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KUMASI**

**INSTITUTE OF DISTANCE LEARNING (IDL)**

**KNUST**

**FACTORS AFFECTING IMPLEMENTATION OF SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME  
IN HO MUNICIPAL ASSEMBLY, VOLTA REGION**

**BY**

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**This thesis is submitted to the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology,  
Kumasi in partial fulfillment of the requirement for award of the  
Master of Philosophy degree in Political Science**

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**DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that, this thesis is a research conducted by myself through my hard work and perseverance under the supervision of Dr. George M. Bob-Milliar towards the award of the Master of Philosophy in Political Science and no part of it has been presented for another degree in this or any university.

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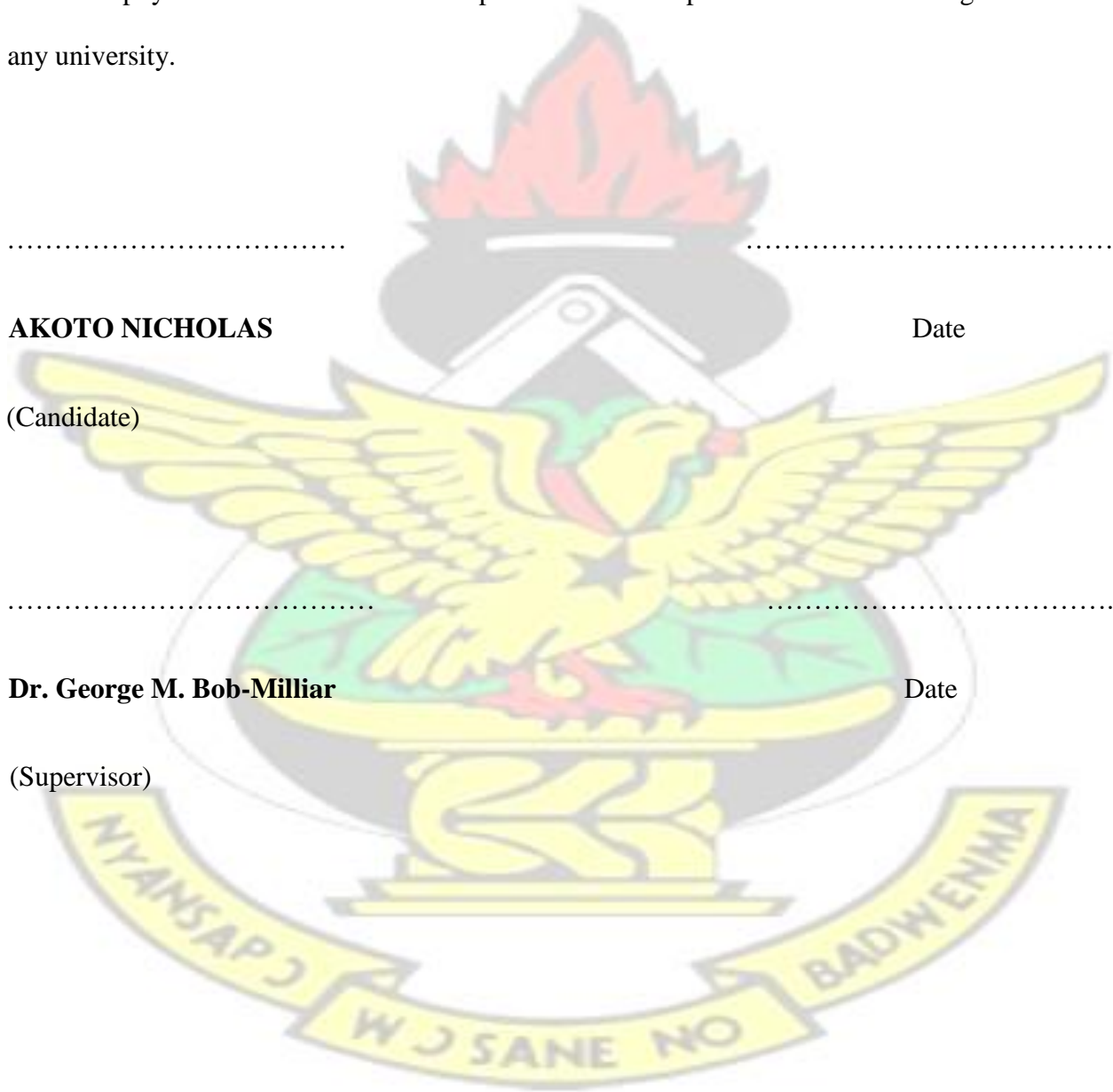
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## ABSTRACT

Social policies are lunched in education sector in Ghana in other to boost educational status of the country. In other to make the dream of providing Free Universal Basic Education a reality, Government of Ghana has introduced the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) in 2005 to increase enrolment, retention and nutrition status of public primary school pupils from disadvantaged areas in the country. The study sought to examine factors affecting the implementation of the SFP in Ho Municipal Assembly. The study was directed by research questions on impacts of SFP on pupils, monitoring and supervision of SFP, community participation in SFP, funding of SFP, challenges and solutions to the implementation of the SFP.

Descriptive research design was used by the researcher for the study and both probability and non-probability methods of sampling were used for selecting sixty-nine (69) respondents for this research. Qualitative data was gathered by using interview guide which was edited by the University supervisor for its validity and pre-tested for reliability. Data gathered were classified by the researcher into categories or themes and sub-themes and thorough discussions and analysis of the content was done and presented. The findings of the study established that, there are positive impacts of SFP on pupils, government funds the SFP in beneficiary schools, there is lack of supportive infrastructure and materials for the implementation of the SFP. The study highlighted that, there is low community participation, poor linkages between farmers and the SFP. The study recommended that, SIC should be formed in schools to ensure mobilization of support and community participation in beneficiary schools. Municipals/ District Assemblies, donors and beneficiary communities should help the government in implementation of the SFP.

## DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my supportive siblings, Hammond Akoto, Patience Akoto, Fred Akoto, Comfort Edem Foli and my dear mother Grace Awoyo Dzade for their influence in my academic life.



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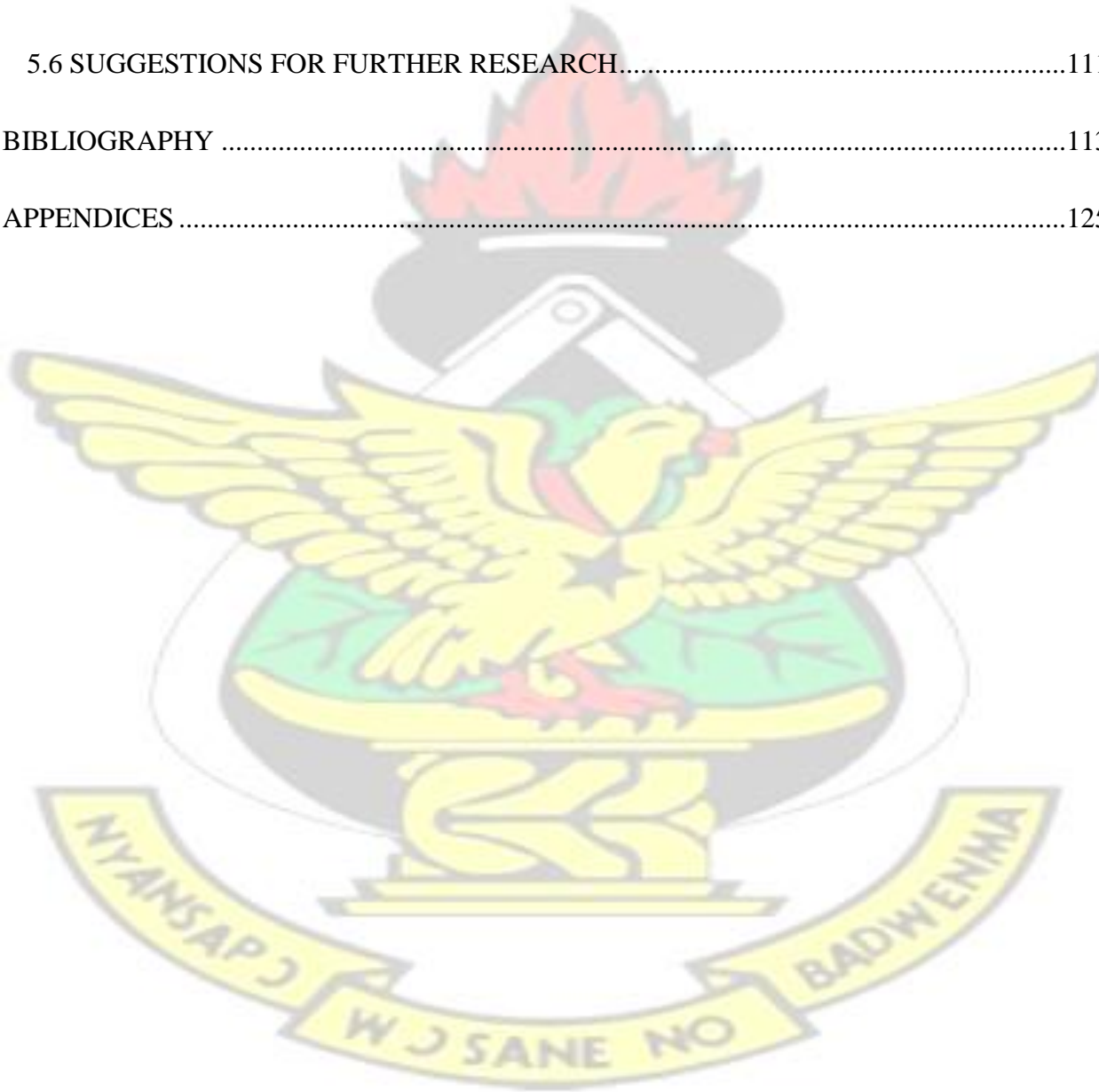
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## LIST OF ACRONYMS



