

**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA**

**ASSESSMENT OF ADHERENCE TO FORMAL RULES IN RESOURCE  
DISTRIBUTION IN GHANA: THE CASE OF THE GHANA SCHOOL  
FEEDING PROGRAMME IN THE BIRIM SOUTH DISTRICT**



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**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF  
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## DECLARATION

I, Bertha Sethlina Effa Adu-Okoree hereby declare that this dissertation is the outcome of my own research except for the references to other people's works that have duly been acknowledged.

It has neither in part nor wholly been presented for another degree in this or any other university. I bear full responsibility for any shortcomings that may arise out of this work.

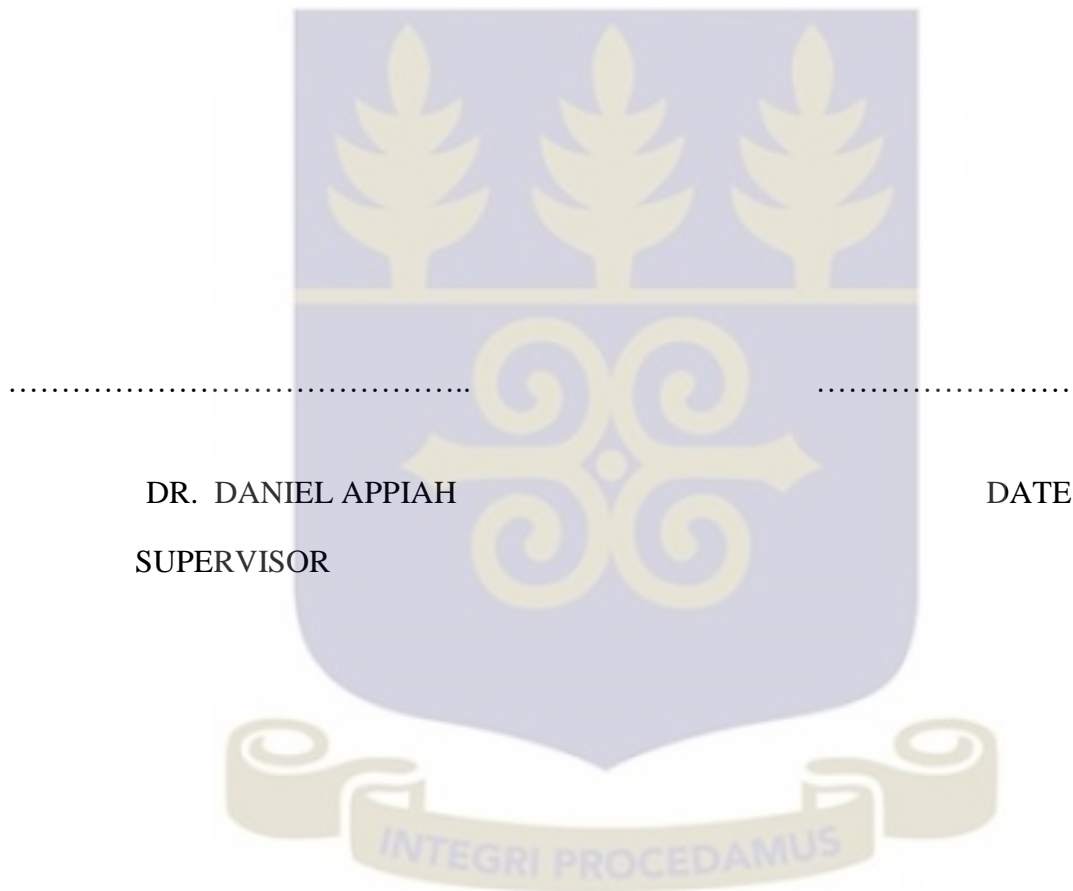
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## CERTIFICATION

I hereby certify that this thesis was supervised in accordance with procedures laid down by the University.



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## DEDICATION

To the glory of God and to my daughter Chloe Mercedes K.M. Oppong and my parents Rev. Dr. Benzies Isaac Adu-Okoree and Mrs. Yaa Asantewaa Adu-Okoree, I dedicate this work.



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

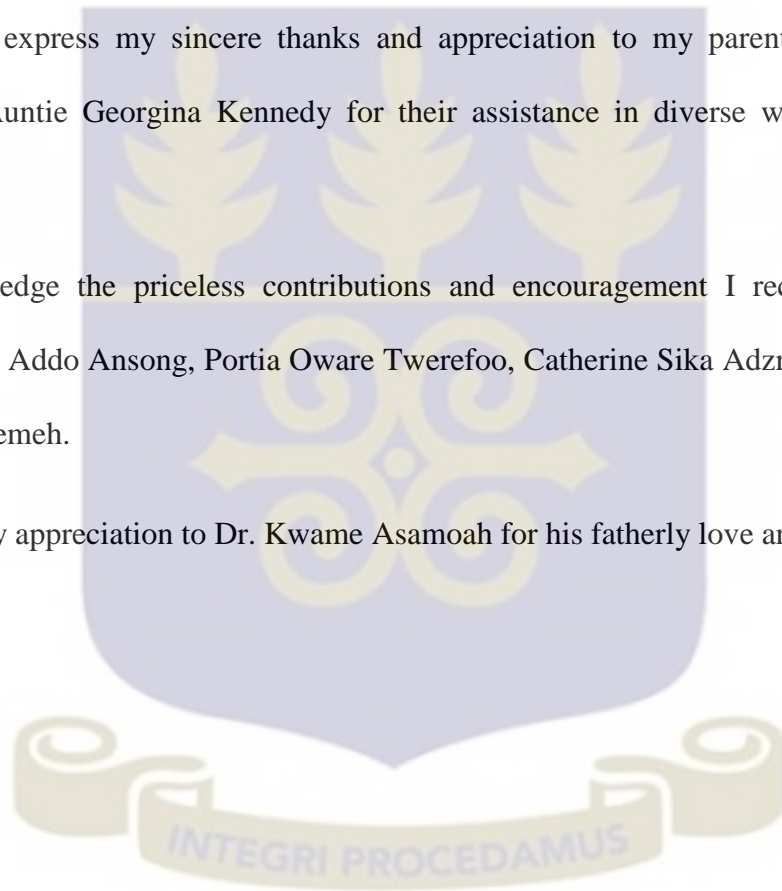
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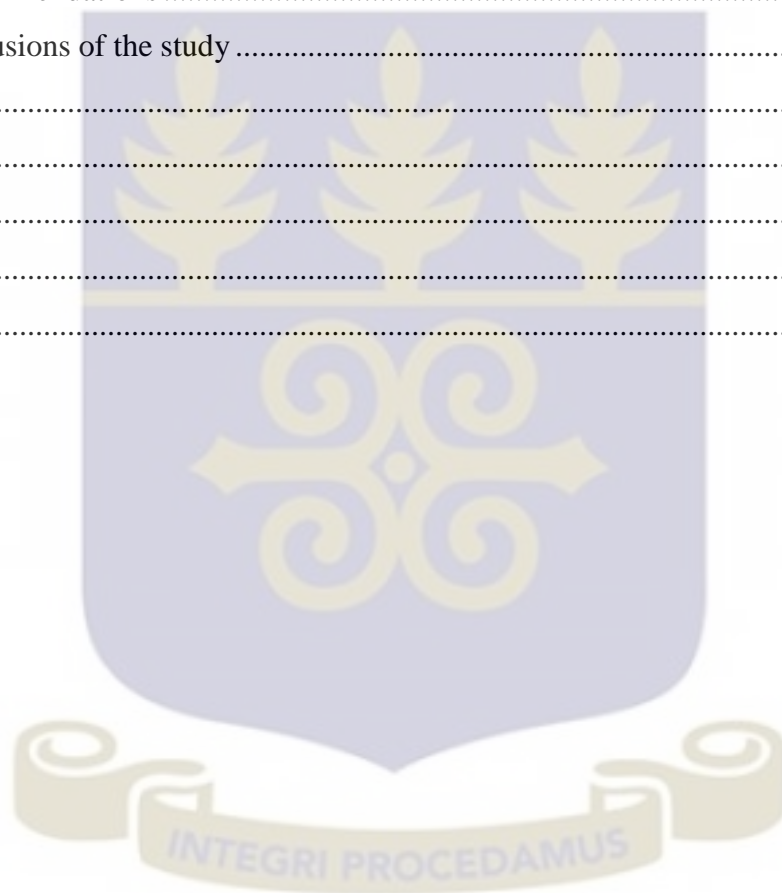


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## ACRONYMS



AGRA	-	Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa
CAADP	-	Comprehensive African Agriculture Development Programme
CEO	-	Chief Executive Officer
DA	-	District Assembly
DCE	-	District Chief Executive
DCD	-	District Coordinating Director
DFO	-	District Finance Officer
DIC	-	District Implementation Committee
EFA	-	Education for All
EPA	-	Environmental Protection Agency
FAO	-	Food and Agricultural Organization
FFE	-	Food for Education
GoB	-	Government of Bangladesh
GoG	-	Government of Ghana
GPRS	-	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategies
GSFP	-	Ghana School Feeding Programme
HGSF	-	Home Grown School Feeding
IDT	-	Inpres Desa Tertinggal
MDGs	-	Millennium Development Goals
MLGRD	-	Ministry of Local Government and rural Development
MMDA	-	Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assembly
MoE	-	Ministry of Education
MoFA	-	Ministry of Food and Agriculture
MoH	-	Ministry of Health
NEPAD	-	New Partnership for African Development
PESP	-	Primary Education Stipend Programme

PTA	-	Parents Teachers Association
SFP	-	School Feeding Programmes
SGB	-	School Governing Body
SIC	-	School Implementation Committee
WB	-	World Bank
WFP	-	World Food Programme



## ABSTRACT

Ghana adopted the School Feeding Programme in 2005. The programme was designed to impact on agriculture, rural poverty and education by using domestically produced food items to provide at least one hot nutritious meal to school children in poor communities. The Birim South District Assembly started the programme in 2006/2007 academic year with four schools but as at the time of the study this number has increased to twenty three. The main objectives were: to assess the extent to which the stakeholders of the programme adhered to the selection criteria for both schools and caterers; and to assess the monitoring procedures in place to ensure quality service delivery.

The study was conducted in twenty one of the twenty three beneficiary schools. Using one-on-one interview, the views of the key stakeholders were obtained and analyzed using the interpretivist approach. The study found that the implementation of the programme had not adhered to the policy guidelines in the selection of both the beneficiary schools and caterers. Key stakeholders in the programme had been sidelined. There were no strong procedures to ensure quality service delivery by the caterers. The exclusion of the community had cost the community commitment which could have ensured sustainability of the programme. The study therefore recommends the setting up of implementation committees at both district and school levels to include all stakeholders of the programme and mandate the head teachers to monitor the activities of the caterers.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.0 Background

School Feeding Programmes (SFPs) has been used over the years to enhance growth in children and increase school enrolment (Tomlinson, 2007). SFPs in another account emerged in the early 1700's and 1800's, in about four hundred and sixty four (464) areas of Western Europe. Some states in the United States of America (USA) were serving school meals from the mid 1800's.

The Netherlands, in the year 1900, became the first country to incorporate school meals into national legislation. By the 1930's, the United Kingdom (UK) and the USA had also instituted the SFP as part of their national programmes (Kearney, 2008). After the Second World War in 1940, the USA also initiated SFPs in Austria as an act of international aid focused on combating the severe malnutrition of children. Since then, SFPs have become key part of food assistance and relief emergency and development programme (World Food Programme, 2010).

SFPs have been accepted as a catalyst to enhance education and the nutritional benefits of children. It is estimated that there are about 368 million school children who receive food through the programme at pre-primary, primary and secondary levels all around the world. It is estimated that between US\$47 billion and US\$75 billion is invested in SFPs in the world annually, a great chunk of it is from government budgets (WFP, 2013).

The benefits of SFPs are seen in three main important areas. Firstly, as a social safety net used to address social needs especially in times of crisis; secondly, in promoting child development through enhanced nutrition and improved learning; and lastly in boosting agriculture to improve the local economy and the income levels of local farmers.

SFP as an intervention programme to provide at least one meal a day to children in school is heralded to have the potential of enhancing cognition of children by improving the nutritional status of school children (Uduku, 2011). Today, many developing countries have implemented a form of school feeding in their educational sector. These interventions are hoped to motivate the children to attend classes and free the parents of the worry of feeding their children and be able to concentrate their efforts on their livelihood activities (Devereux et al, 2010).

An emerging form of the SFP is the Home grown school feeding (HGSF) model which sought to use locally produced ingredients in the preparation of the meals. The HGSF is an initiative of the World Food Programme (WFP) and Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO). The model is aimed at creating ready market for local agricultural produce and thus eradicate rural poverty. Currently, there is a significant move towards HGSF to link SFPs to the development of local agriculture in the respective SFP countries. The concept aims to concurrently grow the local economy and reduce poverty. (Devereux et al, 2010).

The HGSF enjoys great support from partners like WFP, World Bank (WB) and the FAO in many African countries. On activities of partnership and coordination, the WFP points to the Bill and Melinda Gates foundation as key agents supporting the connection between smallholder farmer production and the SFP. In a related development, Alliance for a Green Revolution in Africa (AGRA) supports the supply side by financing the provision of inputs, credit and training in the agricultural sector (WFP, 2013).

