**Table 8: Comparing enrolment in schools**

School	Mean	Median	Mode
Tibali	21.7	21	26
Kpalung	40.7	36.5	-
Balshei	21.1	22.5	29
Zieng	18.3	18.3	18.3

df: 39; F: 12.05; Treatments p-value = 0.000; Blocks p-value = 0.61

Source: Survey data (2011)

The mean enrolment for Kpalung P/S was the highest; 40.7 as shown in Table 8. The mean for Tibali and Balshei Primary Schools were very close and that of Zieng P/S being the lowest (18.3). The ANOVA test produced an F – statistic value of 12.05 with 39 degrees of freedom. The p-values produced were for the effects between schools (treatments; ‘with and without’) and that between yearly differences (blocks; ‘before and after’).

The between schools p-value was 0.000 implying there are significant differences in enrolment across the schools. The p-value for the differences from year to year basis was 0.6. This does not suggest any significant

differences in enrolment along the years. The null hypothesis is accepted; there is no significant relationship between the implementation of the GSFP and enrolment in the beneficiary schools.

**Table 9: Comparing enrolment between schools**

School	Zieng	Balshei	Tibali	Kpalung
Zieng				
Balshei	0.65			
Tibali	0.79	0.14		
Kpalung	5.22	4.57	4.43	

Critical values for experimentwise error rate: at 5% = 2.74; 1% = 3.43

Source: Survey data (2012)

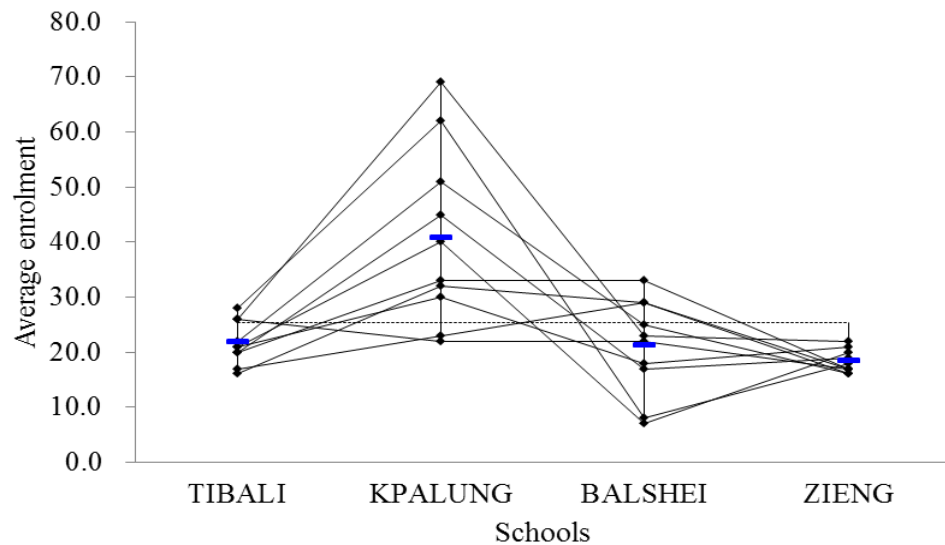
Table 9 provides the p-values from the post hoc (Tukey's simultaneous) comparison of the mean enrolments of the schools to identify where the differences are between the four schools.

**Table 10: Comparing enrolments: pairwise test**

School	Zieng	Balshei	Tibali	Kpalung
Zieng				
Balshei	0.519			
Tibali	0.435	0.889		
Kpalung	0.000	0.000	0.000	

Source: Survey data (2012)

The Tukey's pairwise t-test results shown in Tables 10 shows significant differences between Tibali/Zieng, Kpalung/Zieng, Kpalung/Balshei and Kpalung/Tibali schools. The significant differences in enrolments can be explained by community sizes; community population controlling size of enrolment other than an influence from the school feeding intervention. It can be concluded from this that the observed differences in enrolment means cannot be attributed to the school feeding intervention in the beneficiary schools. Figure 8 is a graphical presentation of the test results.



**Figure 8: Enrolment pattern in schools**

Source: Survey data (2011)

Several factors may account for the observed outcome of the statistical analysis. Critical to the success of a school feeding programme is the need for the beneficiary community to be a deprived and marginalised community where the physiological need of food can have full effect of motivating school enrolments as demonstrated by empirical evidence. The observed results can

be attributed in part to effects of irregular funding and the ineffective implementation of the policy rendering ineffective the potential influence of the programme on enrolments in the beneficiary district not excluding other social factors.