BESIP	Basic Education Sector Improvement Programme
CAADP	Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Programme
CRS	Catholic Relief Services
DIC	District Implementation Committee
ECD	Early Childhood Development
FCUBE Free	Compulsory Universal Basic Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GoG	Government of Ghana
GPRS	Ghana Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy
GSFP	Ghana School Feeding Programme
HGSFP	Home-Grown School Feeding Programme
LEAP	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MLGRDE	Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development
MOFA	Ministry of Food and Agriculture
MoGCSP	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection
MOH	Ministry of Health

NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NHIS	National Health Insurance Scheme
NSLP	National School Lunch Programme
NSPS	National Social Protection Strategy PCD
Partnership for Child Development	
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
SAP	Structural Adjustment Plan
SFP	School Feeding Programme
SFP	School Feeding Programme
SIC	School Implementation Committee
SMC	School Management Committee
UNDP	United Nation Development Programme
UNHTF	United Nations Hunger Task Force
UNICEF	United Nation International Children Education Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WFP	World Food Programme

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Alcock (2003) defined social policy as the improvement in the well-being, social administration and strategies of the government used for public safeguard. Societal policies are implemented across the globe to protect vulnerable individuals and entire populace in both developed and developing countries to boost development and standard of living of citizens (Cirillo and Tebaldi, 2016).

Cypher and Dietze (2009) were in the view that, low level of development results into situations like low level of formal education and high death rate, hence developing states have to advance in the provision of universal basic education and public health facilities and healthiness amenities. There exist government policies since 1980s in Ghana, meant to improve education system management in Ghana. Some steps to ensure improvement are the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) programme and Capitation Grant (GSFS, 2016).

Children at school going age around the globe get access to education avenues but there is more to be done because of the huge number of children still yet to be enrolled. Nearly 56 million children of school going-age at the primary level and 63 million adolescents are yet to be in school. It is estimated that 250 million children around the globe can neither read, write nor do simple mathematics and whiles 130 million of children of school going-age have access to education and are enrolled (UNICEF, 2015). The data presented on global education indicated that, as at 2011,

58 million children of school going-age were still denied their liberty to education (UNICEF, 2015). It is estimated that, 50,000 children are not in school in Ghana (UNICEF, 2015). This influenced the National Enrolment Rate (NER) in primary schools in Ghana to peg on 89% (EMIS, 2013/14). This means that, 11% of children that ought to be in school are not in school (UNICEF, 2015).

In Ghana, the literacy rate varies between urban dwellers and rural folks where there is marked high literacy among urban south of Ghana and low literacy rate in rural north (Worldreader, 2015). The national literacy rate is 58% which can further be explained as more than four out of 10 Ghanaians are unable to read in any language though 60% of Ghanaian has been to school (Worldreader, 2015). There exist differences in literacy rates of districts and regions in Ghana, where Juaben Municipality in the Eastern region of Ghana has every 9 of 10 people (90%) reading, Gushiegu Karaga district in the Northern region has literacy rate of 12% which can be interpreted as more than 1 of every 10 people can read in any language (worldreader,2015). Literacy status of a country is influence by the availability and access to schools, whiles urban cities in Ghana such as Accra, Kumasi, Tema and Takoradi have more schools and other auxiliary facilities such as libraries to support children education, other equally important children need to walk for miles to get to school.

There are also infrastructural problems in Ghanaian schools which also contributed to the result of low enrolment and attendance of school children in Ghana. 43% of schools in Ghana have no access to water supply and also 52% have no place of convenience (UNICEF, 2015).

To increase enrolment, equity and accessibility of education to the populace, the people of Ghana has adopted Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) programme in 1996 to enable

Ghana as a country to achieve her educational goals and ambitions (UNICEF, 2007), as specified by Article 38 of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana which expects the state to offer Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE), considering the public financial stand, to Secondary and higher education stages (UNICEF, 2007; Constitution of Ghana, 1992). After the adoption of FCUBE in 1996, about 5.1 million students are in basic schools or senior high school in 2006 from which 68% are in primary level, 22% and 10% are attending junior and senior high schools respectively (Kabutey, 2010).

In an attempt to make FCUBE real, the Government of Ghana has taken some steps in order to make education accessible to all by improving in educational infrastructure development with partnership of the world bank and other donor countries and agencies to build 50 classrooms for primary schools, 19 for JHS, 172 Teachers bungalows and 64, 4-seater KVIP blocks throughout the country in May, 2000 (GoG, 2004).

Extension of Basic Education Sector Improvement Programme (BESIP) to December 2002 has added 44 teacher bungalows, 500 3-units classroom with each block attached to 4-seater KVIP (Government of Ghana, 2004). To ensure equity distribution of these educational facilities, all districts in the country were considered and poor districts were allocated to the classrooms and other facilities to close the disparity gap between the urban and the rural areas in terms of accessibility to education. In 2002/03, six districts from the Northern Ghana were given out a total of 185 3-units classrooms with libraries and staff common rooms and other 30 deprived districts in Ghana were allocated 45 4-units teachers bungalows, 8 BS (1-6) classroom blocks and 8 BS (7-9) classroom blocks that were funded by USAID Non-Project Assistance Fund

(Government of Ghana, 2004). In 2006, US\$ 1 billion was used by the Government of Ghana and other international donors to provide facilities to citizenry to have access to education and develop skills necessary to provide for themselves (Thompson & Casely-Hayford, 2008).

Capitation Grant (School Fee Abolition) was piloted in some schools in 2004 and adopted in 2005 to cater for charges for non-tuition fees that are levied by districts for repair works, sports and cultural events in schools (UNICEF, 2007). Under the capitation grant, an amount per child in every public school is given by the government for payment of expenditure in schools to reduce pressure on parents and also to prevent sacking of pupils for non-payment (UNICEF, 2007). The capitation grant has influenced enrolment increase by over 36% in the piloted schools which led to full national adoption of the policy for all public schools for US\$3.30 (C30, 000) per pupil per year in 2005 and currently it has been increased to GHC4.50 per child per year (UNICEF, 2007; Field interview,2018).

The Early Childhood Development (ECD) also had a significant impact on kindergarten education in Ghana. The ECD policy in 2004 integrate the public KGs of two years education into the FCUBE which also led to public kindergarten recording 71% increase in enrolment while 25% decrease in enrolment in private kindergartens in 2005 (UNICEF, 2007).

There is FCUBE which was legally accepted by the government of Ghana to get all children of Ghana who are at school going-age to be in school for free and it is made compulsory (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016). The free component of the FCUBE was executed in 2005 through the capitation grant policy but still, 11% of Ghanaian children of school going-age as specified by UNICEF are not in school (UNICEF, 2007). This is due to the fact that 18% of Ghanaian populace lives in extreme poverty and have difficulty in access to food, 51% of the

underprivileged in Ghana are in villages, about 27.2% of children between 5 to 14 years in Ghana were actively engaged in work in 2011 and all these factors influenced the number of children that need to be school in Ghana (Drake et al., 2016; Ghana Statistical Service, 2001). Majority of out of school children work in family farms to help their parents or guardians. In villages, children engage in fishing, herding, mining and quarry works whiles in the cities, children are found working as store assistance, truck pushers, porters and maids in order to earn a living which at the long run take them out of school (U.S. Department of State, Country Reports Ghana, 2011).