Ghana is one of the ten countries selected by the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) to implement HGSF programme. The programme aims at using food produced by the local people. It was designed to provide ready market for local agricultural produce in order to increase the income levels of the local people. Thus the HGSF was intended to

address rural poverty while providing both nutritional and educational benefits in the community (Morgan, Bastia, & Kanemasu, 2007).

If well implemented, the programme was hoped to link and create market for small-scale farmers (Espejo et al, 2009). The SFP was to offer social safety net in transferring income to the local people. The programme was in no doubt intended to be a service delivery mechanism seeking to improve the livelihoods of the local people and ensure food security.

The Government of Ghana (GoG) believed that the programme had the prospects of changing the condition of hunger, education, the food security and poverty landscape in Ghana if it was properly funded and executed as designed (GoG, 2006; Devereux et al, 2010; Sumberg & Wheeler, 2011). Ghana adopted the HGSP model in 2005 as part of the implementation of the Comprehensive African Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) Pillar 3 of the NEPAD. The programme was expected to provide at least one hot meal a day for school children in deprived communities. Initially one school each was selected as beneficiary of the programme from each of the ten regions but the number of beneficiary schools was scaled-up in 2011. At the end of the programme, it was expected that there would be a real increase of 8 percent in national income and at the community level, an 8 percent increase in employment at community level and a greater availability, access, utilization and stability of food crops at community level (Ghana, 2006a).

The Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) was built on three objectives: (i) to reduce hunger and malnutrition; (ii) increase school enrolment and retention; and (iii) Boost domestic food production.

These objectives are likely to be achieved if the FP is implemented according to prescribed guidelines involving diverse stakeholders outlined in the programme operational manual. This takes us to the problem of the study stated below.

### **1.1 Statement of Problem**

The GSFP Operations Manual sets out the conceptual framework and objectives of the programme, as well as the roles and responsibilities of the key actors. The Programme is structured as follows. At the national level is the national secretariat, which is the apex body running the programme. The District level managers are the district assemblies, district desk officers, and the district implementation committees.

The institutional framework specified in this programme has its supervisory Ministry as the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development with its policy direction provided by the steering committee and The Ghana School Feeding Secretariat undertakes the day-to-day implementation of the programme. At the Regional level, monitoring is done by the programme's steering committee. At the district level, it is done by the District Implementation committees consisting of the District Chief Executive (DCE) who is the chair, the District Directors of Education, Health and Agriculture, a representative from the social welfare department, a chief and a desk officer who is to act as the Secretary to the committee. Also at the local level, the implementation is done by the school implementation committee which is chaired by a representative from the Parents

Teachers Association, including the Boys' or Girls' prefect, external support agencies, beneficiary communities and civil society organizations. Although these facilities are put in place, some communities have only the DCE together with just one or two members which makes monitoring very difficult and cumbersome.

The criteria for selection of beneficiary school include:

Poverty level of the area, the inability of the children to go to school because of lack of food, no concentration in class because of long distances being covered by these children daily, high drop-out rate, school enrolment being low, very poor access to portable water and, low literacy rates and the community's capability management and the willingness of the community to provide basic infrastructure like kitchens, storeroom and latrines. After the fifth year of implementation of the programme some challenges were faced which included: poor targeting of beneficiary schools, constant concerns relating to the linkage to local farmers and the failure to spend feeding costs in the locality (GSFP,2016). The interest of this study is to assess the adherence to rules in the selection of the schools and caterers.

The GSFP has come under criticisms for its poor management, poor coverage, inconsistencies and high-cost (Tomlinson, 2007). The programme however has chalked some gains. Arhin (2015) indicates a significant increase in enrolment in beneficiary schools since its inception in Ghana. Oduro-Ofori & Yeboah Gyapong (2014), conclude a reduced level in school drop-out in the Kwaebibrim District because the programme motivates children to stay in school. The Ghana News Agency (2014) also observed that since the implementation of the programme, there has been an increment from 413,493 in 2006/2007 to 1,739,352 pupils in 2013/2014.

Since its inception, the GSFP has faced several bottlenecks which have threatened the effectiveness and sustainability of the programme. First of these is that the budgetary allocation from the central government has been slow and at times inadequate. Since the Netherlands Government withdrew its assistance in 2010 with one of the reasons being the non-adherence to selection criteria, the government of Ghana has been the sole financier of

this programme. Due to budgetary constraints the government is unable to provide enough financial resources to the programme (Oduro-Ofori & Yeboah Gyapong, 2014).

Secondly, the infrastructural facilities needed to support the programme have not been available. A number of communities have not been able to provide clean and healthy kitchen facilities. Other facilities not provided include sources of clean and portable water to enhance the programme. Also, the system for procurement and governance structure intended for the programme has been sidelined. The communities have been sidelined in the programme. The monitoring and evaluation element of the Ghana School feeding programme is still quite weak (Oduro-Ofori & Yeboah Gyapong, 2014; Ahmed, 2000),

In the review of the Ghana School Feeding Programme by Fisher (2007), she concluded that despite the presence of formal criteria for the selection of both beneficiary schools and caterers, the selection has been flawed with influence by the relevant District Chief Executive or chief of the area. The sidelining of the key stakeholders in the selection, implementation process and monitoring is likely to affect the success of the programme.

As has already been mentioned, the SFP was introduced into the Birim South District in 2011 with four schools initially benefiting from the programme. Currently there are twenty three schools benefiting in the programme. Thus, to ensure the success and sustainability of the programme in the Birim South District there is the need to examine the extent to which the stakeholders have adhered to the criteria for the selection of schools and caterers. It has been almost a decade since Fisher (2007) made that conclusion, also since the Netherlands Government withdrew its assistance with the major reason being the adherence to selection criteria.

There is the need find out if the Government of Ghana and the Birim South District Assembly have learnt any lesson from it and hence the need for reassessing of the implementation of the programme in the Birim South District Assembly.

## **1.2 Objectives of the study**

Specifically, the key objective of the study is:

To assess the extent to which stakeholders of the GSFP in the Birim South district have adhered to the formal rules of the programme in the implementation of three key processes, namely:

- (i) The selection of beneficiary schools
- (ii) The selection of caterers, and
- (iii) The purchasing of foodstuffs from farmers within the local communities of beneficiary schools in order to help reduce rural poverty.

## **1.3 Research questions**

- i. How have beneficiary schools and caterers been selected in the district?
- ii. To what extent has the GSFP impacted on the markets of the local communities of the beneficiary schools in the district?
- iii. What should be done to improve the implementation of the GSFP in the district?

## **1.4 Scope of the study**

The study is concerned with adherence to the criteria set out in the policy at the implementation stage within the Birim South District of the Eastern Region of Ghana. It focused on the procedure adopted in the selection of the beneficiary schools and the caterers; the sourcing of foodstuff and the monitoring procedures embedded in the implementation of the GSFP. The study recognized the importance of participatory development practice in

implementing community based projects and thus, explore the critical role played by stakeholders in ensuring the success of the programme.

### **1.5 Relevance of the study**

The study will contribute to existing knowledge on the GSFP and the implementation procedure of development programmes at the community level and how implementing authorities might not strictly adhere to design of the programme at the implementation stage. The study contributes to the discussion of institutional failures. The study therefore provides a lesson for policy makers to have a built-in mechanism that will ensure effective implementation of public policies. The study also has laid the foundation for further research on the GSFP moving from the measuring of the success of the GSFP with school enrolment and retention to consider the adherence to formal rules in resource distribution and its link with community empowerment and poverty eradication. The study also draws attention of the managers of the need to improve the implementation process of distributive and competitive policies.

### **1.6 Organization of the study**

The study is organized into five chapters with chapter one covering the introduction which has the background; statement of the research problem; research objectives; research questions; scope of the study and relevance of the study. Chapter two covers the review of literature on SFPs, definition of key concepts used and the theoretical framework of analysis. Chapter three discusses the methodological approach employed in collecting and analyzing data. Chapter four is the presentation, analysis and discussion of the findings of the study while chapter five covers the summary of the study, conclusions drawn from the study on the specific objectives and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the definition of key concepts used, followed by the empirical literature review on the implementation of the SFPs and adherence to formal policy in developing countries and Ghana. These concepts discussed are later used as framework for analyzing the findings of the study.

#### **2.1 Definition of Concepts**

This section reviews literature to elucidate the meaning of the concepts of Institutions, public policy and effective policy implementation

##### **2.1.1 Concept of Institutions**

Different scholars have defined institutions in varying ways. Mcloughlin (2014), for example, sees institution as the tools fallible humans use to change incentives to enable fallible humans to overcome social dilemmas. Similarly, North (1990) sees institutions as “the humanly devised constraints that structure political, economic and social interaction between persons” (North, 1990:2). Hodgson (2007:2) says institutions are “the kinds of structures that matter most in the social realm: they make up the stuff of social life”. Hall (1997:3) too defines institutions as the “formal rules, compliance procedures, and operating practices that structure the relationship between individuals in various units and the economy”. In a similar vein, Knight defines institutions as “a set of rules that structure social interactions in particular ways” Rodrik (2003:1) also views institutions as “the rules of the game in a society, as defined by prevailing explicit and implicit behavioural norms and their ability to create appropriate incentives for desirable economic behaviour”. From these various definitions, institutions are seen as set of rules, regulations and procedures put in place by a group of

people to guide their behaviour to ensure harmony in their interactions as they learn to live together.

The importance of institutions lies in their potential to shape the behaviour of human relations. Institutions may also be seen to both constrain and enable behaviour (Hodgson, 2006). Having rules in societies imply constraints but such constraints can bring about potential growth and uniformity because institutions are critical for all development process (Rodrik 2003).

These rules can be either formal or informal. The informal rules consist of code of conduct, customs and traditions while formal rules consist of laws, constitutions, policy guidelines and policy criteria (North, 2003; de-Graft Aikins et al., 2014). Formal institutions may also include constitution; legal system; property rights; and regime types that have predictable outlook (Persson & Tabellini, 2003; Barro 2000).

Informal institutions on the other hand consist of accepted uniform behaviours that are embedded in socially-shared rules. They are usually unwritten, created, communicated, and enforced outside of officially-sanctioned channels (Pejovich, 1999; Helmke & Levitsky, 2004). The informal rules in Ghana include norms, belief systems, conventions and practices that have been learnt and practiced and guide behavior of members of the society in their interactions with one another. The Chieftaincy institution is the custodians of the informal institutions in Ghana and is enforced through the practice of traditional leadership (Aikins, 2011).

Government policies as set of behavioural patterns that are set to govern the behaviour and practices of state officials can be said to be formal institutions. Thus, the formal rules or criteria that have been explicitly stated to be used by the various stakeholders in the implementation of the GSFP in the selection of beneficiary schools and caterers are

considered as formal institutions. This study focused on assessing the extent of implementation of the selection criteria of the beneficiary school and caterers in the Birim South District of Ghana. The criteria for the selection of beneficiary schools and caterers have been spelled out in the policy documents.

To make rules work within a formal institution, there should be good communication of the rules to the various actors or stakeholders involved so that they are able to understand clearly the rules and its importance. In a well-structured organization, people abide or follow rules because they are stated explicitly and the consequences of not abiding by them are known; but in organizations where partisan politics has taken over the implementation of public policies, institutions are unlikely to work effectively. Rondinelli, McCollough and Johnson (1989) argue that for an efficient and effective implementation of a programme, there is the need to understand the political, economic, social and behavioural characteristics of beneficiary communities.

Specifically, within the context of this study, the various stakeholders or actors of the GSFP are informed of the rules or the criteria for selection in the District Operations Manual. The District Operational Manual has laid down the criteria for the selection as based on the following: (i) poverty level of the area; (ii) inability of the children to go to school due to lack of food; (iii) no concentration in class due to long distances being covered by these children daily; (iv) high drop-out rate; (v) low school enrolment; (vi) very poor access to potable water; (vii) low literacy rates; and (viii) the community capability management and their willingness to put up basic infrastructure like kitchen, storeroom and latrines. The study assesses the extent to which the actors implementing the GSFP abided by these criteria in the selection of beneficiary schools and caterers in the Birim South District.

The District Chief Executives; the District Directors of Education, Agriculture and Health; and the chiefs of the beneficiary areas are key actors whose behaviour are likely to affect the implementation of the programme. (Fisher, 2007) .These people are major actors in the implementation of the rules. They are required to adhere to the rules set out for the selection of the schools and caterers for the SF programme because the GSFP is a public policy using state resources and intended to benefit the society in general and not their personal interests.

### **2.1.2 Public Policy**

Public policy exists to guide the actions of public officials and to solve problems that may arise as they try to take actions that may affect the people in society (Coplin & O’Leary 1998). The concept of public policy is seen in different ways by different scholars, for instance, Dewey (2012) understands it as the public and its problems. This definition implies how the issues and problems get to be defined and how they are placed on the public agenda. Heidenheimer et al., (1990) also sees it as how, why and to what effect Governments pursue particular courses of action and inaction. Nagel (1990) similarly understands public policy as the nature, causes and effects of public actions. The above definitions imply that whatever causes the need for an action to be taken by the Government as well as the effect of that particular course of action can be referred to as a public policy. In a similar vein, Dye (2013:3) defines public policy as “whatever the Government choose to do or not to do”. Thus, Public policy can be seen as the authoritative allocation of resources of value for the good of the whole society. Authoritative in this context means that the allocation is backed by law and it is for the good of the society. For example, actions of the state to allocate schools, roads, hospitals and others within the state are public policies. All the above scholarly definitions highlight on public policy being a course of action that is made by the Government in dealing with the societal problems. Public policy within the context of this

work is defined as the purposive course of action by the state and other external donors in dealing with the societal problems.