Maslow's theory (1943) placed food; a physiological need, as the most basic human requirement. Persons lacking food would most probably hunger for food more strongly than anything else of a person. Empirical evidence reported by Studdert (2001) and Hulett (2010) shows that in deprived areas, poor people with food insufficiency are motivated to enrol their children in school to be fed. The statistical analysis shows that there is no significant relationship between the implementation of the school feeding programme and school enrolment in the beneficiary district. The observed differences did not support motivation theory.

#### Attendance

School attendance was recorded for the first 13 weeks of each term of the year and the average attendance per pupil for each class was computed. The computed average attendance per year for each pupil in the four schools was used in ANOVA to test the null hypothesis that the GSFP has produced no significant difference in school attendance in the beneficiary district.

Table 11 is the average attendance per pupil for each term. Data for the 2005/2006 academic year was used as the base year for the comparison along years. The class size excluded drop-outs from the previous class and the average computed from the cumulative class attendance throughout the term as recorded in the class register.

**Table 11: Pupil's average attendance per term**

Academic Year	Term	Tibali P/S		Kpalung P/S		Balshei P/S		Zieng P/S	
		class size	Attendance	class size	Attendance	class size	Attendance	class size	Attendance
2005/2006	1	22	57.86	33	46.15	25	57.28	16	49.79
	2	22	54.09	33	40.69	25	58	16	51.21
	3	22	59.45	33	45.81	25	57.64	16	51.21
2006/2007	1	28	50.28	51	44.54	23	61.58	22	51.68
	2	28	50.03	51	45.8	23	60.78	22	50.04
	3	28	50.6	51	42.47	23	63	22	46.05
2007/2008	1	26	55.61	51	42.54	14	60.57	19	52.67
	2	26	52.8	51	46.8	14	58.71	19	51.2
	3	26	54.19	51	39.17	14	61.92	19	47.65
2008/2009	1	26	56.26	46	37.41	10	44.5	20	53.64
	2	26	53.76	46	49.95	10	59.4	20	48.38
	3	26	55.07	46	40.52	10	59.6	20	45.16
2009/2010	1	25	54.92	46	52.78	10	53.1	19	50.26
	2	25	53.32	46	54.3	10	54.1	19	56.78
	3	25	57.76	46	56.08	10	59.3	19	55.6
2010/2011	1	24	46.62	45	56.17	11	53.81	21	50.14
	2	24	49.29	45	59.08	11	56.63	21	50.52

Source: Survey (2011)

Table 12 provides the descriptive from the means of the term averages for all four schools and for years. Balshei P/S had the highest attendance mean of 57.47 and a standard deviation of 2.99 while Kpalung P/S had the lowest of 47.16 and a standard deviation of 7 and hence the data with the highest dispersion. Zieng P/S had the least dispersion below 2 days. On yearly basis, 2009 was the year with the best attendance mean of 54.85 and least dispersion; a standard deviation of 0.65.

**Table12: Statistics of schools' attendance data**

School	Mean	n	Std. Dev
Tibali P/S	53.24	6	3.62
Kpalung P/S	47.16	6	7.00
Balshei P/S	57.47	6	2.99
Zieng P/S	50.63	6	1.87
Year			
2005	52.34	4	6.28
2006	50.53	4	8.57
2007	51.98	4	7.34
2008	50.39	4	5.62
2009	54.85	4	0.65
2010	52.65	4	4.60
Total	52.12	24	5.57

Treatment statistics: df: 3; F: 5.32; p-value = 0.010

Blocks statistics: df: 5; F: 0.50; p-value = 0.772

Source: Survey data (2011)

Results from the test in ANOVA produced an F- statistic of 5.32 with three degrees of freedom for treatments (between schools). The overall p-value obtained was 0.010 implying a statistically significant difference at both one and five percent levels between schools. However the p-value from year to year analysis (blocks) was 0.772; this is larger than alpha of 0.05 and the null hypothesis is accepted. The GSFP has produced no significant differences in school attendance in beneficiary schools. This result implies that the average attendance of pupils did not change significantly along the years (before and after) under the piloting of the school feeding programme.

The post hoc analysis (Tukey's) was run to identify where differences existed between schools. The simultaneous comparison results are shown in Tables 13.

**Table 13: Tukey's simultaneous comparison of attendance means**

School	Kpalung	Zieng	Tibali	Balshei
Kpalung				
Zieng	1.30			
Tibali	2.28	0.98		
Balshei	3.87	2.56	1.59	

Critical values for experimentwise error rate: at 5% = 2.88; 1% = 3.71

Source: Survey data (2012)