Though FCUBE spelt out that basic education is compulsory and free, the authorities have much work to do to make sure all Ghanaian children of school going-age are in school. Though 64% of children that are actively working are still attending school, there is record of increase in school drop-out due to hardship that bedevils these children (U.S. Department of State, Country Reports, Ghana, 2011). In an attempt to overcome school drop-out, increase school attendance, retention and completion, reduce extreme poverty and hunger and bring socio-economic prospects and increase in local agriculture, the Ghana School Feeding Programme was adopted in 2005 as a social protection intervention to give one meal to school pupils in selected government primary schools in deprived communities (GoG, 2015). 1.6 million School children was reached with GSFP in 2011 and it is expected to benefit 3,000,000 Ghanaian public primary pupils in 2016/17 (Government of Ghana, 2015). The programme has increases enrolment in both kindergarten and primary schools in Ghana by 23.1% and 12.8% respectively (Karen, 2011).

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The Ghana School Feeding Program (GSFP) is part of the social interventions adopted in 2005 by the government of Ghana as a public policy. This is to help increase enrolment and reduce short

term hunger and malnutrition in school children. In 2006, the fully fledged GSFP begun and there was increase in beneficiary schools to 200 in all the 138 districts in the country which served about 1,693,698 children in all the 4,881 public schools of Ghana in 2010/2011 academic year (GoG, 2015). The implementation of social policies in Ghana is bedeviled with lack of political will to exert the necessarily effort, lack of citizen participation, and execution of policies by different governments to reflect party ideologies which create a gap between policy intention and the actual practice (Abukari et al, 2015 p.3).

Notwithstanding the social and the economic benefits of the SFP in Ghana, its implementation is entangled with some challenges (Alhassan & Alhassan, 2014). Though writers such as Husein (2014) has noted the positive impacts of school feeding programme on admission, attendance and retention in schools in Ghana, other writers and donors such as SVN, SEND Foundation, De Hauwere (2008) reports indicated that, there is more room for improvement in areas such as hunger, malnutrition and local agricultural development (SVN, 2008; De Hauwere, 2008).

Though beneficiary pupils of the GSFP throughout the country has increased from 658,219 in 2010 to 1,599,162 in 2012 which shows about 41.2% increase in national coverage with the three Northern regions escalating from 87,168 in 2010 to 453,143 in 2012 showing about 19.2 increase and Volta region having 23.5% increased (GSFP Retargeting Report, 2011), there are media reports on delayed payment for caterers. Citifmonline.com/Ghana revealed on the 25<sup>th</sup> August, 2017 that, the government is owing GSFP caterers and needs to pay debts of GH¢114 million to them and the report of Henry A. Addy & ABanahene on Modern Ghana dated 15<sup>th</sup> November, 2015 also stipulated that, the government is yet to pay GH¢82 million to caterers for the second quarter of 2015. GSFP monitoring teams also discovered “ghost” names from the list of pupils presented to the GSFP secretariat when monitoring exercises are done in beneficiary schools

revealed that figures of beneficiary pupils are bloated ranging from 35% to 45% costing GH¢47,353,379.80 to GH¢60,882,917 which otherwise could be used to bring more children on board (Addy & Banahene, Modern Ghana-15<sup>th</sup> November, 2015). There is also reports on political “fingers” in contracting of some caterers without taking them through the due recruitment processes and a letter discovered by citifmonline.com revealed that 30% of schools in every districts should be maintained as protocol allocation for the Minister of Gender, Children and Social Protection and also it has been found out that the wife of a District Implementation Chair in a district has been given a whole district to serve as a GSFP caterer (Addy & Banahene Modern Ghana-15<sup>th</sup> November, 2015; citifmonline.com/Ghana-25<sup>th</sup> August, 2017). Other problems identified are that, the local farmer is neglected in the implementation process of the GSFP, delayed payment of caterers, bad sanitation practices of the catering staff and the use of substandard ingredients with less nutritional gains are used for meals which have high risk on pupils health (Addy & Banahene Modern Ghana-15<sup>th</sup> November, 2015).

I visited some of the villages in Ho municipality such as Hodzo- Kofe , Hodzo-Alavanyo and Dodome in January, 2018 and realized that though these villages and others are deprived with subsistence farming as the major occupation, pupils there are yet to be enrolled in the GSFP. With the above reports and information, I deem it fit to fill the gap in the literature by taking an empirical study in Ho municipality to delve into the challenging factors that influence the implementation of GSFP in the municipality. I chose Ho municipality for this research work because I think the challenges are pervasive there.

### **1.3 GENERAL OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY**

The general objective of this study is to determine the factors affecting the implementation of SFP in the Ho Municipality in the Volta Region.

### **1.4 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The specific objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To assess the impacts of SFP in the Ho Municipality.
2. To examine how monitoring and supervision is done in the implementation of GSFP in Ho Municipality.
3. To establish how frequent the government make funding of the SFP available to caterers in Ho Municipality.
4. To identify the extent of community participation in the implementation of SFP in Ho Municipality.
5. To identify challenges and solutions to combat the factors that affects the implementation of SFP in Ho Municipality.

### **1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This study seeks to explain and analyze problems on implementation of School Feeding Programme in Ho Municipality in the Volta region through researching around the following;

1. What are the impacts of SFP on pupils in Ho Municipality?
2. How is monitoring and supervision done for the implementation of the SFP in Ho Municipality?

3. What extent do communities participate in the implementation of school feeding programme in Ho Municipality.
4. Does the government make the required funds available for SFP caterers in Ho Municipality on time?
5. What are the factors affecting the implementation of SFP and their solutions in Ho Municipality.

### **1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

Government of Ghana and several international and local NGOs spend a lot of resources on SFP. The problems with the implementation make the policy not to serve the exact purpose intended. If my research work is completed it will fill a gap in the literature on School Feeding Programme in Ghana. It will also highlight the problems encounter in the implementation of SFP policy in the Ho Municipality in the Volta Region of Ghana to the stakeholders and the general public.

My project will seek to find the solution to such problems that affect the implementation of the SFP in the selected Municipality in the Volta region and other districts because they might have two or more similar problems. The outcome of this research work will be used for stakeholders especially the government to help formulate policies that will if not eradicate, reduce the problems on implementation of SFP in Ghana.

### **1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

Theoretical framework is an abstract model that establishes logical construction that directs a research. It provides background to support your investigation. It also includes the variables, relationships and problems you want to study. The theoretical framework pointed at a theory that

explains or defines a particular problem (Statistics Solutions, 2017). Sinclair (2007) presented that theoretical framework can be considered as a map or travel plan.

This study made use of the social contract theory to help understand why governments need to formulate and implement social intervention policies for citizens in a particular country like Ghana. Social contract or political contract is a theory or model emanating at the period of Age of Enlightenment that seek to explain the questions of the root of society and rightfulness of authority of the government over the individual (Gough, 1936). Thomas Hobbes, John Locke and other philosophers contributed immensely to the theory of social contract. The term social contract can be accorded to two diverse political thought which comprises the theory of the origin of state and the contract of forming a government or contract of submission (Gough, 1936). The idea of the social contract can be simplified that, the individuals have consented, either explicitly or tacitly to surrender their freedom and to succumb to the sovereign authority of a king, ruler or majority decision for maintaining and protecting of their right and liberties in return (Harrison, 2003).

The “state of nature” was described by Thomas Hobbes to explain his ideas on the social contract theory. He saw the “state of nature” as the life without any central authority in which people live before the social contract (Harrison, 2003). Hobbes explained that in the “state of nature”, the action and inaction of individuals are control by their personal will, power and conscience and if this mode is maintained would make the life of people solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short (Harrison, 2003). He maintained that, without any sovereign authority human beings will have unlimited freedoms including the right to do “all things” including rape and murder will be the order of the day, so, Hobbes believed that a central authority will be the answer to this anarchy in which each and every one will gain security to enjoy his liberty in turn of their subjection to an

absolute sovereign made up of a sole leader or group of leaders who act on the consent of the people. He posited that, people reduce their natural right to everything for them to enjoy peace and self-preservation (Harrison, 2003).