Public policies may be written or unwritten, explicit or implicit but important policies of government are often clearly expressed in a written form. Public policies have been categorized into typologies to make a clear distinction and to understand the various policies of the Government. These are distributive, competitive regulatory, redistributive, and constituent (Lowi, 2009). This classification demonstrates utility in terms of patterns of policy formulation and legitimation (Ripley & Franklin, 1984)

### **2.1.3 Distributive Policies**

A distributive policy is the assistance provided in the form of subsidies and involves a kind of payment which induces individuals and groups to take on the desired activity. Distributive programmes may be in the form of cash payments, tax subsidies, grants, low interest on loans, and licenses to individuals and groups, corporate entities. It may also be in a form of subsidies for producers for resisting from certain activities. Subsidies are made available to reduce the cost of production and may include activities relating to development of land, producing particular kind of products and engaging certain farming practices. Resource allocation for this type of policy is mostly beneficial to producers.

### **2.1.4 Competitive Regulatory**

Competitive regulatory policies are those policies that are limited to the provision of certain goods or services to a few or selected people from a larger number of potential competitors. There is high competition in this type of policy and hence a criterion for selection is required (Barnard & Deakin, 2002). The GSFP is thus a competitive regulatory policy and that accounts for the reason why there are criteria for the selection of schools and caterers because not all schools qualify to be part of the programme. There may be poor towns or several

schools with low enrolment but only those who fall within the criteria should be selected to benefit from the programme. Competitive regulatory policies reduce the freedom to act of those regulated and the regulated goods and services are seen with much importance to the society to require intervention from the Government.

Though the services provided under this type are scarce or limited, the public or society has a stake in the manner in which it is provided. That is why the society or community members of beneficiary schools are expected to participate fully in the programme to enhance its success and sustainability. In the GSFP, there are laid down rules for the selection of beneficiary schools and caterers and because there is competition, there is a likelihood of officials or actors not adhering to the rules.

### **2.1.5 Redistributive Public Policy**

Redistributive policies in simple terms is taking resources from one group and giving to another group. They are intended to readjust wealth allocation or some other value among different social classes in a society especially from the rich to the poor. The aim of such policies is to get the rich to contribute to giving opportunity to the poor to access minimum life necessities that promote human welfare by the state. Since there is reallocation in power and rights in redistributive policy, it is difficult to secure such equity because the rich or those with power and money will try to resist any form of reduction in their power and resources. Examples of redistributive policies in Ghana include the reduction in bus fares for the aged using the Metro Mass Transport, the National Youth Employment programme designed for the disadvantaged unemployed youth, the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty programme (HEAP) and provision of legal aid for the disadvantaged, the National Health Insurance, etc.

### **2.1.6 Constituent policies**

Lowi (2009:15) states that “constituent policies are policies formally and explicitly concerned with the establishment of government structure, with the establishment of rules or procedures for the conduct of government, of rules that distribute or divide power and jurisdictions within which present and future government policies might be made”. Basically constituent policy is the composition of Government and is sometimes referred to as state-building. An example is Ghana School Feeding Programme Secretariat. The Ghana School Feeding Secretariat has the responsibility to ensure that the District Assemblies use the laid down guidelines and procedure in the implementation of the programme in their respective beneficiary communities. Because they are concerned with Government procedures and organization, they have the responsibility to determine what is actually done and any Assembly which does not follow procedures in the implementation of the programme may be sanctioned.

## **2.2 Conceptualizing Effective Policy Implementation**

Policy implementation encompasses those actions by public and private individuals and groups that are directed at the achievement of goals and objectives set forth in prior policy decisions. In other words, implementation of a policy is carrying out or executing what has been planned with the resources for the policy provided. For a policy to be considered effective, it means it should have been able to attain its objectives. Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) see effective implementation as a process of interaction between the setting of goals and actions geared to achieving them. Similarly, Williams (1971) sees effective implementation as lying within the ability of an organization to bring together men and materials in a cohesive manner to achieve the stated objectives. So in assessing the GSFP in determining whether it has been effective or not, there is the need to look at whether

regulation for the Assemblies to use the selection criteria was achieved during the implementation of the GSFP in the Birim South District.

In the context of this study, effective implementation requires following the laid down criteria and procedures in the selection of the beneficiary schools during the implementation of the GSFP. Bardach identified difficulties in effective implementation of a programme and argues that:

*Programme implementation is a difficult exercise, It is hard enough to design public policies and programmes that look good on paper, it is harder still to formulate them in words and slogans that resonate pleasingly in the ears of political leaders and the constituencies to which they are responsive and it is excruciatingly hard to implement them in a way that pleases anyone at all, including the supposed beneficiaries or clients (Bardach, 1977 :3).*

Implementation of programmes may be confronted with various barriers and challenges that will make its effectiveness difficult. Barriers or challenges in implementation may include but not limited to lack of interest by the potential participants that may be due to poor need assessment or lack of one; lack of understanding by administration, participants, staff, board, or community organizations; inadequate resources; legal and regulatory matters not correctly attended to; cultural, ethnic, and racial issues not considered; insufficient communication about the existing policies; having wrong personnel in positions for which they are not well-trained or qualified; poor management of the implementation process; or lack of effective policy and procedures. (Powell, Davies, Bannister, & Macrea, 2009)

### 2.3 School Feeding Programme in other Countries

There are differing accounts on the history and origin of school feeding programmes. In his account, Tomlinson (2007) outlined the surfacing of SFP back in 1930's in the USA and the UK with its main objective focused on the improvement of the growth of children. SFP was said to have emerged early in the 1700's and 1800's, within close to four hundred and sixty four (464) areas of Western Europe. A number of states in the USA were also serving school meals from the mid 1800's. The Netherlands however became the first country to take the feeding programme to a higher level by incorporating school meals into their national programme in the year 1900.

Kearney (2008) in his account recounted that by the mid 1930's; the USA and UK had also instituted the SFP as part of their national programmes. Another additional account also indicates that SF initiatives has already existed since the late 1700's and came about as donors' projects in Europe. The USA started the exercise of initiating SFPs in Austria as an act of international aid with its main focus on alleviating the relentless malnutrition of children after the Second World War in the 1940's. SFPs since then have gradually become an essential component of food aid and support for emergency and growth programmes (WFP, 2010).

Bennet (2003) and Tomlinson (2007) make a clear difference between five (5) types of SFPs based on its objective namely; (i) SFP as a programme to enhance the cognitive advancement of children, (ii) SFP serving as an emergency assistance intervention, (iii) SFP serving as a nutritional intervention, (iv) SFP serving as a developmental intervention to support recovery and (v) Linking SFP to short- and long-term food security

SFPs have been acknowledged as a mechanism that is used to improve the educational and nutritional benefits of school going children (Morgan, Bastia, & Kanemasu, 2007). It is also

estimated that there are approximately 368 million school going children who benefit from the programme at pre-primary, primary and secondary stages all around the world. It is further estimated that between US\$47 billion and US\$75 billion is spent on SFPs in the world annually, with a great portion of it coming from government budgets (WFP, 2013). Sufficient evidence is available on the benefits of SFPs with three main areas of importance highlighted and they are: (i) a social safety net which is used to tackle social needs, (ii) promoting child growth, and (iii) boosting local agriculture.

Social safety nets however are generally defined as programmes targeted at the economically disadvantaged members of a country. SF is hence one of such programmes and it is intended to benefit the disadvantaged (World Bank, 1996)

School children in Mali do not benefit a lot from the SFP because they are not in school. However in Botswana there is an extensive success in increased enrolment of school children (Bundy et al, 2009).

### **2.3.1 Two best Practices of SFP: Indonesia and Bangladesh**

The Government of Indonesia initiated their nationwide SFP in the 1990s. This programme was designed and fully funded by the State with schools, parents, children and the general rural community being the main targets (Studdert, Rasmussen, Soekirman & Habicht, 2004). The SFP served as an intervention used to lessen the poverty level in the country. Using the school feeding as a community stage entry point, this was then later incorporated into the state poverty alleviation strategy. Levinger (1986) as cited by Del Rosso(1999) asserted that the SFP in Indonesia used innovative mechanisms for the programme delivery compared with other programmes by the Indonesian Government and internationally. A pilot study was carried out in other regions of the country to assess the effectiveness of the SFP in Indonesia

with the findings confirming to earlier writings. This however caused for the extension of the programme in other regions in Indonesia (Rosso, 1999).

About 2.1 million primary school children in more than 16,000 schools in villages designated as poor according to the Inpres Desa Tertinggal (IDT) benefitted from the implementation of the programme in 1996 after the evaluation of the pilot study. These criteria recognized villages who have their economic growth lesser than that of the regional average using 36 indicators of household socioeconomic factors and village infrastructure (Azis, 1995; Februhartanty, 2005). By the year 1998, the schools in all IDT villages were given a mandate to implement the School Feeding Programme.

The implementation of the SFP in Indonesia involved the provision of snack and a hot meal on each feeding day for three days in a week throughout the school year. The programme plan set specifically that the snack provided should not include the staple food of the locality. This was done to prevent people from having the notion that the food provided was a main meal that would replace a meal the children would receive at home otherwise. The programme guideline also stated that industrialized produced foods such as noodles and powdered milk must not be used, regardless of protests from various industry groups as at the time of the programme's commencement (Central Coordinating Board for Child and Youth Improvement Programme, 1996).

Only locally grown food items were used in order to ensure that the funds for the programme circulated within the local economy. The programme also provided that the children should be dewormed at least twice a year (Central Coordinating Board for Child and Youth Improvement Programme, 1996). In order to ensure that the money allocated for the programme reached the specific beneficiaries, payment to the services providers of the programme were made directly to the local bank accounts of the providers without going

through the regions and districts. This process helped in reducing the attrition of programme money.

This new approach to programme funds delivery was designed in Indonesia. It was only the principal of the school that was allowed to withdraw money from the local bank and even had to present a proper menu which is signed by the PTA, the community midwife, the community leader and the heads of the community women's association (Studdert et al., 2004). This procedure was planned to enable the involvement of the local community who approved the number of children to be fed to be aware of how much money specifically was spent on the programme. The well-designed structures ensured community participation in the SFP.

Feeding children in Bangladesh had gone through various stages with different objectives and designs. In order to reduce hunger in schools and to increase school enrolment and retention, the Government of Bangladesh (GoB) together with the WFP launched the Bangladesh School feeding programme. It was targeted at persistently poor areas in Bangladesh with food insecurity (Ahmed, 2004). The programme saw to the distribution of nutrient fortified biscuits to school children in the schools involved (Ahmed, 2004).

A different approach of the SFP was practiced in Bangladesh where food was provided to households who encourage their children to attend school. The GoB committed to provide a considerable percentage of its budget for more than a decade to providing incentives to families who send their wards to School (Ahmed, 2004). In 1993, the GoB launched the Food for Education (FFE) programme to increase enrolment in primary schools for children from poor families. This programme saw to the provision of a monthly home ration of grains (wheat or rice) to rural poor families who encouraged their wards to attend primary school. A

number of researches ascertain that the FFE did raise primary school enrolment (Meng & Ryan, 2004; Ahmed & Arends-Kuenning, 2003; Ahmed & del Ninno, 2002; Ahmed, 2000).

In 2002, a programme known as the Primary Education Stipend Programme (PESP) came to replace the FFE programme. The PESP provided assistance in cash to poor and needy families who sent their wards to primary school. The GoB also provided assistance in the form of cash to young girls in the senior secondary schools through stipend programmes. The aim of the restricted cash transfer programme is to encourage and increase the school enrolment and retention rate of children in the primary and senior secondary schools all over rural Bangladesh. Ahmed (2004) in his study showed a positive impact of these programmes on educational outcomes.

Engaging the community actively in SFPs was fundamental in empowering the community. Participation was not only a prerequisite for the feeding programme but also essential for the success of efforts in reducing poverty in the community. In communities where there was active participation, the programme was not headed or run by the elite in the society but it involved the whole community. Thus, participation by the community was opened to all groups. The responsibility was shared amongst them such that each individual could bring on board their special talents and skills. There was decentralization of power and responsibility. Further research shows that in communities where participation was high, they applied and received more funds than communities with less participation (Meng & Ryan, 2004).

#### **2.4 School Feeding in Ghana**

Among ten countries in sub-Saharan Africa, Ghana was the first in implementing the School Feeding Programme (SFP) which was structured in line with the guidelines of NEPAD as described in the CAADP. The GSFP was structured and targeted to the poorest towns and villages in the country where children in kindergarten and primary schools were to be

provided with one hot and nutritious meal daily. The food was to be prepared with locally produced food items. The GSFP had three main objectives: (i) To reduce hunger and malnutrition; (ii) Increase school enrolment, attendance and retention; and (iii) To boost domestic food production.

These three objectives were aimed at helping attain the first three objectives of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which were to: (i) Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger; (ii) Achieving universal primary education; and (iii) Promote gender equality and women empowerment (GSFP AOP, 2011).