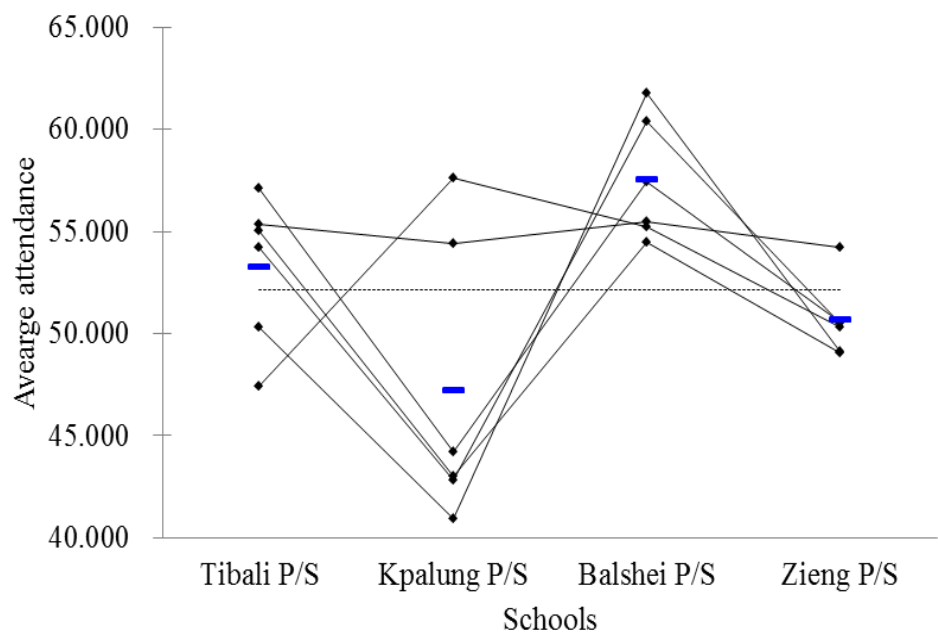
The pairwise comparison results are shown in Table 14. Statistically significant differences exist between Tibali and Kpalung, Balshei and Kpalung, Balshei and Zieng and Balshei and Tibali Primary Schools.

**Table14: Comparison of pupil’s attendance (pairwise test)**

School	Kpalung	Zieng	Tibali	Balshei
Kpalung				
Zieng	0.212			
Tibali	0.037	0.344		
Balshei	0.001	0.021	0.133	

Source: Survey data (2012)

In conclusion, it can be stated that there were significant differences in attendance between schools but the school feeding programme did not influence attendance from year to year. The GSFP did not influence school attendance during the piloting of the programme in the beneficiary schools. The graph in Figure 9 provides a graphical view of the results of the analysis.



**Figure 9: Comparison of attendance between schools**

Source: Survey data (2011)



## School drop-out

The school drop-out data is shown in Table 15. The comparison of drop-out numbers in the selected schools is in line with the second objective and research question for the study. It was observed from the comparison of class lists that some pupils occasionally absented themselves from school for long periods within and across school terms. Such long absenteeism was more prevalent at the Tibali P/S.

**Table 15: Drop-out from school**

SCHOOL DROP-OUT				
	GSFP SCHOOLS		CONTROL SCHOOLS	
Year	Tibali P/S	Kpalung P/S	Balshei P/S	Zieng P/S
2006	6	18	-	-
2007	2	0	9	3
2008	0	5	4	0
2009	1	0	0	1
2010	1	1	0	0

Source: Survey data (2011)

Drop-out data for 2006 represented number of pupils who were in the 2005 class but were not enrolled in next class in 2006. This represented the drop-out before the intervention. From six and 18 pupils for Tibali P/S and Kpalung P/S respectively in 2006, the number of drop-out pupils reduced to two and zero respectively in the following year. As shown in Table 15, there were further reductions of pupil drop-outs throughout the intervention in subsequent years. However, this remarkable record of low drop-out numbers

was disrupted by five pupils dropping out in 2008 at Kpalung P/S. There were no record of transfers from the school and no reliable reasons were attributed to this sudden increased number in pupil drop-outs. Further enquiry indicated that some of the pupils had left the community; the figure then did not represent actual drop-out from school.

The general trend in reduction in drop-out numbers were also observed for the control schools during the same period. Four pupils that dropped out in 2008 from Balshei P/S could not be explained; the pupils were said to have relocated from the community. These observations reinforce the view that record keeping was not the best in basic schools in the study area.

The observation of a similar pattern of gradual reduction in drop-out numbers across both beneficiary and control schools could suggest some external influence like a socio-cultural effect from the area and not explicitly an influence from the school feeding intervention. It can however be concluded from the field study that the GSFP contributed to the improvement in the number of drop-outs in beneficiary schools.

To draw a conclusion in line with the second objective and research question, the following summarises the observed effects of the GSFP on the promotion of basic education in the beneficiary district. There were improvements in enrolments and drop-out numbers only. However, school feeding did not influence improvement in attendance in the beneficiary schools in the district. It can be stated that the output from the conceptual framework on improved schooling was only partially achieved.