John Locke's theory of social contract can be seen in his Two Treatises of Government in which he maintained that the formation of the social contract is out of human nature where people act base on the natural law to protect their life, property and entitlements (Olyny, 2010). Locke was of the view that, people find solution to war and anarchy by relinquishing some of their liberties to a sovereign who is responsible to safeguard its subjects entitlements based on the will of the majority and the execution of the sovereign power should not be based on random choice or personal whim but rather for the public good of the society (Olynyk, 2010). Hobbes described a situation in the "social contract" that should the government abuse, exceed, neglect or oppose the legitimate limits of its power, it can be changed or sacked by the people for a breach of its trust and replaced with another (Kelly, 1992; Olynyk, 2010). Locke's idea about the social contract has a bearing on this study. The Ghanaian formed a sovereign government which in turn implements social and developmental policies such as the SFP for the public good. To achieve the best for the society, the government needs to identify and eradicate problems associated with the implementation of the GSFP.

Rousseau accepted the formation of political community based on the existence of inequality among individuals and the yearn to advance human and societal conditions and he asserted that the problem of inequality and property distribution is associated with "state of nature" which is characterized with conflict and the only thing to help maintain order and societal advancement is the "social contract" (Cavanaugh, 1971). The social contract based on Rousseau view promotes better living condition, health, abundant food and creation of avenue for citizen development and

other necessary facilities to benefit all in the political community (Cavanaugh, 1971). Rousseau stipulated that with the formation of civil contract, man is now obliged to act upon principles and his personal interest and physical impulses are inferior to principles and series of laws for societal advancement (Cavanaugh, 1971). Base on the ideas of Rousseau, the advancement of citizen is based on the formation of a central government which is dedicated to the welfare of the people. Identifying and resolving the factors affecting the implementation of GSFP will help in societal advancement and reduction of inequality identified by Rousseau.

A remarkable aspect of Rousseau's social contract theory is the existence of the sovereign (the people) and the legislature (people who carry out the wishes of the people) and the defined roles of these two bodies with sovereign power vested in the people to select or decide laws and principles to govern them based on the common interest of all and the legislative execute the goals and laws determined by the governed to create order in society (Cavanaugh, 1971).

Though "social contract" theories are based on the philosophies and assumptions of the proponents, there exist one voice in their aspiration that the governing body should put into force the societal interest for order, self-preservation and societal advancement for the fact that people surrender their natural rights and liberties to obey sovereign authority for security of their entitlements in return (Tozer & Rousseau, 1898).

The social contract theory is employed by the researcher to help understand why governments design social intervention policies for their citizens. In the social contract theory, group of people agreed and surrender their natural rights and liberties to obey a sovereign authority that in turn protect their rights, property, freedom, better life and entitlements. The government that is meant to safeguard the entitlements of the populace is to execute the laws and principles agreed on by the

people that are in present day spelt out in state's constitutions and not personal whims. The 1992 constitution of Ghana outline the right to education to citizens and article 38 echoed on the provision of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) (UNICEF, 2007; 1992 Constitution of Ghana). In order to promote human advancement and curb inequality in provision of education in Ghana, the Government of Ghana adopted school feeding programme to augment other policies to safeguard the right to education of Ghanaian. The Ghana School Feeding Programme will help reduce the inequality that exist between people in terms of educational, economic and social status in the country and it will also promote social order and creation of opportunities for societal advancement (Cavanaugh, 1971).

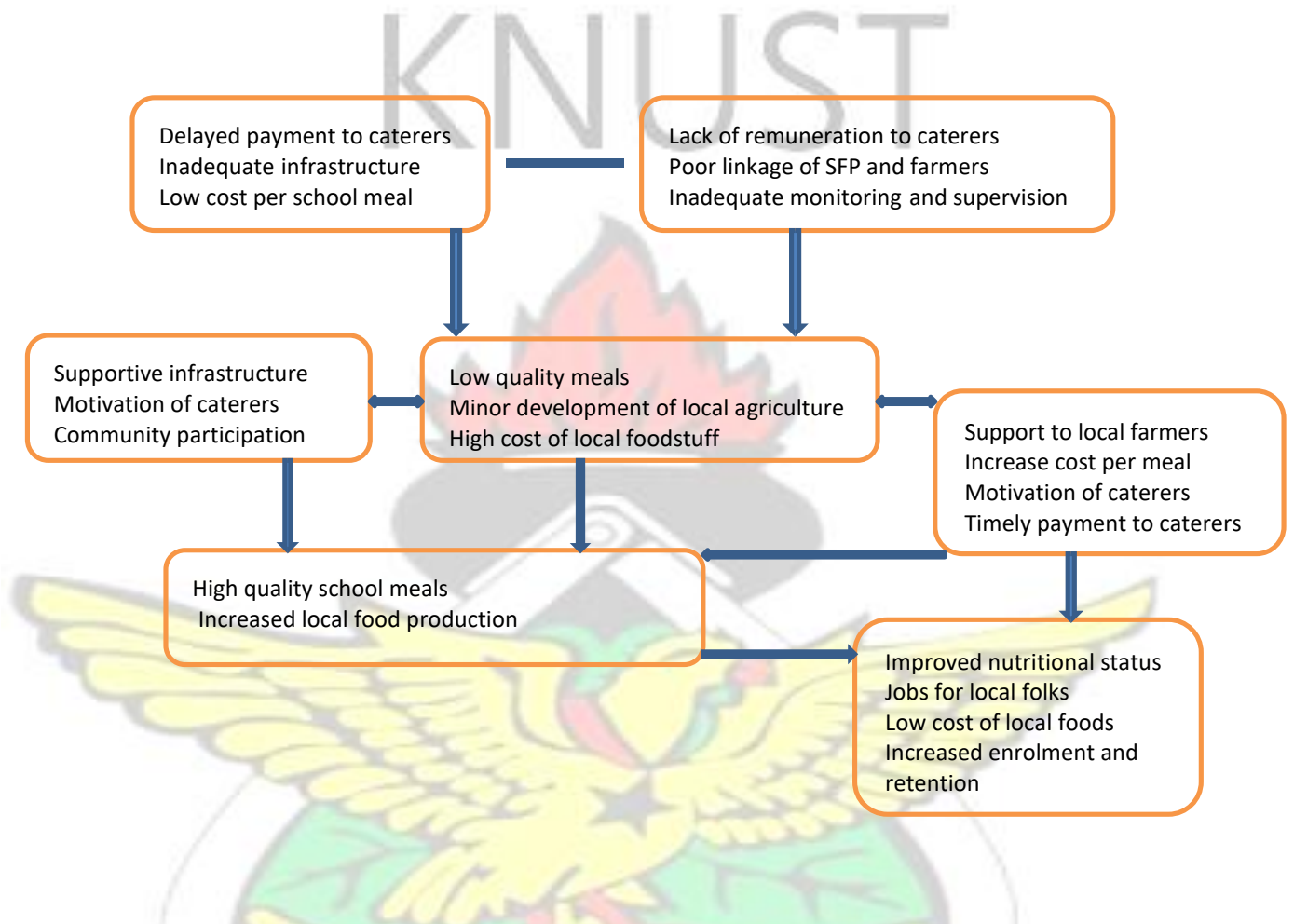
### **1.7.1 Weaknesses of the Social Contract Theory**

Hobbes in his notion of social contract contempt the moral make up of people and society. He maintained that, without a state, people cannot control themselves and live in harmony with each other and peace; self-preservation can only be achieved by installing a central authority (Olynyk, 2010). In fact, some people obey and live peacefully without violence not because of an existence of government or laws but base on their moral grounds and human nature.

Another criticism leveled against the social contract theory is whether there was any contract event or series of contracts that occurred some years ago or if there was any evidence of agreement among men to form a social contract which eventually changes to the present day modern political communities or societies (Boucher & Kelly, 1994).