The SFP sought to entice and encourage parents to send their children to school. Although in Ghana the programme is intended and targeted at school children in poor rural communities, the practicality of the programme is still a challenge. The programme also sought to ensure that access to education goes with quality in teaching and learning in the various participating schools. The Government expected the programme to increase employment along the agriculture value chain to increase the level of farmer's income at both the community and national level. It was assumed that with much availability, the access and use of local foodstuff at the community level would improve food security. It was expected that by the end of the programme, there would be an increase in employment and ready market for farm produce at the district and community levels (Ghana 2006a). This would lead to an increase and stable source of income both at the national and district level. Therefore, this strategy was to complement the development strategies of the GoG.

#### **2.4.1 The Roles and Responsibilities of the Major Actors in the Implementation of the GSFP**

The District Operations Manual of the GSFP has outlined the roles and responsibilities of the implementing actors of the programme. The major actors stated in the manual consist of the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD), the Ghana School

Feeding Programme Secretariat, District Assemblies (DA), District Implementation Committees (DICs), School Implementation Committees (SICs), Schools and Matrons/Caterers.

**(i) Roles and Responsibilities of the GSFP National Secretariat**

The GSFP National Secretariat is the body in charge of coordination and it is now supervised by the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection. The main role of the Secretariat is to make sure the school children of poor households are served daily with a hot and nutritious meal which is prepared with foodstuff produced locally. This is to improve food security and enhance the health and nutritional status of the children as well as improve the economic base of the beneficiary communities. Among other things the National Secretariat shall:

- i. Ensure that Districts select beneficiary schools based on agreed criteria
- ii. Provide periodic Audits of DICs and SICs to assure consistency
- iii. Ensure effective collaboration with strategic Partners
- iv. Provide sensitization, training and capacity building to implementers
- v. Monitor and evaluate the Programme Nationwide

Source: The District Operating Manual (2008:15-16)

**(ii) Roles and Responsibilities of the District Assemblies (DAs)**

The successful implementation of the GSFP rests largely on the commitment of the DA as well as the beneficiary communities toward the programme, their level of readiness and interest toward the programme and its sustainability. The DA manages the programme at the District Level. Below are the key roles and responsibilities of the DA:

- i. Identify and designate a staff of the Assembly as a Desk Officer to serve as a link between the Assembly and the National Programme Secretariat;

- ii. Open a special school feeding bank account into which feeding funds from GSFP/MLGRD will be lodged;
- iii. The District Finance Officer (DFO) and the District Coordinating Director (DCD) must be signatories to the account in line with the Financial Administration Act;
- iv. MMDAs are also to select schools and caterers based on requirements set out under the programme;
- v. Should ensure that basic infrastructure such as kitchen, storage place and canteen are available before the commencement of cooking;
- vi. Interview and appoint caterers and ensure that appointed caterers/matrons are capable of cooking food on a large scale under hygienic conditions as well as be able to demonstrate basic understanding of the nutritional needs of children;
- vii. The MMDAs should ensure that caterers as much as possible buy/procure from local farmers and producers;
- viii. Collate information on how GSFP has linked up with famers at the district level;
- ix. Ensure there is adequate water for the implementation of the programme;
- x. Collaborate with communities/schools to construct a simple all weather kitchen, store, canteen with seats and table;
- xi. Facilitate the collection or compilation of base line and subsequent Monitoring and Evaluation data on beneficiary schools;
- xii. Prepare and submit to the GSFP National Secretariat quarterly monitoring reports comprising sources and uses of funds statement and bank reconciliation statement

Source: The District Operations Manual (2008:16-17).

**(iii) The District Implementation Committee (DIC)**

The DIC is the supervisory unit of the GSFP at the District level in charge of all the beneficiary schools, and also sees to the implementation and management of all aspects of the programme at the district level. The members of the DIC consist of (i) The District Chief Executive as the chairman; (ii) District Director of Health; (iii) District Director of Agriculture; (iv) A Traditional ruler; (v) An opinion leader; (vi) Two (2) representatives of the Social Services Sub-Committee; and (vii) The District Desk Officer who serves as the Secretary to the committee.

Below are the roles and responsibilities:

- i. Ensure that schools selected meet the eligibility criteria;
  - ii. Promote the GSFP by informing the communities about the programme content through community sensitization and encourage their participation in meetings and ensure that the communities commit themselves to the programme;
  - iii. Ensure that the caterers and cooks have health certificates;
  - iv. Ensure the formation and inauguration of the SICs;
  - v. Compliance with audit recommendations at the school level and any other task as may be assigned by the National Secretariat or the MLGRD; Prepare and submit end of term and annual reports on School Feeding Programme activities in the district to the Regional Coordinator for onward submission to the National Secretariat;
  - vi. Conduct periodic monitoring of the quality, quantity and hygienic level of food served by the caterers and keep records of all such instances of sub-standard food so that it will be taken into consideration in the renewal of the contract of the caterer
- Source: The District Operations Manual (2008: 21- 22).

#### **(iv) The School Implementation Committees (SIC's)**

At the community level, there is the SIC that supervises activities of the school feeding programme. Its membership includes; The Parents Teachers Association (PTA) Representative of the beneficiary, Head teacher of the school (Secretary), one representative of the School Management Committee, One Traditional Ruler from the community An Assembly Member, The Boys and Girls Prefects of the school

Below are their roles and responsibilities:

- i. Collaborate with the Head teachers and Caterers/Matrons in providing adequate and nutritious food for children;
- ii. Prepare term reports on the school feeding activities at the end of each term an each year and submit same to the district assembly that would inform payment accordingly;
- iii. Provide oversight and direct supervision of appointed caterers/matrons entrusted with cooking and feeding;
- iv. Facilitate community involvement, mobilization and support for the implementation of the programme;
- v. Ensure the use of potable water and maintenance of good sanitation;
- vi. Report any instances of sub-standard food to the DIC who will take into consideration during renewal of contract for caterers/matrons;

Source: The District Operations Manual (2008: 23-24).

## **2.5 Educational Outcomes**

A study conducted in New Orleans by Tulane University Early Childhood Research Centre in 1971 focused on the learning capabilities of malnourished children. In their study they measured learning capabilities by testing their learning skills practically and they found a considerable relationship between underfeeding and impaired learning capabilities and this

was attributed to the fact that malnourished children could not remain attentive. Thus, the early stages of malnutrition were linked to abnormalities in the development of the brain, behavioral instability, and psychological retardation and impaired learning capability (Tulane University, 2013). Another study conducted in Kenya found a strong link between school feeding and school performance (Chepkwony, Kariuki & Kosgei, 2013).

On the other hand, a study conducted in Ghana could not establish any strong link between SF and academic performance of the children (Van den Berg, 2006). The findings indicated that though the food given to children in beneficiary schools contributed to the diversity of diet among the children, no significant difference was found between the daily consumption of beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries. But the research made no mention of how children who benefited from the programme had their health and nutritious status improved from the meals served daily at school. Rather, the study posits that for the GSFP to have an encouraging and positive impact on the children's performance, it is to enhance school attendance and retention, contribute to their attentiveness in classrooms and hence lead to their contribution to class activities. Children who are experiencing short term hunger in their homes are likely to lose concentration and attentiveness in class and hence have lower cognitive abilities.

Adams and Hayes (2006) see academic performance in three ways:

- i. One's ability to study and having memory of the facts studied, also the ability to learn effectively and seeing how those facts fit together to form a broader pattern of knowledge.
- ii. The ability to think for oneself relating them to facts
- iii. And lastly how to communicate your knowledge written or verbally.

Since the aim of the GSFP is not just quantity but quality as well, the programme can therefore be said to be a creditable programme in the promotion of education for all in all aspects. The Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategies (GPRS) paper named the capitation grant and the SFP as strategies that are targeted towards meeting the quality needs of basic education.

## **2.6 Implementation challenges of the School Food Feeding Programme**

The Ministerial Review Committee report by Buch (2000) noted that, African countries implementing the school feeding are faced with challenges. This was attributed to the fact that the key actors involved exhibited different interests and lacked the capacity and special skills as well as lack of knowledge of the programme.

Ylimaki et al. (2007) shares a similar view in relation to the challenges or problems pointing out a similar challenge in the United States where they would rather prefer engaging the learned in recycling and waste management issues to engaging them in the drafting of significant policies related to school. In a similar vein, Botha (2007) pointed out that New Zealand's SFP is characterized by "sham participation". This is because all the School level committee does is put a stamp on decisions after it has been made at the National level.

In spite of the impacts of the SFP in Ghana, it is faced with a number of challenges.

A review by Abotsi (2013:79) suggests that,

*Though the capitation grant together with the Ghana School Feeding Programme resulted in some gains at the initial stages of its implementation, their contribution to enhancing the quality of education is not clear. This is because these educational subsidies increases enrolment in schools but these increases put added pressure on the already existing facilities in the schools which has adverse implications for the quality of education provided.*

Funding is the major challenge confronting the programme. At the initial stage of the programme, it was to be jointly funded by the GoG and NEPAD. However, NEPAD could not fulfill its part of the agreement and pulled out. Despite this setback, with donor support from the Dutch government, the programme was implemented thereby helping the GoG to pay for the original costs of the programme (Morgan & Sonnino, 2008). The GoG demonstrated greater commitment to fund the programme through the national budget to ensure continuity and stability of the programme.

Since the donor support agreement with the Dutch government ended in 2010, the GoG has been funding the programme alone. The 2012 budget statement shows that an amount of GHS 50 million is spent every year (Koolitoidu, n.d). The 2012 budget for the GSFP was GH¢67.1M (US\$17.7M) (Alhassan & Alhassan, 2014). Due to this high expenditure, the programme is on the verge of collapse as the government is finding it difficult to secure money to continue with the programme. The GoG is unable to release funds regularly to schools and caterers (Oduro-Ofori & Adwoa-Yeboah, 2014; Sulemana et al., 2013).

There are different degrees of linking local farmers in food procurement. Originally, the programme was designed in such a way that the SIC, which is made up of local people, could work hand in hand with local farmers to ensure that foodstuffs are procured from them (local farmers). But the introduction of two other procurement models—‘supplier model’ and ‘caterer models’ have compromised the objective of creating local markets for local farmers (Morgan & Sonnino, 2008). Both caterer and supplier models are done at the school level but the former is done by the caterers while the latter is done by associations or traders in the community.

Further on, the GSFP has increased enrolment but has not led to an increase in the educational facilities needed to enhance it. Most of the beneficiary schools in the GSFP have increased their enrolment more than the national average (Oduro-Ofori & Adwoa-Yeboah, 2014; Atta & Manu, 2015; Sulemana et al., 2013). Schools in the northern part of the country have the highest increase in enrolment. Notwithstanding, increase in enrolment there has not been any proportionate increases in the number of classrooms, teachers, textbooks, desks, notebooks and the supply of food (Atta & Manu, 2015, Sulemana et al., 2013). Therefore, there is stretch on these learning resources of the schools. This has led to overcrowding as well as reduction in quality teaching time in these schools (Lawson, 2012). For instance, Sulemana et al. (2013) report that in Zogbeli Ahmadiya School in the Tamale Metropolis, the increase in enrolment was high and therefore called for the construction of new a building to house the new nursery and primary pupils.

In addition, there is lack of partnerships and organizations among stakeholders at the regional, district, and school levels. A number of schools do not have effective and functional SIC (Sulemana et al., 2013; Buhl, 2012). Parents, local chiefs, and other members who have roles to play have failed to involve themselves in the affairs of the programme. The DA which is charged with the responsibility of forming DICs has failed to do so. The forming of the DICs would ensure proper supervision of the programme to enhance informed decision. It is not surprising that some DCEs and head teachers take unilateral decisions to make sure that school children are provided with meals (Morgan & Sonnino, 2008).

The above challenges call for the need to engage the beneficiaries and the communities in drafting the public policies making sure there are functional structures to ensure adherence to formal rules in the selection of schools and caterers. There should be involvement of the various stakeholders including the communities in the implementation and monitoring of the

programme. This would tend to reduce the burden on the Government in funding such policies. This is the reason why the participatory development approach framework was employed for the research.

## **2.7 Theoretical framework**

The study used the participatory development approach framework in explaining the SFP from how the programme was designed to implementation of the programme and to the monitoring of the programme. The policy guideline was designed to include the participation of all the stakeholders. This was to ensure the adherence to formal rules in resource distribution to benefit the schools and the community. GSFP is a public policy and the implementation should involve the various stakeholders to ensure the success and sustainability of the programme as embedded in the policy guideline. The study looked at the participatory approaches by Deshler and Stock (1985), White (1996) and Cohen and Uphoff (1980). After examining all three approaches, the dimension of rural development participation by Cohen and Uphoff was used to explain most of the objectives of this study.

The participatory development approach promises ambitious effects where participation is crucial to the success of policies and can transform development as well as empower poor rural people. The ostensible numbers of benefits of participation are many and ranges from planner-centered to people-centered benefits. Planner-centered effects largely focus on financial and administrative competence. Analyzing from the planner's viewpoint, it is gathered that the motivation for accepted participation is that for policies to succeed or likely to meet their objectives there should be beneficiary involvement. Local people tend to be more committed to a particular project's success if they are allowed to participate actively in the project planning and its implementation (Moser, 1987)

Participation also facilitates local people's approval of new policies or projects and technologies that are promoted by outsiders. Through beneficiary or community participation, the knowledge of the indigenes can be utilized as well as local or community labour, in-kind and financial contributions can reduce the costs of the project or policy implementation (Scheler, 1996)

Participation of major stakeholders in the planning stage of a programme or project is likely to attract financial support and commitment of various stakeholders in the implementation. The participatory approach implies that in the planning of such developmental projects or programmes such as the GSFP, the community members should be involved, as they seem to know their community better and what the community members want. When they are involved, they are likely to contribute items which would in the long run reduce the implementation costs of the programmes (Deshler and Stock, 1985). In situations where the community members lack resources to support, they feel more committed because the programme will help improve their local economy.