Two reasons could be suggested for the observed effects of the school feeding programme in the study area. First, the irregular funding adversely affected the feeding programme and secondly the selection process that was not targeted at the very poor as specified by the policy guidelines. The observed marginal differences in enrolment and drop-out could be attributed to several other factors including population growth rate which is high in the region, other socio-cultural factors like general attitude of the people to education, school environment, religious culture, nature of farming and family systems, commerce based on location as influence from closeness to the regional capita, Tamale. School feeding is basically designed for marginalised and deprived rural communities where as a result of food insufficiency parents refuse to enrol children at school or children do not go to school but opt to work for themselves or support family income.

### **Poverty reduction**

Two of the general objectives of the GSFP were to promote an increase in domestic food production and consumption and increase the income of rural households. The long term objective of the programme was to reduce poverty and improve food security. The GSFP was, therefore, conceptualised to achieve two main protocols; MDG 1, to reduce hunger and poverty, and the CAADP Pillar III initiative for the development of smallholder food production. Under the GSFP, poverty reduction was to be the core of the programme where rural farmers would produce foodstuffs for sale to the GSFP.

Poverty constituted lack of capability to function effectively in society (Pressman & Summerfield, 2002). A poverty reduction strategy must have society participation (Bradshaw & Linneker, 2003; Huye & Hens, 2007). School feeding, therefore, has become one of several safety net programmes that have significant long-term benefits beyond the value of the immediate transfer (Bundy et al, 2009).

Multiple participants and beneficiaries in community-based implementation of school feeding reported by Studdert (2001) was said to be an innovative approach to school feeding. Purchasing foodstuffs from local farmers constituted programme benefits directly to farmers and the involvement of families and farmers in the design of school feeding constituted a direct participation of the community. This section of the findings discusses the production and purchase of foodstuffs for school feeding and its impact on beneficiary communities.

#### Foodstuffs for school feeding

The concept of the GSFP as documented in the District Operations Manual (GOG, 2007) states:

The programme is to provide children in public primary schools and kindergartens with one hot adequately nutritious meal, prepared from locally grown foodstuffs, on every school day” (p.8).

Throughout its objectives and conceptual framework, the programme document specified purchasing locally produced foodstuffs thereby providing a ready market for local farm produce. This would lead to wealth creation for rural households.

The programme manual specified at section 2.1, the roles and responsibilities of the GSFP National Secretariat: “to ensure effective collaboration with MOFA on the agricultural component” (Government of Ghana, 2007, p. 15). Similarly item 13 of the roles and responsibilities of the District Assemblies are to: “encourage Agricultural Extension Officers to assist local farmers to produce for the GSFP” (Government of Ghana, 2007, p. 17). The manual gives responsibility to the District Desk Officer at the district assembly to coordinate activities of other desk officers including MOFA. The programme manual also mandates that the Caterer/Matron “should purchase local foodstuffs from the community” (Government of Ghana, 2007, p. 26).

The field study revealed that MOFA, other than the recorded directive in the manual, was officially not mandated with resources from the GSFP institutional set up to support farmers in the beneficiary communities or schools to cultivate food crops for sale or use by the programme. It was further found from MOFA that no initiative on local farmers’ involvement in the programme was discussed by the DIC. Key officials interviewed had knowledge of the fact that the GSFP required to feed pupils with locally produced foodstuffs, and that was through the manual.

It was found from MOFA that it had support programmes for farmers to produce food crops through block farming in which MOFA provided inputs and collected full cost of inputs from farmers at the end of the season in kind. The farm products so collected were stocked in MOFA’s warehouse. The MOFA desk officer stated:

When resourced, block farming would be introduced in the beneficiary communities where the foodstuffs MOFA collects

would be made available for the school feeding with an arranged payment schedule to ensure regular supply of foodstuffs for the feeding. ....and to contribute to poverty reduction.

Field observations revealed that there were no school gardens and farms in the beneficiary schools and communities which the key officials interviewed attributed to the failure of the programme to ensure direct funding. The responses from the MLGRD and the GSFP National Secretariat were that on appointment of caterers, they were requested to purchase foodstuffs from farmers in the communities in which they were engaged. Very limited quantities of foodstuffs were purchased by caterers from the local farmers. On the way forward for the poverty reduction component of the programme, the Logistics Officer stated: “stable funding and linking local farmers to the programme”. The field study identified funding and failure of caterers to comply with the regulations of programme to be the factors leading to the inability of the programme to facilitate local food production in beneficiary communities.