## **1.8 Conceptual Framework**

**Figure: 1.1**



**Author's own construct (2017)**

## **1.9 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY**

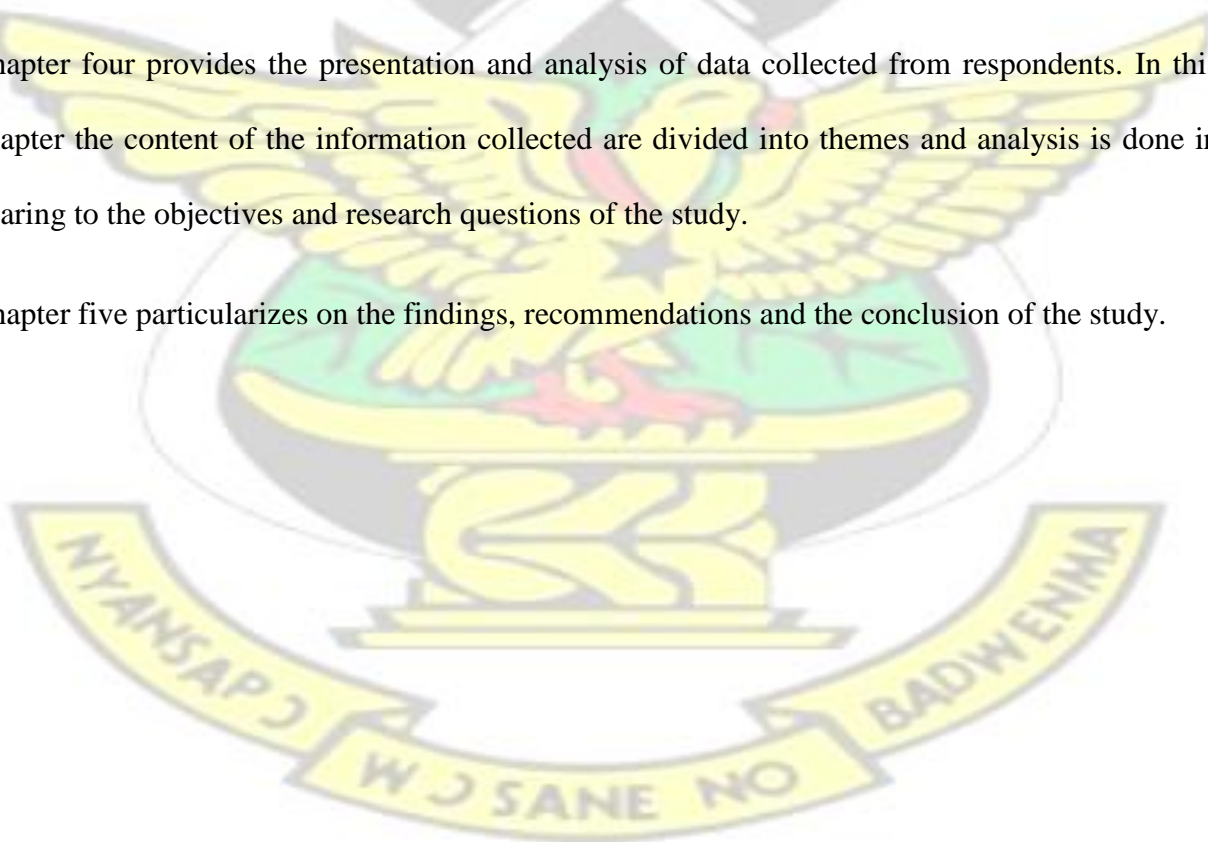
The study is organized under five (5) major chapters. Chapter one comprised of introduction on SFP in Ghana, statement of problem, general and specific objectives of the study, research questions which the study will research around, significance of the study, theoretical framework, conceptual framework and organization of the study.

Chapter two of this study presented the literature review. It entails the literatures around the topic under study. Journals, articles, books, and papers were actively used to analyze works that have been done around the research topic. School feeding programmes in developed and developing countries including Ghana were compared. It looked at beneficiaries, administration, funding, community involvement, objectives, cost per meal per day of school feeding programmes in USA, Nigeria and Ghana were highlighted. Impacts of GSFP, and factors affecting the implementation school feeding programme in countries were also discussed.

Chapter three was devoted to research design, target population, sampling size, sampling procedure, research instrument, pre-testing of instrument for reliability and validity, data collection techniques, data analysis mechanism, ethical consideration and limitation of the study.

Chapter four provides the presentation and analysis of data collected from respondents. In this chapter the content of the information collected are divided into themes and analysis is done in bearing to the objectives and research questions of the study.

Chapter five particularizes on the findings, recommendations and the conclusion of the study.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the related literature of the study. It presents and analyzes social policies in Ghana, challenges countries face in implementing social intervention policies, paradox of public policy implementation, ingredients for effective implementation of social policies, emergence of school feeding programmes in the world, income level of countries and school feeding programmes, historical development of school feeding programme in Ghana, administration and monitoring of GSFP, funding of GSFP, impacts of GSFP and factors affecting GSFP. The chapter will also make use of information and data from school feeding programmes in both developed and developing countries for analysis.

Greenfield (2002) explained literature review as academic surveys, articles, records, expositions, seminar reports and materials which are related to a specific event, area of a study, or concept and provide framework for a study by recognizing previous inquiry.

#### 2.2 CHALLENGES COUNTRIES FACE IMPLEMENTING SOCIAL INTERVENTION POLICIES.

The outcome of policies are always far below the main objectives the programme is planned to achieve because a policy may be influenced by social, political, economic and cultural factors (Pressman & Wildavsky 1973; Calista, 1994).

### 2.2.1 Political Factors

There is a high influence of politics in public policies with the view that, public policies are the decision of government to implement a particular programme to a group or the whole populace in a country (Imurana, et al., 2014). Brinkerhoff & Crosby (2005) analyzed in the same direction with Bjorkman (1994) that, policy implementation is equally political as seen as technical. The success of a social intervention programme is influenced by the “political will” of political leaders in most African countries where majority of the political elites provide “leap services” without any substantial steps toward the realization of the policy objectives (Waterstone, 1965) which may cause social unrest and this was emphasized by Imurana, et al. (2014) that the prevalent of political instability coupled with regular corruption has eaten the fabric of social intervention programmes in most third world countries. Bribery and corruption has become a challenge in Africa. It has accounted for majority of the bottlenecks posed at the implementation stages of policies in Africa (Makinde, 2005). The political and executive heads at the top hierarchy slice funds for their personal gains whiles the officers at the ground take away their personal percentages from the public fund and also bribe the supervisors which are posted to check the progress of the projects to falsify reports and recommendations (Makinde, 2005). This is where implementation gaps in Africa are mostly created because the whole policy will come to a halt without achieving the planned objectives (Makinde, 2005).

Another area identified in terms of political factor is also the skills and abilities of political leaders. Leaders that are charged with formulation, adoption and execution of public policies need to be well endowed with skills and technical knowledge and applied much of their efforts in selecting the best policies for execution in other to limit the problems associated with implementing public

policies (Kielstra, 2010). Policies should not be hurriedly adopted by policy makers; there should be a clear direction and insight into the policy by both makers and implementers of public policies so that plans can be advanced to mitigate future challenges to the policy (Kielstra, 2010). The lack of in-depth knowledge of the problem by which a policy is formulated also amounts to a degree of challenge for a policy to achieve the goals and objectives of the policy. (Kielstra, 2010). In executing a public policy, only political and economic factors are considered to be a challenge, other equally important variables such as social, administrative are not considered to have a bearing on the implementation challenges and this makes public policies to have problems right from the beginning (Makinde, 2005).

Political stability also has a great effect on the implementation of public policies. Political instability draws execution of projects backwards where much resource will be diverted in settling political issues instead of supporting a developmental project (Thomas & Grindle, 1994).

Another political factor which also has a great influence on success of implementation public policies is changes in government regimes. As most political systems run in countries have time structure on governance, a change in one government may result to a change in policy content and its level of operation (Walt & Gilson, 1994).

In order to mitigate the challenges posed by political factors, Bruce & Smith (2003) recommended citizen participation in the policy making process of public policy. They added that beneficiaries of a project should be active to monitor policy directions that are planned for positive impact on them (Bruce & Smith, 2003).

Other agents of development such as the civil society and private organizations should be well involved in formulation and implementation of public policies so that each subdivision will

contribute their respective skills and resources to the success of the policy (Altman & Petkus, 1994; Bryson, 1988). Civil society groups and community leaders can serve as watch dogs to monitor implementation of policies and can also make sure funding of social interventions are consistent for smooth execution of policies (Bhuyan et al., 2010).

### **2.2.2 Economic and Cultural Factors**

Apart from political factors that influence the implementation of public policies in developing countries, there are also economic and cultural factors or variables that determine the success of a public policy compare to the policy objectives and goals (Imurana, et al., 2014). Imurana, et al. (2014) quoted Lane & Ersson (2010) that, governments in third world countries such as Ghana, Liberia, Senegal and other African countries formulate, adopt and implement social intervention policies in order to make life comfortable for citizens but the full realization of the policies are mostly challenged by funding. Due to the weak extracting capacity of the poor countries, they are unable to make good use of their natural resources and this lowers their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) which is inadequate to support implementation of public policies (Lane & Ersson, 2001). An economic difficulty to the implementation of policies was a major case in Sudan in 1961/1962 to 1970/1971 when the ten year development plan was hampered by economic and financial hitches due to inability and slows processing of loan applications by the World Bank towards the funding of the plan (Mirghani, 1983). In the era of oil price hike in 1973, ten African countries recorded negative annual growth rates (with average annual real capita GDP growth of 0.7% (Ali, 2011). Chad realized -0.4%, Djibouti recorded -1.3% and others such as Libya had -4.9% and these economic outcomes will be difficult to support the grounds for implementing major and more social interventions in such countries (Ali, 2011).