Taking the SFP into this context, involving the community members at the planning stage would generate benefit such as local voluntary labor, local materials for the building of kitchens, local provision of water where there is none in the beneficiary school, cooking utensils and the provision of firewood and store rooms for the safe keeping of the cooking utensils. This would provide a much broader understanding or knowledge of the programme and what it seeks to achieve as well as the benefits the local people would get from the programme. Such programmes in the long run improve the economic status and the quality of life of the local indigenes.

Positioned at the conversion point between planner and people-centered benefits is the idea that participation in effect would rescue the development industry or ministry from being just top-down, dependency-creating and paternalistic. DeLeon and Deleon (2001) point out that in the top-down approach of policy implementation, there are standards set which may not be understood by the citizens. Top-down implementation approach fails to consider the significance of actions taken earlier in the policy-making process (Matland, 1995, 147). Whereas with the bottom-up implementation approach, it begins the implementation strategy formation with the beneficiary schools, community and caterers, because the target groups are seen as the actual implementers of policy (Matland, 1995, 146). Bottom-up approach also contend that if implementers or stakeholders are not allowed discretion in the implementation process with respect to local conditions, then the policy will “likely fail” (Matland, 1995, 148). This in turn helps diligent development practitioners to feel better about their own intervention, but also it actually shifts the focus from just the interests of the development practitioners or professionals to the said beneficiaries of the programme or project. With respect to the people centered viewpoint, participation is said to be both a means and an end in itself.

It is a means that meets the local felt needs and also reallocates scarce resources, but it also has an intrinsic value as a process which empowers the poor local people by improving local management ability, growing confidence in the potential indigenes, and raising communal consciousness.

Participation’s diversity of meanings and its uses is widely known in the literature that so many scholars have developed several classification systems of the types of participation. Deshler and Sock’s (1985) typology (Table 1), just like many other typologies, clearly brings

to light the importance or benefits of the relative influence of outsiders and local beneficiaries as a main feature or characteristic in their definition of participation.

The types of participation according to Deshler and Stock (1985) are genuine participation and Pseudo Participation

**Table 1: Types of Participation**

I. Genuine Participation	A. Empowerment	i. Citizen control
	B. Cooperation	i. Delegated power ii. Partnership
II. Pseudo Participation	A. Assistencialism	i. Placation ii. Consultation
	B. Domestication	i. Informing ii. Therapy iii. Manipulation

Source: Deshler and Sock (1985).

The scheme Deshler and Stock (1985) used for the analyses of the different stages of participation is based on a scale which measures the extent of control or power, ranging from genuine participation in which the participants or beneficiaries are empowered by having control or power over programme or policy and management to pseudo participation which is the manipulation of beneficiaries by development practitioners to meet the needs of the elites.

In a different classification system, White (1996) also further outlines four different types of participation (Table 2). The types are Nominal, Instrumental, Representative and Transformative.

Nominal participation is most at times, used by more influential actors to give legitimacy to development policies. It is through a desire for inclusion that less powerful actors get involved in it. Instrumental participation sees community participation as a means towards a specified end. This often occurs with the efficient use of the skills and knowledge of community members in policy implementation.

Representative participation involves giving community members the opportunity to add their voice to the decision making and implementation of policies they would benefit from.

Transformative participation on the other hand leads to empowering the beneficiaries involved and as a result improves the formal structures and institutions that lead to marginalisation and exclusion (White, 1996).

Each type is said to be characterized by the contradictory interests of the various stakeholders. Planners of the programme are known here as having the top-down interests as against the bottom-up interests of programme beneficiaries. Participation therefore ranges from nominal to transformative.

**Table 2: Forms of Participatory Approach**

<b>Form</b>	<b>Top-Down</b>	<b>Bottom-Up</b>	<b>Function</b>
Nominal	Legitimation	Inclusion	Display
Instrumental	Efficiency	Cost	Means
Representative	Sustainability	Leverage	Voice
Transformative	Empowerment	Empowerment	Means/End

Source: White (1996).

The classification of White (1996) is vital because it demonstrates the different expectations of the various stakeholders of participation in development programmes. At each of the first three stages, both planners and beneficiaries are seen to employ simultaneously different definitions of participation. It is only at the critical stage (transformative), that both groups of stakeholders are seen as being interested in the empowerment of beneficiaries.

Cohen and Uphoff's (1980) categorization or classification is much more comprehensive (Table 3) compared to the other two. It has a more functional focus which pays less attention

to theoretical divisions. Cohen and Uphoff not only included the different types of participation but also who participates and how the participation is done.

**Table 3: Dimensions of rural development participation**

Kinds of Participation	participation in decision making, participation in implementation, participation in benefits, participation in evaluation
Who Participates?	local residents local leaders government personnel foreign personnel
How is Participation Occurring?	basis of participation form of participation extent of participation effect of participation

Source: Cohen and Uphoff (1980).

The various types of participation are structured with regard to the phases in the programme cycle, although the phases are not necessarily in order, the kinds of participation include: participation in decision making, participation in implementation, participation in benefits and participation in evaluation. The “who” aspect divides the various actors involved into: local residents, local leaders, government personnel, and foreign personnel. The “how” dimension on the other hand describes the diverse mechanisms by which participation can occur and it includes its basis, form, extent and its impact of participation.

The subsequent analysis of participation in a community development programme and in this study the GSFP refers to the labels and types discussed in these categorization, which includes the people-centered and planner-centered effects of participation. The rural development approach by Cohen and Uphoff (1980) explains most of the objectives of the study. The study looks at how the rural community is involved in the decision making of selecting the schools and caterers for the GSFP specifically in the Birim South District. The formal organizational structure is in place at the district level to ensure the formation of subsequent ones at the school level and to enhance and improve community participation in the

decision on adherence to the selection of schools and caterers and the extent to which they participate. It also looks at how the local community is encouraged to participate in the implementation of the programme and how the food for the programme are purchased from the local farmers to improve and enhance their economic status which would in the end benefit the society as a whole. When these are achieved, it is expected to improve the adherence to policy guidelines in the selection of schools and caterers, and have effective formal organizational structure that will manage the programme at the District level. Engaging the community members in decision making will help improve the economic status of the local economy and hence reduce poverty in the area.

**Table 4: Dimensions of rural development participation**

Kinds of Participation	participation in decision making participation in implementation participation in benefits participation in evaluation
Who Participates?	local residents local leaders government personnel foreign personnel
How is Participation Occurring?	basis of participation form of participation extent of participation effect of participation

Source: Cohen and Uphoff (1980).

## 2.8 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter reviewed works done by other researchers. It discussed the concepts of Institution, Public Policy and effective Implementation and further discussed the history of the GSFP in other countries and how it came to Ghana. Some challenges facing the implementation were also discussed as well as the roles and responsibilities of the key actors of the programme. A major cause to the problems faced by the programme gave rise to the use of the participatory development approach framework which explained how the community members should be engaged in the designing of the programme as well as in its

implementation to ensure their full participation and commitment towards the success of the programme.



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the methodological considerations employed in collecting and analyzing data. It covers the research design, sources of data, study population, sampling procedures, sampling size, limitations, and instruments, techniques in data processing and analysis and ethical considerations.

#### **3.1 Research design**

Case study design was used in carrying out this study. Research design is the specific strategy the researcher employs in collecting, analyzing and reporting the research. According to Amedahe (2002), research design refers to the overall plan for obtaining answers to research questions or testing research hypotheses. A research design guides a researcher to gather and analyze data in certain ways that will determine who and what are to be studied (Herriott & Firestone, 1987). Case study allows one to do data collection and analysis together (Yin, 2004). It also allows for an in-depth interviews and analysis of documents (Yin, 2009).

Case study design allows for interview with respondents in their natural setting and also allows to probe further into the issue at hand. In this study, the Birim South District was used as a case study. It is a rural forest area with most of the indigenes being farmers. It was deemed appropriate for this study because it allowed for an in-depth interview with the key officials at the DA, District Education and the head teachers of the beneficiary schools. It also gave the respondents the opportunity to critically express their concerns on how the formal rules for the selection of the schools were not adhered to because they were being influenced by politics.

### **3.2 Research approach**

The interpretivist paradigm within the qualitative research approach was used for the purposes of this study. According to Patton (2002), qualitative research is a process of naturalistic inquiry that seeks in-depth understanding of social phenomena within their natural setting. It focuses on the “what” rather than “why” of social phenomena and relies on the direct experiences of human being as meaning making agents in their everyday lives.

Qualitative method is more effective when dealing with interactions and relationships which provides a deeper understanding of a particular phenomenon (Boateng, 2014; Kaplan & Maxwell 1994). The phenomenon of interest is examined in its natural settings and from the perspective of the participants without the researchers imposing their outsiders’ a priori understanding on the situation (Creswell, 2012). According to Newman (2011), the qualitative research design may be exploratory, explanatory, descriptive or participatory.

This study used exploratory and observatory research design. These approaches were found appropriate for the study because, as observed by Creswell (2009), it offers the researcher the opportunity to get the opinions of the population concerning issues of interest and relevance to the study. Furthermore, these approaches aided in an in-depth understanding of how the criteria was being adhered to and how the various stakeholders were involved in the selection process.

### **3.3 Sources of Data**

The study used both primary and secondary data. The primary data were obtained from interviews with respondents from the Schools, the DA and the District Education office. Secondary data on the programme and the schools within the district were also obtained from the National school feeding secretariat, the statistical Office, District Education Office and

the DA. The Balm Library of the University of Ghana provided journals and articles which were used extensively at various stages of the study.

### **3.4 Study population**

A study population is the collection of individuals, items and measurements about which it is required to make inferences (Cochran, 1997). In the words of Burns and Grove (2011), the study population refers to the total respondents that meet the designated set of criteria. The population of this study was all beneficiary schools under the GSFP in the Birim South District. The population consists of head teachers and caterers from the 23 beneficiary schools, representatives from the DA, the official at the District Education Officers and the representatives from the GSFP National Secretariat.

#### **3.4.1 Sampling method**

Sampling according to Boateng (2014) is the process of selecting from a group or population to become the foundation for studying in order to obtain data to address a research problem. In order to obtain an impartial and representative sample for the study and to ensure accurate and reliable information, the appropriate approach was used in selecting the respondents. The study made use of the purposive sampling technique. Zikmund (2003) argues that the purposive sampling technique guarantees the selection of a knowledgeable individual based on the researcher's judgment about some appropriate characteristics required of the sample. Purposive sampling therefore was adopted in selecting the key informants made up of the National secretariat, DCE, Desk Officer, District Director of Education and the various headmasters of the selected schools.

#### **3.4.2 Sample size**

One major decision in the conduct of any research is to decide on the size of the sample that will be representative of the population. In the view of Newman (2011), certain definite

practices among social researchers can be adopted. One such a practice had to do with the relationship between population of a study and the sample that will be representative of that population. The sample size for the study was thirty-three respondents.

### 3.5 Instrumentation

The main instrument used in gathering data was an interview guide with a combination of both structured and unstructured questions. The interview guide was designed based on the objectives of the study. The interview guide was designed to allow for follow up questions when found necessary. It also ensured that the right persons with relevant information would be reached. The researcher also used personal observation as part of its instrumentation. The researcher observed the environment within which the cooking was done. Voice recorders were also used in recording voices during the interviews. Pictures were taken of striking features relevant to the study.

#### 3.5.1 Interviews

Thirty- three interviews were conducted with the respondents for the study. Semi structures questionnaires were used to solicit the views of these respondents. The duration for each session of the interviews was between sixty to eighty minutes. An audio recorder was used to record each session.

**Table 5: respondents for the interview**

<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Number of respondents</b>
Head Teachers	21
District Education Officer	2
Caterers	7
GSFP secretariat	1
District Chief Executive	1
Desk Officer	1
Total	33

Source: Field Work, 2016

### **3.6 Data collection Procedure**

Fieldwork was undertaken between October 2015 and March 2016. Before a visit was made to the SF Secretariat. An introductory letter from the department of Public Administration and Health Services Management of the University of Ghana Business School was sent to the Secretariat in October 2015. At the Secretariat, an appointment was made with the Public Relations Officer to get the list of Schools and caterers specified in the policy. In November 2015, an introductory letter was given permitting a visit to the district and to make any enquiries needed for the study for further stages in the research. A visit was made to the District education office on Wednesday 30<sup>th</sup> of December and was directed to meet the manager at the Administration and Human Resource Management (ADHRM), between the time of 1 and 1:30 pm. A friendly welcome by the receptionist was given and the manager. Since it was during the Christmas break, there was an agreement to reschedule the visit for another meeting after the Christmas holidays with the approval of the respondent.

A visit was made to the District Assembly to meet the Desk Officer but she was not in the office because of the Christmas break. She was then traced her house, where a meeting was scheduled. The Desk Officer gave a welcoming smile and cooperated accordingly.