The focus group discussions revealed that discussants were aware that the programme requested foodstuffs to be purchased from local farmers but the arrangement was not operationalised. Focus group discussants at both beneficiary communities confirmed that the caterer bought very limited quantities from their communities. However, they intimated that those were exceptional situations when funding from government was not forthcoming; community members desirous of having the feeding continue provided support through hire-purchasing of their farm products. It was further found from the

discussions that local farmers were not happy with the delayed payments for such purchases. A farmer stated:

‘When they buy your foodstuffs it will take a long time for the government to release funds to pay. This kind of trading cannot help us have a decent life’. It can be concluded from evidence obtained from the field that no preparations were made by the GSFP setup to implement the component on local production of foodstuffs for the programme in study area. At the same time, caterers were not complying with conditions of their engagement to purchase from the communities in which they work.

#### Impact on beneficiary community

The key question that generated a lot of discussion during the focus group discussion at both beneficiary communities was what constituted a relief to them from the GSFP? Some of the responses were:

“It is a lot of help because in my house we don’t eat in the afternoon”

“I sell by the wayside, the school meals enable me to stay and sell during lunch time when I have more clients buying from me”

“If someone gives you food one day it is help” and finally,

“We are farmers and we come home late so the children can play after school”.

These statements show that parents in the study area were much relieved of the ordeal of going to provide their children with lunch after school. This constituted some financial and time savings and that was all the benefit accrued to them from the school feeding.

On the issue of a special package to farmers to produce for the programme, it was found from the focus group discussions that with support from the programme more than required to feed the pupils would be produced in their communities. The community members were also aware that such increased levels of production would not hurt any of them but through an arranged purchasing plan they would sell to the programme and the local market. The farmers were not interested in selling large quantities of their farm products through hire-purchasing to the programme. The limited quantities of foodstuffs that were purchased occasionally from them did not accrue any significant financial benefits to farmers and traders in the two beneficiary communities.

Field data obtained from the study indicated that parents in the two beneficiary communities found relief from the duty of feeding school children in the afternoon. Farmers were not encouraged or resourced to produce for the programme. These observations do not support the reported Indonesia national school feeding programme which was community-based that employed multiple participants and beneficiaries with success. Purchasing foodstuff from local farmers constituted direct benefits to farmers. This principle is grounded in motivation theory as a reward system which Graves (2001) describes as extrinsic factors such as rewards, praise and promotions. School feeding which is a safety net for the poor is a poverty reduction strategy that must have society participation. Participation in school feeding from Studdert (2001) was the production and sale of foodstuffs to the school feeding programme. The findings from this study do not confirm these theories.



Concluding on the third objective and research question for this study, it can be stated that evidence from the field study shows that the implementation of the GSFP did influence poverty reduction in the beneficiary district. The output on the conceptual framework on poverty reduction only achieved household food savings and that all others were not achieved.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

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

#### **Introduction**

This is the concluding chapter for the study of the implementation and impacts of the GSFP on education and poverty reduction in the Savelugu-Nanton District in the Northern Region of Ghana. The chapter is arranged in two parts; the main conclusions drawn out of the discussions of the results and the recommendations for the improvement of the school feeding in the study area and for the GSFP as a whole. This chapter therefore covers the fourth objective of this study.

#### **Summary**

The study sought to assess the implementation process and impacts of the GSFP on basic education and poverty reduction in the Savelugu-Nanton District in the Northern Region of Ghana. To achieve this, the study examined the implementation processes and also explored for changes in school attainments and poverty indicators over the piloting period of the GSFP in the Savelugu-Nanton District. The organisation of the study involved interviews of the implementers of the policy and beneficiary community members, reviewed documents relevant to the implementation process and analysed pupil's school records. Survey instruments were used to collect data on the processes of implementation and project effects on school attainments and poverty reduction. Field data obtained were subjected to both qualitative and quantitative analysis.

## **Summary of the main findings**

The following summarises the main findings from the study:

- The GSFP was instituted by the Government of Ghana as a Presidential Special Initiative under the MLGRD and collaborating ministries with the aim of improving school attainments and reducing poverty in the very poor communities of Ghana. The implementation of the policy was guided by the District Operations Manual; it was mainly funded by the Government of Ghana with donor support funding.
- The implementation process established an institutional setup in line with the policy; however, it was beset with inadequate staffing, irregular funding and weak collaboration among major stakeholders in the study area. The selection criteria were also not effectively applied to the selection of beneficiary schools. The target groups did not effectively implement policy decisions as specified by the District Operations Manual.
- Political influence partly hampered the effectiveness of the implementation processes.
- Monitoring and evaluation of the programme was however carried out in line with policy guidelines and therefore the processes of implementation of the GSFP were to some extent effective.

The school feeding intervention resulted in an improvement in enrolment of an average of 14.9 percent at Tibali Primary School and an average of 52.8 percent at Kpalung Primary School. The programme also resulted in reducing drop-out numbers. However compared with control schools, these were marginal and not significant improvements in school attainments.