About 22% of the total labor force in Africa is unemployed with the negative record of GDP some countries are indicators that the socio-economic wellbeing of citizens in such countries are in lower degrees (World Bank, 2009).

The kind of policies formulated in countries is also influence by cultural and social legacies (Hudson & Lowe, 2004). Michael Lipsky (1980) identified that, bureaucrats who have direct contact with the society will be influenced by the values and customs of the people and this has a tendency of influencing policy decisions (Lipsky, 1980). It was experience in United States where the fund allocated for the poor was inadequate due to the mainstream belief that, the needy are the cause of their own life and government spending on them is costly to the state (Lipsky, 1980).

### **2.2.3 Institutional Factors**

A lot of African countries are with weak institutions which make them unable to solve administrative and constitutional flaws, make and ensure rules that will maintain good coordination between governmental agencies and ministries for smooth working environment (Killick, 1983; Ali, 2011). Institutional factors in this context can be referred to “a set of rules to organize people into the functional body” as well as functional bodies organize by a set of rules” (Hayami & Godo, 2005). Africa as a continent inherited an institutional set up which was formed in colonial era to handle situations in countries governed, in today’s developing system, the old institutional structures are not suitable for a growing economy (Waterstone, 1965). General revenue collection, mechanism is very poor in developing countries where income and other taxes can only be paid by the formal sector workers and this lowers financial supports to the government for implementing public policies hence creating implementation gap which can be seen as not the only cause of political and economic factors but also institutional (Waterstone, 1965).

The weak institutions in Africa has also made the administrative and human resource capacity of states in Africa malfunctioning and this can be justified by the huge number of foreign personnel employed in sub-Sahara Africa which cost about USD 4 billion in a year just for payment of their salaries and other emolument (Mkandawire & Soludo, 1999).

### **2.3 INGREDIENTS FOR EFFECTIVE POLICY IMPLEMENTATION**

Though there are economic, political, cultural and other factors that can influence the success of policy implementation, there are also some strategies that can be employed to minimize the implementation gaps often associated with policy execution. There should be a clear specific objectives and map that reflect the plan of the policy and by working towards achievement of these objectives, the execution of the policy will be geared on the right direction (Elmore, 1985). This agrees with the notion of Nakamura & Smallwood 1980 as well as Walt & Gilson 1994 that, a well-developed social policy which is aimed at achieving high percentage of implementation success should define the problem area; clearly state the goals and objectives and the actual actions and strategies that will be employed to curb an existing problem. Policy objectives that are not clearly identified and explained may be considered as one of the reasons for implementation failure (Calista, 1994).

For effective implementation of public policies, there is a need for performance standard measurement, where tasks performed in each stage of the implementation phase is measured and compared to the objective of that phase (Elmore, 1985). He further pointed that, this action will help hold actors and implementers accountable for their performance in general (Elmore, 1985).

In order to achieve high percentage implementation success in public policies, citizens and direct beneficiaries should be actively involved in the policy process, throughout the formulation, implementation, and evaluation levels (Elmore, 1985). He further argued that, policies that are implemented without the involvement of all the stakeholders may not reflect the need of the beneficiaries and also, may give rise to implementers operating on their own pace and upon their own discretions which if coupled with low monitoring at the local level may bring poor and questionable results for public policies (Klein & Knight, 2005; Elmore, 1985). The involvement of different groups, civil society and private organizations will help in all-inclusive actions toward the success of public policies (Altman & Petkus, 1994).

In order to achieve objectives of a policy, there should be other strategies which will help to bring the dream of the policy to reality. Once tasks and objectives are planned, there is a need to mobilize the necessary resources such as financial, human and materials resources required for the implementation of the policy (Klein & Knight, 2005). They further explained with an example that, if a new policy requires a new skills, there is a need to make plans to train personnel that are supposed to carry out the plan to acquire new skills needed (Klein & Knight, 2005). In Ghana, head of government institutions were trained in 2016 and 2017 in order to handle new policy developed by the controller and accountant general department for electronic validation of government employees' salaries (Author, 2018).

Implementation is a very difficult task even if objectives and goals are clear, guidelines known, monitoring and evaluation structures are on place, budget allocation and action plan provided, the outcome of the policy sometimes may be different from the intention and goals of the policy makers due to political, technical, cultural, managerial and change processes which may influence

implementation in one way or the other (Brynard, 2007). Though it is very difficult to attain 100% outcome of a policy, there are measures to follow to help close the gap of policy intention and outcome.

## **2.4 PARADOX OF PUBLIC POLICY IMPLEMENTATION**

Public policies are enroll throughout the world by state governments and sometimes supported by non-governmental bodies and international donors but the reason why governments implement public policies has become contested in literatures about public policies implementations. Some scholars such as Grindle (1980), is of the view that, public policies are implemented in the world especially third world countries in order to increase the material wellbeing and better life of the masses by providing essential services and amenities. He further posited that, public services in developing countries expand health and educational sectors for the use of the general populace (Grindle, 1980).

Public policy implementation forms an integral part of the development of communities and individuals, hence civil society and pressure groups in a state should be active and work tirelessly to help extend public policy interventions to underprivileged rural folks in a particular country (Altman & Petku, 1994; Bryson, 1988). It was also noticed by Grindle (1980) that, some African leaders took it upon themselves to formulate and execute public policies in order to achieve rapid and great improvement in the situation of the economic and social well-being of their people which will go a long way to close the underdeveloped gap created by colonial rule especially in Africa (Grindle, 1980).

The result of implementation of social policy interventions has yielded positive results since 1970s where many countries made progress in levels of industrialization, advancement in road network and increase in provision of education and health services (Mkandawire & Soludo, 1999). Underdeveloped countries need to adopt and implement development plans based on the view of Lange (1961) that, development do not exist automatically, so government resources should be used productively to increase per capita in developing countries (Lange, 1961).

Whiles some scholars such as Lange (1961), Grindle (1980) and Altman & Petku, (1994) argued that, governments undertake public policy interventions to help increase the socio-economic status of citizens, there is another school of thought that argued that, most policies adopted and executed especially in Africa are over politicized and outcome overestimated by political parties to help them win votes and capture more followers (Makinde, 2005). These ambitious policies are however entangled with implementation difficulties and are not able to achieve the actual objectives of the policy (Makinde, 2005). Imurana, et al. (2014) cited an example form Makinde (2005) that, in Nigeria “free education for all” in public schools , was used to capture political support but later was not implemented as exalted by politicians as a result, people opted to patronize the private school system instead of public schools (Imurana, et al., 2014). Pressma and Widavsky are of the view that implementation is action oriented. Public policies are supposed to be executed by taking steps and strategies designed to achieve the goals and objectives in the beneficiary society and not provision of “leap services” by politicians (Pressman & Widvasky, 1984).

The “ego dimension” of politicians is explained by Imurana, et al. (2014) to depict the behavior of most politicians in Africa who changes existing policies or totally abolish them in order to mirror

party interest and for political existence (Imurana, et al., 2014). It is good to note that, in order to respond to the demands of the masses, short term solutions which are incapable of solving the real problem is formulated by politicians for vote and political support in return which show that politicians uphold and value winning of political power than formulation of viable policies (Makinde, 2005). This is also stressed by Pedro (2007) that politicians fighting poverty and supporting equality of all is an illusion because majority of political elites and leaders do not work wholeheartedly and are less concern to reinforce policy objectives to achieve desired goals (Pedro, 2007).

## **2.5 SOCIAL POLICIES IN GHANA (1983-2017)**

After independence the welfare and the running of the country is carried by Ghanaians themselves. Ghana experienced rise population growth, economic mismanagement and low economic growth, economic mismanagement and low economic growth coupled with high expenditure in 1980s (Abukari et al., 2015). Jerry John Rawlings PNDC regime embraced Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) in respect to the advice of IMF/World Bank in 1983 to reduce government spending and promote privatization to stabilize Ghanaian economic system (Grebe, 2015). The SAP implementation in Ghana had a negative effect nationwide by leaving education and health care in the hands of private and „cash and carry“ systems (Abukari et al., 2015). This prompted the FCUBE policy which existed in Kwame Nkrumah’s regime to be reenacted in 1996 as directed by the 1992 constitution of Fourth Republic of Ghana (Abukari et al., 2015).