On the 8<sup>th</sup> of February 2016, an appointment was booked with the desk officer of the Birim South District Assembly. This was to alert the Officer to prompt the various schools selected of the scheduled interview with the head teachers within the next two weeks for the interviews.

In the afternoon of the 8<sup>th</sup> of February, 2016, a focus group discussion was held with the District Director of Education, Director of Human Resources, District Statistician and Public Relations officer of the District Education Directorate. The Statistician took the researcher's

list of schools to cross check with what they had in the GES office to check if they were the same.

On the 14<sup>th</sup> of March, 2016 a letter was obtained, from the District Director of Education introducing and permitting the collection of any needed information from the heads of the selected participating schools. The data obtained was transcribed by the researcher using the approach by Miles and Huberman (1994) and categorized into themes around the objectives of the study. The transcribed data was edited and checked for consistencies. To ensure the quality of the data, cross validation was done by comparing the secondary data from the policy as obtained from the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development; Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection and the Birim South District Assembly with the primary data collected from the field.

### **3.7 Limitations**

The study did not consider the impact of the programme on school enrolment and retention which has captured the centre stage so far in various researches that have been done on the GSFP. This study was interested in the extent of compliance to the policies at the implementation stage. Though the programme is implemented in many different other districts, this study is specifically located within the beneficiary communities in the Birim South District. Due to this limitation generalization from the findings cannot be absolutely made for the entire programme however the findings will serve as lessons for the implementation of the programme in other districts.

### **3.8 Ethical Considerations**

Throughout the field visits the researcher introduced herself as a student with an introductory letter from the school and from both the Birim South District Assembly and the Birim South

District Education Office. The District Director also gave the researcher a letter from her office addressed to all School Heads to assist in the research.

The researcher was aware of the ethical implications so on reaching the various schools. Ethical consent forms were given to the head teachers and caterers who read, understood and signed as well as the letter from the Birim South District Director of Education. A copy was given to them and another retained by the researcher. The researcher explained in detail the nature of the research and assured them it was purely for academic purpose and nothing else. The research was thereby granted permission to do the interview as well do voice recording and take pictures of importance to the study

### **3.9 Study Area**

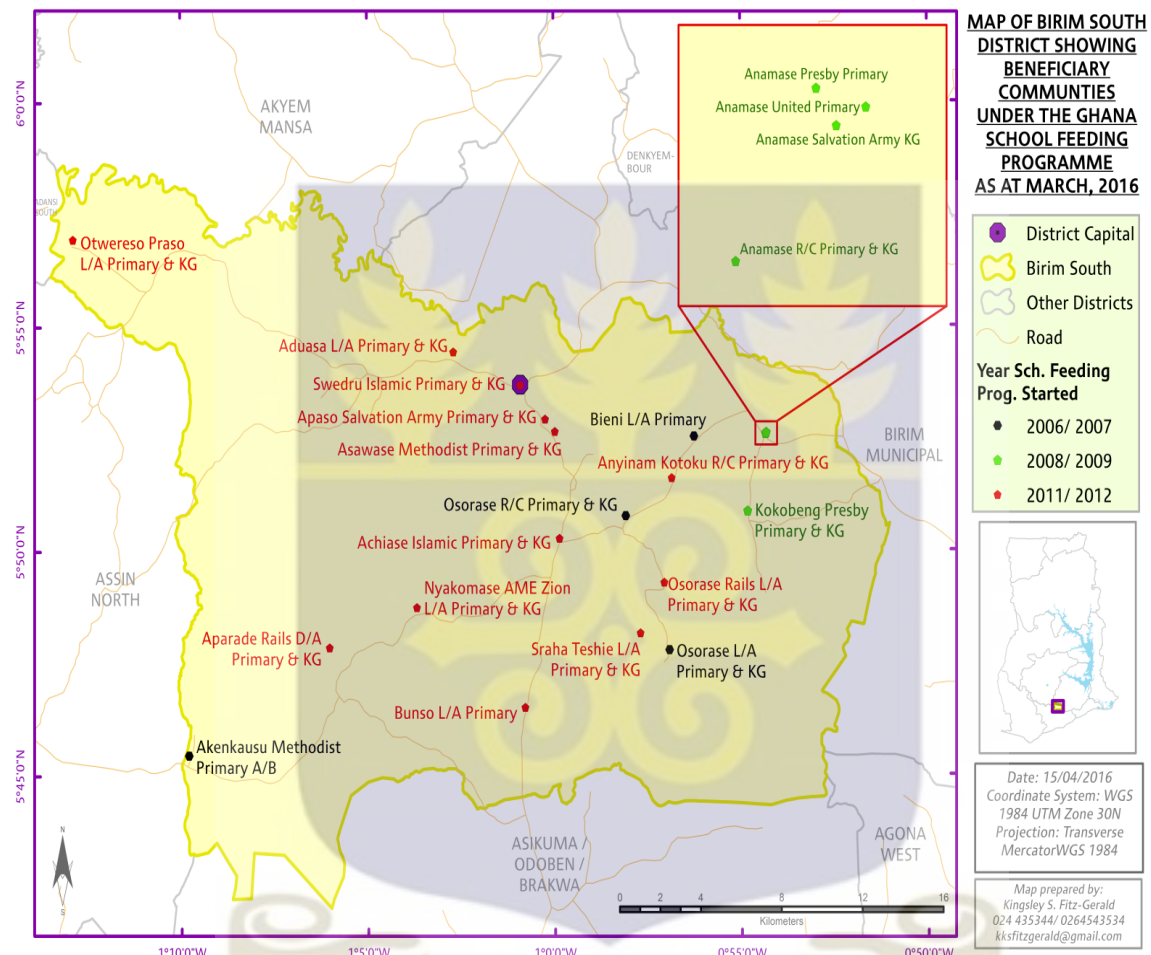
The Eastern Region occupies a land area of 19,323 kilometers and constitutes 8.1 per cent of the total land area of Ghana. It is the sixth largest region in terms of land area. It lies between latitudes 6° and 7° North and between longitudes 130° West and 0° 30° East. The region shares common boundaries with the Greater Accra, Central, Ashanti, Brong Ahafo and Volta Regions.

The Birim South District was carved out of the former Birim South District now Birim Central Municipal. Akim Swedru is the Administrative Capital of the District. The South Birim District shares borders with Birim Central to the north, Asikuma-Odoben-Brakwa to the south, West Akim to the east and to the west with Assin North Municipal. The district has Achiase and Akim Swedru as the main commercial centers with Achiase being the busiest town. Agriculture however, is the rural based sector of the Birim South District Economy.

The recent poverty mapping conducted by the Ghana Statistical Service released in 2015 indicated the Birim South has a total of 117,985 household in the District and the estimated

number of poor persons in the district is 32,505 which also represents about 37.6 percent of the total population in the Birim South District.

**Figure 1: Map of Birim South District Showing Beneficiary Schools**



Source: Map of Birim South District

### 3.10 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter states clearly the methodology approach adopted in carrying out the research. The research design used was exploratory and observatory where the researcher used exploratory to probe further. The study adopted the qualitative approach. Sources of data for the work were primary and secondary data. Twenty-one beneficiary schools within the Birim South District were selected for study. Purposive sampling method were used to select key

personals who have in-depth knowledge on the formulation of the policy as well as monitoring and evaluation modalities embedded in the programme design. Structured and unstructured interview were used for soliciting information from the respondents.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter analyzed the data collected from the field and further discusses the relevant issues based on the objectives of the study and supported by empirical and theoretical literature. The analysis focuses on (i) the formal structures for the governance of the programme; (ii) the extent to which the selection of the schools and caterers were adhered to and (iii) the purchasing of the foodstuff from the local community.

#### **4.1 Creating the actors and Structures for the Governance of the Programme**

This objective examines the extent to which the Birim South District adhered to the policy guidelines in the implementation of the programme and criteria for the selection of both the schools and the caterers.

The GSFP was designed to ensure participation of all major stake holders at all the levels of implementation. The programme manual provides for the establishment at the District level a (DIC).

In the Birim South District there was no formal committee. All activities centered on the District Chief Executive and the subordinate desk officer. Critical departmental officials who were supposed to be members of the committee were not involved in the operation of the programme at the district. No meetings were held to make any decision. The involvement of the District Education Office, for example, is limited to the provision of statistics of schools in the District. They are given a copy of the beneficiary schools after they have been selected

at the District Assembly without their involvement. An official at the District Education Office who is supposed to be a member of the DIC asserted:

*We only get to know of the schools chosen when they send to us a list of selected schools.*

Another official of the Education office stated inter alia:

*They only request from us a list and enrolment figures of the various schools in the District and the only thing we learn is that they send us a list of schools selected.*

The absence of formal DIC was not limited to the district level but also at the community level. All the head teachers claimed that there was no standing School Implementation Committees (SICs). Contrary to the guideline prescribed in the policy for the establishment of an SIC made up of:

1. The Parent Teacher Association (PTA) Representative of the beneficiary school (Chairperson)
2. Head teacher of the school (Secretary)
3. One Representative of the School Management Committee
4. One Traditional Ruler from the Community
5. An Assembly member
6. The Boys and Girls Prefects of the School

Many of the head teachers said their involvement was limited to tasting and recording the food that has been prepared for the day with the girls and boys prefect. One head teacher, when asked what role he performs in ensuring that the right type of food was served, said:

*Our role is limited to asking the boys and girls prefects to taste the food after it has been cooked.*

Asked as to what happens if the food was found not to be of good quality, he said:

*Ah but the food is already cooked so what can we do? We only advice but the caterer is not compelled to accept our advice.*

When asked of the working relationship between the head teachers and the caterers, one head teacher said:

*We do not have any control over the caterers because nobody has given us a mandate to monitor them. All that we were given was a record book in which we record the type of food served and the number of pupils served. We send this record book to the District Assembly at the end of each term.*

Parents and the community are major stakeholders in the provision of education of their children. Thus, all schools have PTAs with membership from the parents and the larger community which ensures participation in the management and running of the respective schools. Management decisions, discipline and funding of projects are shared responsibilities between the state, parents and the members of the community.

The guidelines therefore provide for the inclusion of a representative of the PTA and the unit committee in the SIC. This was intended to avail the community members' full participation in decisions and running of the programme. This was expected to lucid their commitment and contribution for the sustenance of the programme. Thus, the existence of the SIC was crucial for the smooth running and sustenance of the programme. However, the SIC did not exist in most of the schools. Only four (4) had the SICs in their schools. The absence of the SIC in the other seventeen (17) schools is a non-adherence to the policy guidelines which makes

provision for the DIC to have an SIC in the beneficiary schools.. Thus the community was alienated from the running of the programme.

Apart from one community where the head teacher reported that the Assemblyman once a while comes to the school, no community members were involved in the management of the programme. The involvement of the community members was limited to the provision of firewood for their wards to bring to the caterers when the need arise as prescribed by the policy. They were neither consulted nor mandated in the selection of either the schools or caterers. In the policy, the community had the responsibility to provide the caterers with firewood and kitchen. As observed by Moser (1987), the involvement of the community could have ensured ownership and sustainability of the programme. Identifying with the programme would have ensured contribution of foodstuff and other resources for more efficient running of the programme. The community members would have served as checks on the activities of the caterers as they would be particular with the nutrition of their wards (Scheler, 1996).

#### **4.1.1 The Politics of the Selection of Schools**

The criteria for the selection of the schools as per the guidelines were as follows:

- Low school enrolment (attendance and retention especially for girls),
- High drop-out rate,
- Low literacy levels,
- High hunger and vulnerability status,
- Poor access to potable water, and
- High communal spirit/or community management capability

Source: The District Implementation manual (2008: 10)

Three thematic areas were considered; knowledge of the existence of policy on selection of the school; knowledge of how their school was selected; and whether any application was made by the school before they were selected.

The findings of the study show that most of the head teachers were not aware of the existence of the policy and procedure for the selection of the school. Likewise most were not aware of how their schools came to be selected. Those who had some knowledge said they were informed by the Assembly Members that they should present a request at the floor of the Assembly, which they did and were asked to apply. They had to quickly apply for the inclusion of their schools. Thus, for even the 5 who said an application was made before their schools were selected, those applications were made by the Assembly Members and not by the schools themselves. The application made before the schools were selected against the policy guidelines. The policy guideline set out specific criteria that should be used in the selection of schools and only schools that met the criteria. So if an application is made, then it goes contrary to the guidelines and hence a non-adherence to formal rules. One head teacher said:

*I don't know of any criteria, all I know is that the Assembly man applied to the District Assembly. It was his application that got us selected.*

The difficulty that arises is how some schools which are found in the same socio-economic environment in the same communities were selected above others. Political influence was therefore unavoidable. For example schools within communities where the ruling party had political gains were selected. Example, a school intended for children of the Zongo community which was located about three (3) km from the Zongo community was selected while two (2) other schools which were within less than a km radius from the Zongo community were not selected.