- School attendance in beneficiary schools showed no significant improvements over the project period.
- Caterers bought limited quantities of foodstuffs from the local farmers which were also not instantly paid for; framers in the beneficiary communities, therefore, did not receive direct benefits from the programme. Parents however, derived some benefits from the programme through time and resource relief from cooking lunch for their school children.
- MOFA was also not resourced by the programme to facilitate food production by farmers in beneficiary communities for sale to the programme. The poverty reduction component of the programme was not implemented and therefore the objective of the programme to increase food production, improve farm incomes and improve food security in the beneficiary district was not achieved.
- The objective of the programme achieving poverty reduction impact was not fully achieved in the beneficiary district.

## **Conclusions**

Out of the summaries of main findings from the study, the following major conclusions were drawn.

The implementation processes of the GSFP as a Presidential Special initiative under the administration of the Ministry of Local Government was not fully achieved to provide an effective operationalisation of the policy. Funding of the programme was irregular and inadequate; staffing was both inadequate and recruited staff lacked school feeding experience; staffing was accentuated by political patronage; and beneficiary school and community

selection was not transparent and without actual poverty targeting as specified by in the policy guidelines. The effectiveness of the implementation processes was, therefore, not fully achieved.

The implementation of the GSFP did not effectively serve to promote basic education in the beneficiary district. Political influence, inadequate staffing, irregular funding and weak collaboration among major stakeholders contributed to the ineffective implementation of the policy and the failure of the programme to achieve its educational objective in the beneficiary district.

Parents in the beneficiary communities were relieved of resources to provide their school children with lunch on each school day. Farmers in the community did not participate fully in programme and therefore derived no benefits from the programme. Caterers failed to comply with policy directives to purchase locally produced foodstuffs for the school feeding and thereby denied local farmers benefits that should accrue to them from the programme.

The implementation processes also failed to utilise MOFA as a facilitator for increased food production by local farmers and hence the programme did not achieve the objective of increasing food production, improved farm incomes and improved food security in the beneficiary district. The objective of achieving poverty reduction in the beneficiary communities and the study district was therefore not realised by the programme at the end of the piloting period.

Based on the above, it can be concluded that the programme achieved limited success as a model for community-based development in the beneficiary district.

## **Recommendations**

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn out of this study, the following recommendations are made to help in the review of the GSFP as a policy and in its operations in the study area and the country as a whole.

The Government of Ghana should involve all major stakeholders to review the GSFP policy with the view to changing the policy as a Presidential Special Initiative into a statute through Parliament. As a statute, the influence of political patronage will be less effective in reducing the effectiveness of the implementation processes.

The Government of Ghana must draw the statute specifying fiscal control mechanisms and quality of manpower required for the efficient operation of the programme with inbuilt training and development for staff and personnel on the DIC, SIC and Caterers. Under such statute, the staff continuity in school feeding management will eventually translate into building up of requisite experiences in school feeding management. Furthermore, drawing the statute such that it draws funding from the consolidated fund through budgetary allocations will curb the funding irregularity.

The Government of Ghana must draw the statute with specified levels for poverty and educational attainments as the numeric benchmarks for beneficiary school and community selection. This condition will ensure effective and actual poverty targeting and reduce the level of influence of implementers in the selection of beneficiaries.

The Inter Ministerial Steering Committee must mandate the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning that pays caterers to put in place a mechanism to ensure compliance with purchasing from the beneficiary

community in the execution of its functions under the policy. such a mechanism but be inbuilt in any new policy to be drawn by government.

The new statute to be draw by the Government of Ghana must mandate MOFA with directives for resources allocation from the project fund to initiate and sustain local food production in beneficiary communities as a means to achieving the objective of increasing small holder food production. To achieve the objectives of creating food self sufficiency among the rural poor, school feeding must be implemented in tandem with the food production component of the policy.

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## **APPENDICES**

### **APPENDIX 1**

#### **SURVEY INSTRUMENT**

Instrument: 1      **FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW SCHEDULE:  
COMMUNITY MEMBERS**

Date of interview.....      Time of interview.....

#### **INTRODUCTION**

I am Neenyi Ghartey VII, an M. Phil student at the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast. I am conducting this research seeking to find how the Ghana School Feeding Programme is helping the people in this area. My intention is purely for academic purposes and not in any way an attempt to invade the privacy of individuals and assess them. You are assured that all the information supplied will be treated confidentially.

#### **SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS**

1. No. of Respondents (in group).....
2. Name of community .....

#### **SECTION B: GSFP IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS**

1. Why school feeding by government?
2. Sources of information on GSFP
3. Knowledge of the programme.
4. Selection process for beneficiary community.