Legitimate power has been transferred from NDC party to market –oriented NPP in 2000 general election. The 2000-2008 NPP regime of John Agyekum Kuffour had a great impact on the

Ghanaian populace where more societal safeguard and welfare strategies to increase the standard of living of citizens were introduced (Grebe, 2015).

The Government of Ghana under the leadership Kuffour and NPP administration, outlined National Social Protection Strategy (NSPS) and Ghana Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I and II) that aimed at social protection and reduction of poverty, reducing inequality in aspects of health care and education by executing measures such as Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP), National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS), Ghana School Feeding Programme, Pension Reform, Education Capitation Grant between 2000 and 2008 (Grebe, 2015; Abeberese, 2012).

Social policies in Ghana seen expansion and political attention under Prof. Atta- Mills's administration after NDC won the general election in 2008 (Grebe, 2015). In 2014, the LEAP budget was GHC 38.0 million (USD 17.3 million), comparable to 0.43 per cent of the GDP, and to aim at 150,000 households. (Aryeetey et al., 2016). In 2008, only 6,041 elderly individuals received LEAP cash grants (0.4 per cent of the elderly population). In 2009, the programme reached 13,811 across 80 districts. This still represented only 0.94 per cent of the elderly population (Aryeetey et al., 2016). It is worth noting that, though NPP is a market oriented party but focused on adoption and implementation of social policies more than the social democratic NDC (Grebe, 2015).

To fulfill „Free SHS Policy“ promise of the NPP during 2016 election, the government under the leadership of Akufo Addo and NPP budgeted to fund the Free SHS policy from petroleum revenue of the country to help make extension of basic school from pre-school, primary, JHS to Senior High School free for all Ghanaian (Fusheini et al., 2017).

In order to keep pupils enrolments and completion of education high in Ghana, the GSFP and examination subsidies are some of the social policies embraced in Ghana. The government of Ghana pays part of the examination fees charged on each final students in both basic and secondary schools in the country to help reduce charges parents incur (Ama de-Graft, 2016). The GSFP which was adopted in 2005 with the aim to reduce poverty and promote food security through providing of one hot meal to school children in the underprivileged zones in the country (Abukari et al., 2015). About 44,248 pupils from Tamale metropolis alone benefited from the programme in 2014 (Aliu & Fawzia, 2014).

## **2.6 EMERGENCE OF SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME IN THE WORLD**

School feeding can be explained as the provision of food to schoolchildren. School feeding can be categorized into two distinct sets: (1) in-school feeding, that pupils are given food at school; (2) and take-home rations, for which the guardians of the beneficiary children are provided with food. In-school feeding is also group into another two sections, group that supply meals and other that provide high energy rusks or snacks (WFP, 2013). School Feeding Programmes are implemented in many countries around the world. World Food Programme in 2004 alone sponsored SFP in 72 countries, with 16.6 million students (WFP 2005b).

Income groups of states are categorized as lower-income, lower-middle income, upper-middle income and high-income countries established on individual country's Gross National income per capita (World Bank, 2013). In July 2012 and July 2013, countries having total population of 30,000 or more with Gross National per capita of US\$1,025 or less are classified as lower income countries and those with Gross National per capita of US\$1,026 to 4,035, US\$ 4,036 to 12,475 and US\$

12,476 or more were grouped as lower-middle, upper-middle and high income states correspondingly (World Bank, 2013).

There are findings pertaining to the implementation of school feeding programme policies which shows that, the income level of a country influences how the school feeding programme is implemented. This claim can be associated to the size or number of people it covers and budget allocations done for the programme in lower, middle and high income countries (WFP, 2013). It is estimated that, in 169 countries in the world, there are 368 million pre-primary, primary and secondary school children under different school feeding programme models (WFP, 2013).

Beneficiaries in Latin America summed up to 85 million, North America has 45, 121 million in South Asia, East Asia and Pacific recorded 47 million and sub-Saharan Africa has about 30 million beneficiaries (WFP, 2013). There are about 47 million beneficiaries in Brazil, 47 million in United States, China recorded 26 million (WFP, 2013).

There are 85 million beneficiaries in Latin America, 45 million in North America, 121 million in South East, East Asia and Pacific recorded 47 million and Sub-Saharan Africa has 30 million beneficiaries (WFP, 2013). While there are 43 million beneficiaries under Brazil National School Feeding Programme from 163,000 public and private schools, with the country's per capita income of US\$ 11,208, Mali with Gross Domestic Product per capita of US\$694 in 2012 indicated that Mali is a lower income country and enrolled about 109,000 beneficiaries in 809 public primary schools from 166 poor districts (Drake et al., 2016). Kenya having Gross Domestic Product per capita of 943 in 2012 covered 825,715 children in 2,214 schools and Chile in the same year with US\$15,732 as Gross Domestic Product per capita reached 1,850,000 students in state basic and secondary schools in 9,670 schools (Drake et al., 2016). With few analyses above, it can be

however argued that, the income level of a country may also influence the number of beneficiaries of a school feeding programme and other social intervention programmes undertaken by a government (Drake et al., 2016; WFP, 2013).

A report by (WFP, 2013) pointed out that, public policies and programmes in developed countries are consolidated as compared to less income countries, that, there exist institutional structures which help programmes sustainable than in low income countries where national programmes are less consolidated and sometimes collapse after withdrawal of donor supports (WFP, 2013). In Brazil family farming is directly linked with Brazil school feeding programme to increase local food production where 30% or more foodstuff is to be purchased from local or small scale farmers and this is backed by law No. 11.947 of 2009 (Presidência da República, 2009).

The income level of countries under the school feeding programme also reflects the budget for school feeding policy and cost per child (Drake et al., 2016). Budget allocations of countries for school feeding programme influence the amount to be spent on a child per year. The total budget allocated for Namibian School Feeding Programme in 2012/2013 was US\$9,830,508 and US\$27.33-US\$31.85 was the cost per child per year (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016). Kenya budgeted US\$4.63 million for SFP in 2012 with cost per year per child ranged (US\$28.00-US\$31.25). Upper-middle income countries such as Brazil allocated US\$1.7 billion for SFP in 2014 for food only and cost per child per annum was US\$100, US\$60 and US\$50 for children in kindergarten, indigenous and Slave-descendant Communities and pre-primary schools respectively (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016). Though there are differences in the implementation of the SFP, low and high-income countries are still making efforts to increase the size and quality of their school feeding programmes.

## **2.8 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SFP IN GHANA.**

Feeding school children started in Ghana in 1950s where there was a need to provide school children with meals and or take-home ration in order to keep them in school and also cater for their nutritional needs in Catholic primary and middle schools (GSFP, 2006). This was done to increase enrolment and literacy rate in Ghana to help feed the country's industries and agencies with Ghanaian personnel after independence (WFP, 2006; Imoru, A., 2010).

WFP, Catholic Relief Services (CRS) and Adventist Development Relief Agency (ADRA) took the mantle of providing SFP in Ghana, where the programme has been extended to northern part of Ghana. Other partners include SEND, World Vision, and Dutch Development Agency. The donor groups were more interested in alleviation of poverty, food security and gender equality. The provision of food to the northern part of Ghana was very important due to high occurrence of poverty and food shortage (WFP, 2006). Parents used children of school going age on their farms as laborers to feed their large families and some boys are also used as herdsmen (WFP, 2006). Then, CRS fed 50 schools in the Northern regions of Ghana. Meal provided each day cost 1.409 cedis (US\$0.15) per child. Pre-school children were fed two times each day with wheat or soy porridge (koko) in the morning and a hot meal later in the day made from local foodstuffs donated freely by parents. Girls who attained 90% attendance in a month were provided takehome ration to motivate girls' retention in school. The CRS was supported by United States Agency for International Development (USAID), which supported in supply of food and other relevant resources, but this assistance to Ghana was terminated in April 2006. For a community to be selected CRS School Feeding Programme, CRS provide education and training to the community members to prepare them for managing the programme themselves in years to come. This

education and training helped in increasing community participation where communities donate and help the programme with voluntary cooking services, stores, kitchen, cooking utensils, to prepare foods provided by CRS. The beneficiary communities had Community Food Management Committee (CFMC) that was constituted from PTAs and SMCs. The CRS was said to halt its operations in 2008 while communities sponsor their own school feeding programme through full community participation (WFP, 2007).