#### 4.1.2 Selection of the Caterers

Just as the schools and the communities were not involved in the selection of the beneficiary schools so also were they not involved in the selection of the caterers

The findings of the study show that majority of the head teachers were not aware of how the caterers were selected for their schools. Expressing this sentiment, a head teacher said:

*We are not involved in any way as to who was to cook for the children who have been entrusted in our care. I was here one day when a woman brought cooked food from the house and simply told me she has been asked to cook for the children.*

One caterer when asked if she had any formal training in catering said:

*I have never gone to any catering school but I can cook very well.*

Another caterer also said:

*I stayed with a lady in Koforidua who cooks for people so I learnt it from her.*

Asked if they possessed any health certificate one said:

*I took the job as a contract and employed cooks so all my cooks have the certificate but I don't have it myself.*

Asked if they had prior experience of mass food preparation one caterer said:

*No I haven't cooked for a large number before but my food is very tasty and everyone likes it.*

It is evident from the above responses that the policy guidelines has been flawed and not adhered to. The policy guideline set out the criteria for the selection of the caterers. All caterers were to be capable of cooking food on large scale basis but most of the caterers had

no experience of mass food production. Also all caterers selected were to have in possession health certificates but out of the 21 caterers, only one (1) of them had. Their selection was therefore not based on the set criteria which is a non-adherence to the formal rules for selection.

From the caterers themselves, it was found that 14 of them applied to the District Assembly before they were selected. However 7 did not put in any application.

One Caterer when asked how she was selected said:

*Initially I applied for a job at Zoomlion but I did not get so they told me to take my time because a job opportunity was coming but it is a job that you start with your own money and later receive your money. So they called me later to tell me I had gotten a job, so they asked us to go for training at Koforidua but I could not go for that workshop. Before the workshop we had already started cooking.*

The operations manual requires that caterers should be capable of cooking food on large scale basis under hygienic conditions and should demonstrate basic understanding of the nutritional need of children. Thus, the programme envisioned caterers who have at least basic training in catering. However, the findings of the study show that 18 of them had no formal training in catering nor had any previous experience in cooking for large groups of people. It was also found that 20 of the caterers had no health status certificate which is a requirement for the employment of the caterers by the DAs. These findings suggest that no due diligence was applied in the selection of the caterers which could put the safety of the children at risk.

### 4.1.3 Hygiene and Sanitation

The guidelines provide for the establishment of secure, safe and hygienic kitchen. Two (2) of the kitchens visited were shed erected with four (4) poles without any walls, allowing runoff water during rainfall to run through it carrying with it all kinds of debris and dust contaminating the kitchen. Food was cooked on blocks that have been erected to serve as cooking stove with firewood. It is depicted in the Plates 1 and 2 below:

**Plate 1: The kitchen of a beneficiary school**



Source: (field work, 2016)

**Plate 2: Cooking area of a kitchen of one beneficiary school**



Source: Field work, 2016

Most of the kitchen except one (1) was without a working table and none had any drainage system through which waste water drained out. In one kitchen, an adjoining room which could have served as a store had become a drain where waste water was constantly thrown there making the floor muddy and full of algae. There was no wall separating this room from the main kitchen thus, the transfer of air borne bacteria was eminent. It was obvious that the caterers did not either understand the health implications of the dirty kitchen from where they cooked or just that they did not care about it. One of them said,

*But what is wrong with this place. After all the food when cooked would kill all possible germs. How different are the kitchens of their parents from what we have here? No child had so far reported of any sickness because they ate my food. If the government cares, they should come and build kitchens as they wanted for us. I don't have money to do that. My responsibility is to cook and this is the place given me to cook.*

The policy guideline set out that the working should be washed or scrubbed after the preparation of the food but plate (2) above shows clearly that the water was left stagnant in the kitchen. The guideline also expects that the caterers on a daily basis sweep and wash the floors with hot detergent solution and antiseptic but it is evident that none of these was done in the schools.

The dirty environment for cooking goes contrary to the guidelines which assigns that assigns that role to the DA to collaborate with the communities to put a simple kitchen and store. The absence of the DIC in the District has led to the lack of understanding of the link between a dirty environment and health implications of food cooked in such insanitary environment.

#### **4.1.4 Quality of food**

For lack of regular monitoring and the delay in reimbursing the caterers of monies spent in feeding the children, the caterers seem to pay little concern about the quality of the food served to the children. The Operational manual envisage the serving of at least one adequate and nutritious food meal a day for the children of poor house households. However, the caterers pay little attention to the guidelines on quality of food but cook anything of their choice without any formal menu. Because, the caterers had no prepared menu chart to provide presumably nutritious meals, they nonetheless provide whatever they thought was economical. Thus, quality and quantity of food served was sacrificed for economic gain of the caterers. Caterers explained that they the caterers were forced to provide what they could afford because the amount given to them by the Government per child was grossly inadequate and were paid several months after the service had been rendered. One caterer indicated their frustration when she said,

*“What do you expect us to do? For more than two (2) terms, I have not been reimbursed with funds I used to feed the children. I go to the market to buy foodstuff on credit so I take whatever would be given me”.*

#### **4.2 Impact of the programme on domestic food production and community**

This objective of the study analyses the extent to which the objectives of the programme have been achieved specifically looking at how the programme has been able to tackle the issue of impacting on the markets of the local economy.

Among the immediate objective of the GSFP is the boosting of domestic food production while eventually increasing the incomes of rural poor households. Thus the GSFP was to alleviate rural community poverty through the creation of ready market for domestic food

production. This was to be achieved through of the DAs that were to ensure that caterers as much as possible buy/procure from local farmers and producers.

The National Secretariat was also charged to ensure that the programme provides one hot meal, adequately nutritional meal daily, prepared from locally produced food stuffs to poor school children at basic level in order to strengthen agriculture production in the poorest communities and enhance the capacity of the communities to improve their food security, health and nutritional status and economic base. Thus, the programme has for its intentions and purpose, the aim of linking domestic food production and poverty alleviation in the local economy.

This objective and intentions are in line with the initiative of the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme pillar three (3) of the New partnership for African Development (NEPAD), which seeks to enhance food security and reduce hunger to achieve the United Nations Millennium Development (MDGs) on hunger, poverty and malnutrition. Table 6 shows the types and sources of food prepared in the schools based on interviews with caterers.

Table 6 show that almost all the caterers within the study area cooked food that are not produced within the catchment area but food items purchased outside the various communities. Being a forest area, the regular diet of the community are tubers and plantain but none of these form part of the menu that was served. Again even though there is a major market in the district capital Akyem Swedru, the caterers preferred to go outside the region to the Central Region for the procurement of the food stuff citing price advantage as reason. The situation implies that the implementation of the programme fell short of adherence to the guideline that sought to promote the procurement of locally produced food items in order not to engender rural household wealth creation and poverty reduction.

**Table 6: Types and sources of food served in the schools**

Type of food	Major Ingredients	Main Production Area	Market of purchase
Waakye	Rice, Beans	Northern Region	Agona Swedru
Banku	Maize	Techiman	Agona Swedru
Rice and Stew	Rice,tomatoes,oil	Navrongo	Agona Swedru
Gari and beans	Gari,beans,palmoil	Northern Region	Techiman
Omotuo and Groundnut soup	Rice, groundnut paste,pepper	Navrongo	Agona Swedru

Source: Field work, 2016

The programme could not link their activities with the few farmers who grew maize, rice and beans in the district. The caterers preferred to procure those items from the commercial market of Agona Swedru, where largely food items grown in the Northern regions and Techiman were sold. Rice used by the caterers was largely imported rice while local rice was produced in some parts of the district. Buying from the local farmers would have created market opportunity for the local farmers to encourage them to expand their production, and thus eventually enlarge the economy of the district. The programme therefore is not having much impact on the market of the local economy.

#### **4.3. Monitoring**

Monitoring is the process of checking actual implementation practices with stated and planned policies. This objective of the research analysis the extent to which monitoring of the programme is done as embedded in the programme design with respect to the community members and the District Assembly.

The findings of the study show that almost all the head teachers (17) felt the Assembly did not visit the schools and caterers on regular basis and that they came only when there was a reported problem. The situation had given the caterers an opportunity to decide to cook whenever and whatever they had without informing the head teachers. Lack of mandate to head teachers for the control of the caterers had led some of the caterers to cook whatever foodstuffs they had and stop cooking when they did not have any without informing.

One head teacher visited only got to know that the caterer was not cooking that day only when the researcher asked his permissions to see the caterer and went together to the kitchen around 11.30 am when the days meal should have been getting ready .He stressed,

*This is what goes on. When they are not cooking they will not tell anybody.*

*Imagine some children come to school on an empty stomach expecting to have some food during the break only to be told there is no food. This is just not good but that is how we have been made to look in the eyes of the public.*

Some of the head teachers said their only responsibility is to record the type of food and number of children served on any particular day. They do so in a small book they send to the District Assembly at the end of each month. Ostensibly the record is just to determine how much should be paid to a caterer for the month. Asked about what happens if something goes wrong with the caterers. One head teacher said

*We solve them when problems come to our notice, so more or less we have*

*become crisis managers*

The desk officer was the only official who was mandated to go round all the schools participating in the programme. The desk officer paid visits to a school only when a

complaint had been made to her outfit. The desk officer cited lack of a vehicle and other logistics as the reason for her inability to pay regular monitoring visits. Though the District Education Office had circuit supervisors, most of the head teachers felt the District Education Office was not involved in the monitoring of the programme.

The findings suggest that implementation process does not have strong monitoring system to ensure that service providers deliver on quality. This seems to be embedded in the weak institutional system of the programme at the implementation stage in the district. Caterers are made to use their own funds to pre-finance their services and later reimbursed. But the time lap between service delivery and reimbursement is very wide. The caterers are reimbursed sometime after several months of delivering the service. Delay in releasing funds to reimburse the caterers of their expenses gives them opportunity to justify the poor delivery of service. Also the lack of formal mandate to the head teachers who are on the spot to monitor the caterers does not give them the needed authority to hold caterers to check if they do not deliver quality service. Some caterers may disregard the head teachers with impunity knowing that the head teachers do not have authority over them in anyway.

#### **4.4 Chapter Conclusion**

It was gathered from the field that in relation to how the DA's adhered to the criteria for the selection of the schools and the caterers were not adhered to fully and this was attributed to political interference. In relation to how the programme has impacted on the local economy, it was gathered that the community members themselves have been sidelined in the programme and the food was also not purchased from the local farmers as stated in the policy guideline. The last objective looked at the monitoring at the school level and from the data gathered it can be concluded as having weak monitoring system.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.0 Introduction

The study compared the policy criteria for the selection of beneficiary schools and caterers and actual implementation practices. The chapter also summarizes the key findings, makes recommendations for policy implementation and areas for further research and concludes the study.

#### 5.1 Summary

The main objectives of the study were to explore to what extent the stakeholders of the GSFP adhered to the criteria for the selection of beneficiary schools and caterers, the challenges encountered by the GSFP in ensuring adherence to the criteria for the selection of beneficiary schools and caterers and assess the effectiveness of the monitoring procedures in place at the Birim South District Assembly. The study used the explorative and descriptive research design. The study was carried out in twenty-one out of the twenty-three participating schools in the District. The fieldwork was done soon after the schools had returned from the Christmas break. Prior to the visit to the schools the researcher had interacted with the DCE, the GSFP desk officer at the district, the District Education Officers, the officers at the National Secretariat. The study employed a combination of different methods in gathering the primary data. These included; one-on-one interview with the DCE, desk officer, caterers and the head teachers; interview with staff of the district education office; and questionnaire with the officers of the National Secretariat. Observations were also made in considering the preparation of the food and kitchen settings. The data were analyzed using interpretivist approach to make inferences from the views and interpretations of the people who were the stakeholders in the programme. A thematic analysis was also done on the interviews and

documents based on the objectives of the study. The operations manual was used as check list. The key findings of the study grouped under the respective objectives were:

1. Involvement of key stakeholders in implementation of policy

- i. There were no formal DICs and SICs in most of the schools.
- ii. Most of the head teachers were not aware of the policy and procedure for the selection of schools.
- iii. Most of the head teachers did not make any formal application before their schools were selected.
- iv. Some of the caterers did not apply for their appointments.
- v. Most of the caterers did not have any formal training in catering.
- vi. Most of the caterers did not have any previous experience in cooking for a large number.
- vii. Most of the caterers did not have any health certificate.
- viii. The selection of the schools and caterers was largely political.

2. Impact of the Ghana School Feeding Programme on the local markets of beneficiary communities

- i. All the caterers fed the children on foodstuffs not staple food of the communities.
- ii. All the caterers bought their foodstuffs from outside the communities.

3. Monitoring procedures of the Ghana School Feeding Programme in the Birim South District.

- i. The majority of the head teachers felt there was no monitoring from the District Assembly.
- ii. There were no regular visits by the DA.

- iii. The community members were not involved in the monitoring.
- iv. District Education Office was not involved in the monitoring of the programme.

## **5.2 Recommendations**

Based on the findings the study makes the following recommendations for the improvement in the implementation of the programme in the Birim South District.

- i. The District Assembly as a matter of urgency should constitute an active and all inclusive District Implementation Committee as enshrined in the Operations Manual.
- ii. The School Implementation Committees should also be constituted in all the participating schools as enshrined in the operations manual.
- iii. Official appointment letters must be issued to the Head teachers to mandate them to be the overseers of the programme in their respective schools and be made to supervise and send written qualitative report on the activities of the caterers.
- iv. Periodic seminars and training programmes should be organized for the caterers to upgrade their knowledge on nutrition and sanitation.
- v. Stakeholder meetings should be held regularly at the community level to update community members of the activities of the programme to solicit their support for the sustainability of the programme in their communities.
- vi. Payments for the services of the caterers should be routed through the District Assemblies to ensure accountability of the caterers to the Assemblies

For further research, these areas can be looked at:

Other research can look at the academic performance of beneficiary schools and non-beneficiary schools to find out if the feeding programme has been able to enhance the cognitive abilities of pupils in the Birim South District.