5. Menu development process.
6. Appointment of kitchen staff.
7. Community participation in programme management.
8. Processes of addressing grievances and other problems.
9. Monitoring activities.
10. Is there a monitoring exercise, by whom and how often?

### **SECTION C: SCHOOL FEEDING**

1. Category of children benefitting from programme.
2. Feeding; how regular?

### **SECTION D: POVERTY REDUCTION**

1. Purchasing of foodstuffs for the children's feeding.
2. Market for farmers in community.
3. Local production for feeding programme.
4. Effects of the school feeding on domestic expenditures or living conditions.
5. Future of the feeding programme in the community?

APPENDIX 2

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Instrument: 2 INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: COOK/PURCHASING OFFICER

Date of interview..... Time of interview,.....

INTRODUCTION

I am Neenyi Gharthey VII, an M. Phil student at the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast. I am conducting this research seeking to find how the Ghana School Feeding Programme is helping the people in this area. My intention is purely for academic purposes and not in any way an attempt to invade the privacy of individuals and assess them. You are assured that all the information supplied will be treated confidentially.

Consent of Respondent.....

Respondent signature/thumbprint

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

- 1. Status of Respondent: .....
2. School & Community: .....
3. Highest level of education:
i. Primary [ ] ii. Middle Sch./JSS [ ]
iii. SSS/Vocational/Technical [ ] iv. Tertiary [ ]

SECTION B: SECTION B: GSFP IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS

- 1. How were you appointed to this position? .....

2. How many years/months have you been at this post? .....

3. What is your schedule? .....

.....

4 Was there training before your commencement of duty?

i. Yes [ ] ii. No [ ] iii. After commencement [ ]

5 If any what was the content of the training/workshops?

.....

.....

6 How was the menu of the school developed?

.....

7 What foodstuffs are required daily for cooking? .....

.....

8 How are they procured? .....

.....

9 How much of foodstuffs required is purchased from this community?

.....

.....

10 What is your working relationship with the PTA and community?

.....

11 Are there regular visits by senior officials of the GSFP on inspection

and evaluation, and from which office? Yes. [ ] No. [ ]

12 If yes, how regular and from which office?

Regular visits (M & E)

Which Office

i. ....

.....

- ii. ....
- iii. ....

13 How is this programme financed and how regular are cash flows?

.....  
 .....

14 What are some of the general constraints you have in managing this work?

.....  
 .....

15 State any suggestions you have for the improvement of this programme?

.....  
 .....

**SECTION C: SCHOOL ATTAINMENTS**

1. What happens to food leftovers and how regular?

.....

2. Are there standardised records designed for this programme?

Yes. [ ] No. [ ]

3. If yes, what are they? .....

.....

4. If no, state why?.....

.....

5. State any observations you have made about children's schooling following the inception of this programme? .....

APPENDIX 3

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Instrument 3 INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: GSFP OFFICIALS

Date of interview..... Time of interview,.....

INTRODUCTION

I am Neenyi Ghartey VII, an M. Phil student at the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast. I am conducting this research seeking to find how the Ghana School Feeding Programme is helping the people in this area. My intention is purely for academic purposes and not in any way an attempt to invade the privacy of individuals and assess them. You are assured that all the information supplied will be treated confidentially.

Consent of Respondent..... Respondent signature/thumbprint

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

1. Status of Respondent: .....

SECTION B: GSFP IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS

1. How long have you been working on this programme?  
.....

2. Through what processes was the GSFP established?  
.....

3. How was this office established and how does it relate to the rest of the programme structures? .....

.....  
4. What are the responsibilities of this office?

.....

5. What training programmes have you participated in since your appointment to this position?

.....

6. How were beneficiary schools selected?

.....

7. How was the menu for schools developed?

.....

.....

8. How were community representatives appointed?

.....

9. What training and workshops have been organised by the secretariat?

Training	Beneficiaries	Duration	Frequency

10. How were monitoring and evaluation of the programmes performed?

.....  
.....

11. How has the poverty reduction component of the policy been implemented?

.....  
.....

12. How has MOFA supported this component of the programme?

.....

13. How is the GSFP financed?

	Source of finance	nature of cash flow
i.	.....	.....
ii.	.....	.....
iii.	.....	.....

14. What special challenges have you noticed with the implementation of this programme?

.....  
.....

15. What suggestions do you have on the way forward?

.....

APPENDIX 4

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Instrument 4 QUESTIONNAIRE TO BENEFICIARY SCHOOL HEADS

Date of interview..... Time of interview,.....

INTRODUCTION

I am Neenyi Gharthey VII, an M. Phil student at the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast. I am conducting this research seeking to find how the Ghana School Feeding Programme is helping the people in this area. My intention is purely for academic purposes and not in any way an attempt to invade the privacy of individuals and assess them. You are assured that all the information supplied will be treated confidentially.