### 5.3 Conclusions of the study

As observed by Moser, (1987) the involvement of the various stakeholders could have ensured ownership and sustainability of the programme. Identifying with the programme would have ensured contribution of foodstuff and other resources for more efficient running of the programme. The community members would have served as checks on the activities of the caterers as they would be particular with the nutrition of their wards. (Scheler, 1996).

- i. The exclusion of the community members has cost the GSFP their commitment and contribution for the sustenance of the programme.
- ii. The programme centering around the District Executive is opened to cronyism and unnecessary political interference
- iii. . The programme has so far not established any link with local production and therefore has not had any impact on the domestic economy to link the programme to the local food producers.
- iv. The quality and quantity of food served by the caterers does not meet the policy requirement.
- v. The programme is not imparting the nutritional status of the children
- vi. The poor sanitary environment from which the food is prepared is inimical to the health of the children
- vii. The lack of health screening and certification of the caterers has the potential of spreading communicable diseases among a mass of children if any of the caterers was affected.
- viii. The pre-financing arrangement for the caterers to use their own resources and the attendant delays in reimbursement is affecting the sustainability of the programme and threatens the quality and quantity of meals served the children.
- ix. The programme lacks effective institutional arrangement for effective monitoring

of the programme in the district

- x. Because the community was alienated from the programme, they could not serve as checks on the caterers
- xi. Caterers sacrifice quality and quantity of the food for their economic gain. This was made possible as a result of the absence of effective monitoring of the caterers.

In conclusion the study set out to look at how the policy was implemented in the Birim South District, it also looked at how it has been able to impact on the income or economy of the local people and finally how monitoring is done at the school level to ensure sustainability of the programme. It was realized that there was a weak adherence to the selection criteria for both the schools and the caterers largely because of political interference. In relation to how it has impacted on the local economy, it was weak because instead of engaging the community and the major stakeholders of the programme, they were sidelined. This has led to the non-commitment of the community to the programme. Food items used in the preparation of the food were not purchased from the local farmers which are in contrast to what the policy guidelines set out. Though the schools in the community are benefiting from the programme, the indigenes of the community have not had any direct impact from the programme where the programme was to create ready market for their farm produce, to encourage them extend and enlarge their farm to create wealth which would circulate and stay within the community. This in turn would have alleviated or reduced the poverty level in the District to achieve the MDG goal of eradicating extreme hunger and poverty and boosting domestic food production.

Proper monitoring was not done in the District because major stakeholders were not given the mandate to do so. It has however been recommended to engage the community and the various stakeholders at all the stages in the process to enable them have commitment towards

the programme and hence the sustainability of the School Feeding Programme in the Birim South District of the Eastern Region of Ghana.



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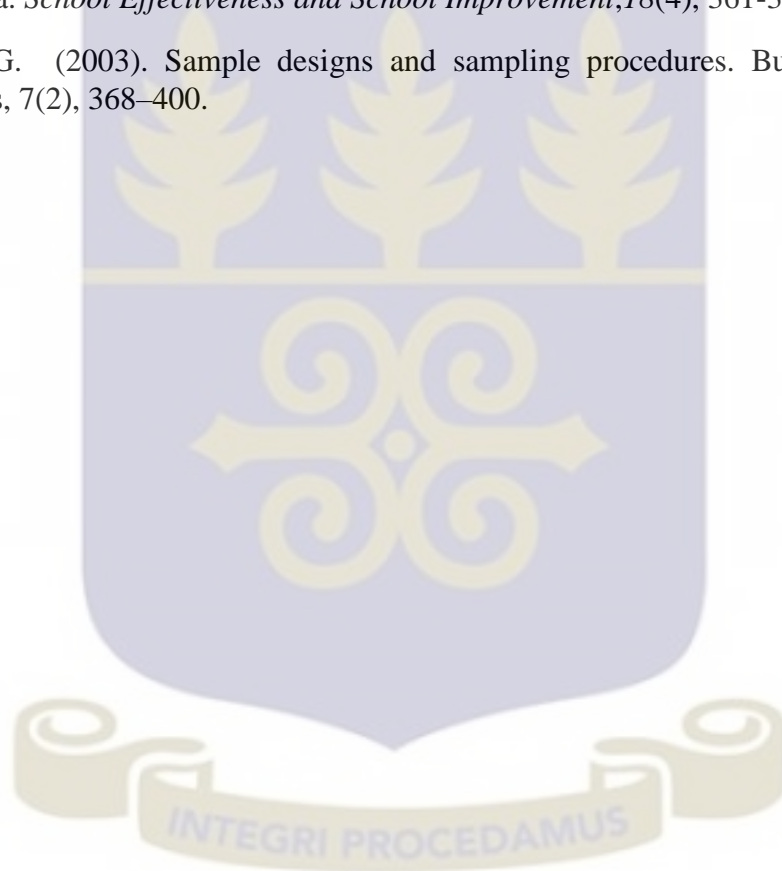
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## APPENDIX 1

### Questionnaire for school feeding

#### Criteria for selection

1. Are there any criteria for selecting beneficiary schools?
2. What are the criteria if there are?
3. What informed the formulation of the specific criteria?
4. Who were involved in the formulation?
5. Are the criteria made known to all stakeholders?
6. What monitoring mechanisms are in place for adherence to the criteria?
7. Who is responsible to monitor adherence to the selection criteria?

#### Implementation Modalities

8. Who are involved in the selection of the beneficiary schools?
9. To what extent are the criteria adhered to?
10. What are the measuring indicators of the criteria for selecting a particular school?
11. How are the caterers selected?
12. Who are involved in the selection of the caterers?
13. What are the processes for the selection of the caterers?
14. What are the requirements for a caterer to be selected?
15. Are the caterers trained or given any form of orientation?
16. What are the sources of funding at the district and local levels?
17. At what stages are the communities involved in the selection of the caterers?
18. What contributions are expected from the communities for the running of the programme?

19. What are the sources of the foodstuff used?
20. Is the staple food of the community used in the preparation of the menu?

### **Monitoring and Evaluation**

21. What body at the district level is responsible for the running of the programme?
22. What is the rank or position of the person chairing the body?
23. Are there community level committees?
24. What is the composition of the district and local level committees
25. To whom are the caterers responsible?
26. What are the indicators for monitoring and evaluation
27. What happens if a selected school falls out of any of the criteria?
28. To what extent are the local communities involved in monitoring?
29. Which officers are responsible for the day to day monitoring of the programme?
30. At what intervals are reports demanded by the district and local level communities?
31. Who prepares the reports?
32. How are the reports used?
33. How often is the programme evaluated?
34. Which body does the evaluation?
35. Who appoints the evaluators?
36. Who reviews the evaluation report?
37. How is the report used?

## APPENDIX 2

### Questionnaire for the National Secretariat

#### NATIONAL SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMMEME SECRETARIAT

1. What criteria is used to select beneficiary Schools?
2. What is the role of the Secretariat in the selection of beneficiary schools?
3. To what extent is the Ghana Education Service involved in the selection of beneficiary schools?
4. What administrative structures have been created at the national and local levels to ensure the selection of only schools that meet the criteria?
5. How strong is the influence of politicians in the selection of beneficiary schools a problem?
6. What steps have been taken by the Ministry to reduce the influence of political considerations in the selection of beneficiary schools?
7. What are the challenges faced by the Ministry so far in managing the programme?



### APPENDIX 3

#### Ethical Consent Form

#### UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

#### DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND HEALTH SERVICES

#### MANAGEMENT (DPAHSM)

#### Research Ethics Form 1A: Informed Consent Form for Research Participants

**Introduction**

My Name is ..... I am a final year student of the University of Ghana Business School (*please see below for my student ID card details*). I humbly seek your knowledge on issues of ....., for the purpose of writing a thesis for the award of the.....degree. You have been selected for interview because your functions/activities of your organization are considered relevant to the study.

**Research Title:**.....

**Researcher's obligation to protect the identity of research respondents:** The information collected will be used only for academic purposes. If I willfully use the information for any other purpose without your approval or consent I am solely liable for any legal redress.

**Research Participants Consent (Tick N/A where it is Not Applicable)**

**Subject to confidentiality agreements** (specified below in CA1-4), please indicate below how you wish to participate in the research (*please tick as appropriate*):

- |      |                                 |         |        |         |
|------|---------------------------------|---------|--------|---------|
| i.   | Consent to fill questionnaire.  | (a) Yes | (b) No | (c) N/A |
| ii.  | Consent to grant an interview.  | (a) Yes | (b) No | (c) N/A |
| iii. | Consent to record the interview | (a) Yes | (b) No | (c) N/A |

**Confidentiality Agreements**

CA1. *In the course of the interview if you would like to make a comment that should be off the record or be treated as confidential please say so.*

CA2. *Except for comments made under confidentiality agreement, I shall quote relevant portions of the interview to support my research findings.*

- a. Yes      b. No

CA3. *Except for documented information given under confidentiality agreement, I shall quote relevant portions of documents that you have given me to support my research findings.*

- (a). Yes      (b). No

CA4. You have the right to withdraw from the interview at any time.

**Custody of Informed Consent Form**

*For future reference, a research participant shall have custody of the signed informed consent form and the researcher shall also keep a photocopy where possible.*

**Preferred Interview Date and Time:** .....

Name of research participant: **(Optional)**.....

Signature:.....

Date:.....

Name of your Ministry/organization/Business:.....

Position in the organization:.....

**Researcher's Contact Information and Signature**

**Name:**.....

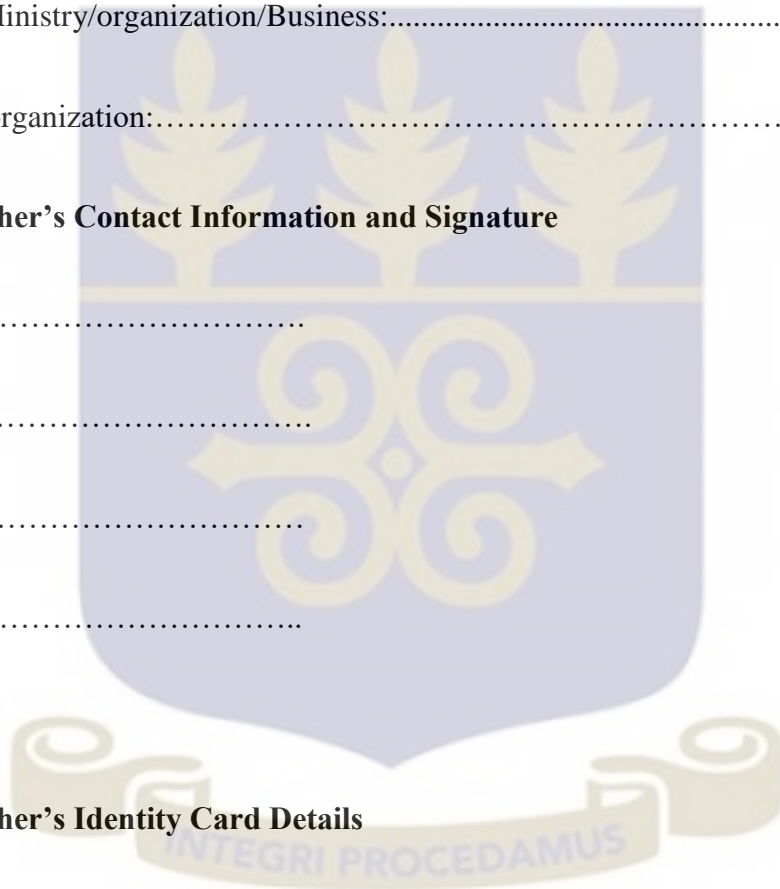
**Email:** .....

**Telephone:** .....

**Signature:**.....

**Researcher's Identity Card Details**

Provided below a photocopy of student ID card




## APPENDIX 4

### Introductory Letter from the Birim South District Assembly

**GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE**

In case of reply the number and date of this letter should be quoted  
Tel. Tel. 0342099779  
My Ref. No: GES/ER/AKS  
Your Ref. No.....

  
REPUBLIC OF GHANA

DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICE  
BIRIM SOUTH  
P. O. BOX 87  
AKIM SWEDRU  
14<sup>TH</sup> MARCH, 2016.

**ALL HEADS OF  
SCHOOL FEEDING SCHOOLS  
BIRIM SOUTH.**

**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION**

The bearer of this note, Ms. Bertha Sethlina Effa Adu-Okoree is a final year student of the University of Ghana Business School, Legon. She is undertaking a course leading to the award of MPhill Administration.

As part of the requirements of the programme, she has chosen to research on the topic:  
Assessment of the Ghana School Feeding Programme in achieving its objectives.

I would therefore be most grateful if you could give her the necessary assistance to facilitate her data collection.

.....  
**STELLA DOGBER (MAD)**  
DISTRICT DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION  
BIRIM SOUTH, AKIM SWEDRU

**DISTRICT DIRECTOR  
GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE  
BIRIM SOUTH DISTRICT**