Consent of Respondent.....  
Respondent signature/thumbprint

**SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS**

1. Designation of Respondent: .....
2. Name of School .....

**SECTION B: GSFP IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS**

1. How long have you been head of this school? .....
2. How were you introduced to the GSFP as a school head?  
.....
3. How was your school selected? .....
4. How was the school prepared by the GSFP secretariat for takeoff of this programme? .....



.....  
5. What is the level of participation of the community in the management  
participate of the school feeding?

.....  
.....

6. How was the caterer and cook employed?

.....

7. How was the menu for the school feeding developed?

.....  
.....

8. How are foodstuffs purchased for the school feeding?

.....  
.....

9. What happens to food leftovers and how frequent do you have them?

.....

10. How is the programme financed?

.....  
.....

**SECTION B: SCHOOL ATTAINMENTS**

11. What is the yearly enrolment in this school from 2005 to date (use form  
attached)

12. How many pupils drop-out in this school annually from 2005 to 2010.  
(use form attached)

13. What is the attendance rate of the class 1 of 2005 for the entire year

14. What is the attendance rate of classes 1 of 2006 and 2007 through to 2011 (use form attached)

15. Do you occasionally do mid-stream admissions? Yes. [ ] No. [ ]

16. What are some of the challenges with the GSFP in your school?

.....  
.....

17. In your view what can be done to improve the quality of delivery of this programme? .....

Table 1: School Enrolment Records

Name of School.....

Community: .....

Officer making report.....

Academic Year	No. Of pupils entering class 1
2001/2002	
2002/2003	
2003/2004	
2004/2005	
2005/2006	
2006/2007	
2007/2008	
2008/2009	
2009/2010	
2010/2011	

Table 2: School drop-out records

Name of School: .....

Community: .....

Officer making report: .....

Academic year	No. Of pupils dropping out of each class						Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
2001/2002							
2002/2003							
2003/2004							
2004/2005							
2005/2006							
2006/2007							
2007/2008							
2008/2009							
2009/2010							

Table 3: School Attendance records

Academic Year: ..... Cohort .....

Week	Term 1	Term 2	Term3
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13			
14			
Average Weekly attendance/pupil			

Table 4: School Attendance Records (Summary)

Name of School: .....

Community: .....

Officer making report: .....

No. of pupils in class: .....

Year	Average No. Of pupils present/class/term						Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
2001/2002							
2002/2003							
2003/2004							
2004/2005							
2005/2006							
2006/2007							
2007/2008							
20082009							
2009/2010							

APPENDIX 5

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Instrument 6 QUESTIONNAIRE TO GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS

Date of interview..... Time of interview,.....

INTRODUCTION

I am Neenyi Ghartey VII, an M. Phil student at the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast. I am conducting this research seeking to find how the Ghana School Feeding Programme is helping the people in this area. My intention is purely for academic purposes and not in any way an attempt to invade the privacy of individuals and assess them. You are assured that all the information supplied will be treated confidentially.

Consent of Respondent..... Respondent signature/thumbprint

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

1. Status of Respondent. ....

SECTION B: GSFP IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS

1. How long have you been working in this capacity? .....

2. Which statute established the GSFP? .....

3. Through what process was the GSFP established? .....  
.....

4. What is the relationship between the GSFP and NEPADs HGSFP? .....  
.....

5. How was this office established? .....  
.....

6. How were you appointed to office? .....
7. What special training were you taken through for this appointment? .....
8. How often were training programmes and for which category of personnel? .....
9. What other specific institutions were set up for the management of this programme? .....
10. How were beneficiary schools selected? .....
11. How were the personnel to the various levels of the institutional set up appointed? .....
12. How were the school menu designed? .....
13. How was the programme financed? .....
14. How did donor partners support the programme? .....
15. How was the poverty reduction component implemented? .....
16. How far do caterers adhere to policy directives on foodstuffs purchases? .....



17. How is the beneficiary community integrated in the management of this programme? .....

.....

.....

18. How is monitoring and evaluation of the programme managed?

.....

19. What are your comments on the way forward for this programme?

.....

.....



4. What was the nature of involvement or level of commitment of your organisation to the GSFP? .....
- .....
5. What processes established the GSFP? .....
- .....
6. What role did your organisation play in this implementation process? .....
- .....
7. To what extent were the communities involved in the policy formulation? .....
- .....
8. What comments can you make on the nature of take off of the programme? .....
- .....
9. How was the poverty reduction component of the programme conceptualised and implemented? .....
- .....
10. Do you engage in direct monitoring and evaluation of the programme? .....
- .....
11. In your perspective what are some of the special challenges confronting this programme? .....
- .....
12. What is the way forward for this programme? .....
- .....