## **2.9 GHANA SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME (GSFP)**

The unilateral attempt by the United Nations to curb the menace of globalization led to the endorsement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in year 2000. The main tenant of the MDGs pertaining to hunger and poverty is to reduce hunger by half and eradicate extreme poverty by the year 2015 (Alhassan & Alhassan, 2014). In an attempt to achieve Universal Basic Education, reducing poverty and hunger as espoused by the MDGs, NEPAD took a life changing step through Comprehensive African Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) Pillar 3 to initiate School feeding programme in Africa. Efforts of United Nations Hunger Task Force (UNHTF) cannot be compromised towards the commencement of school feeding programme in most countries in Africa (UN, 2005; Amoah et al., 2009).

The WFP and the UNHTF created demand for locally produced agricultural foodstuffs by enabling GoG and CAADP to link the SFP to local agricultural development where foodstuffs produced by the local farmers should be purchased for the SFP (De Hauware, 2014). Ghana as a country took a bold step to adopt School Feeding Programme (SFP) in 2004. In 2005, it started operating in piloted schools in the country (Oduro-Ofori & Awoa-Yeboah, 2014). With the aid of Dutch Government and Government of Ghana (GoG), the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) started in full

operation by providing one hot meal to pupils in selected public primary school in Ghana (Carvalho et al., 2011, p. 11).

The following are the immediate objectives of the GSFP; to minimize hunger and malnutrition among school children by providing one hot nutritional food, to increase school enrolment and retention, to expand the market and production of locally produced foodstuffs; it also seeks to increase job opportunities and income of the local folks (GoG, 2015; Aliu & Fawzia, 2014).

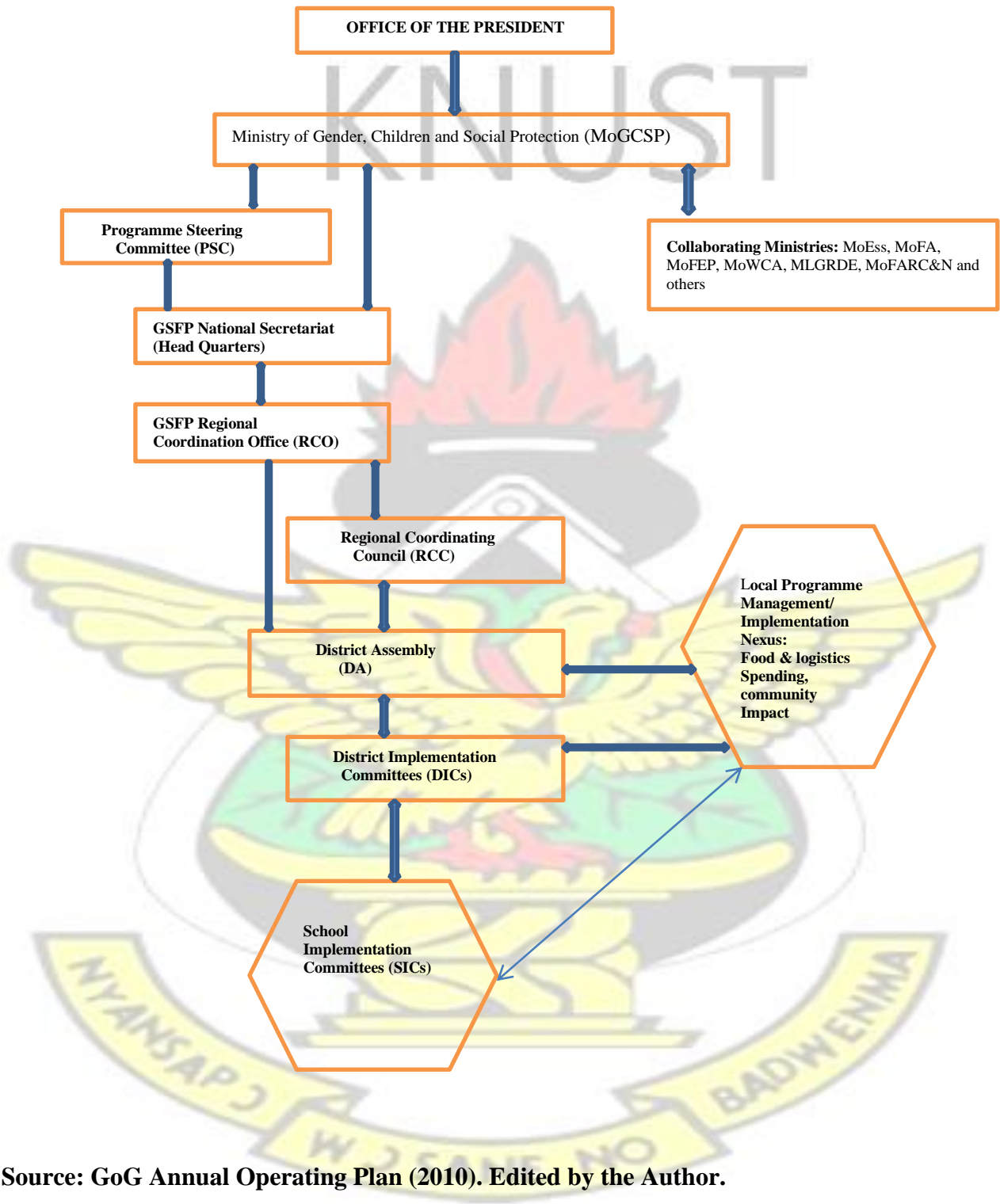
The GSFP gives school pupils from beneficiary state basic schools in classes (1-6) and those in the kindergarten with one hot nutritional meal prepared from locally produced foodstuffs. The private schools and public Junior High Schools are exempted from benefiting from GSFP as at now (Oduro-Ofori & Adwoa Yeboah, 2014; WFP, 2007).

The administration and monitoring of GSFP is separated in four folds; national, regional, district and local community. After a rigorous deliberation and passing of the GSFP Bill by Cabinet and Parliament so that, funding and operations of the programme are made lawful, the node is thrown to the different stakeholders that are responsible for the implementation and monitoring of the GSFP (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016).

# KNUST



**Figure 2.1: GSFP Actors and Relationships**



Source: GoG Annual Operating Plan (2010). Edited by the Author.

At the national level, the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection (MoGCSP) instead of Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRDE) responsible for the GSFP at the state level. MoGCSP works in conjunction with other stakeholder ministries such as Ministry of Education (MOE), Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MoLGRDE), Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MOFA), Ministry of Health (MOH), Ministry of Finance (MOF) and other agencies and ministries for actual execution of the programme.

MoGCSP monitors workings and operation of the National School Feeding Agency. Governing Board of the agency comprises officers from the key stakeholder ministries and agencies who are appointed by provisions outlined for selecting of such members. The Board is in charge for the general strategy trend and oversight of the resources presented to the Agency. The CEO or officer in charge of the Agency shall be a member of the Board. The Technical Advisors Committee helps in identification of problems, implementing decisions and ensuring accountability, coordinate with the Secretariat of the Agency, shaping existing rules and principles for smooth implementation of GSFP (GoG, 2015; Alhassan & Alhassan, 2014).

The regional office of the GSFP is situated at the Regional Coordinating Council. The office is headed by regional SFP coordinator with other personnel from fields vital for the programme such as nutrition, civic education and monitoring. The Regional Social Protection Monitoring Committee (RSPMC) which is made up of regional significant stakeholders and the regional coordinating officers are mandated for monitoring, quality assurance and reporting to the national level (GoG, 2015; Alhassan & Alhassan, 2014).

District Assembly is the main body responsible for the execution of the GSFP in schools. They provide the necessary logistics and supporting structures such as kitchen, stores and dining halls

for the SFP in the district. District Assemblies are responsible for selecting beneficiary schools for the programme. They plan, budget, monitor and organize community assistance for the SFP in beneficiary schools. The District Social Protection Committee (DSPC) chaired by the District Coordinating Director shall be a sub-committee of the Assembly, responsible for execution of tasks of the SFP in the districts (GoG, 2015).

In the community level, the School Implementation Committee (SIC) made up of local stakeholders such as a representatives of PTA and SMC, Head teacher, Boys and Girls leaders, Assembly man of the area, a Traditional Ruler from the community where the programme is situated. The secretary to the SIC shall be the School Health Coordinator. The SIC is mandated to monitor and make suggestions to the DSPC. The SIC is also responsible for planning menu, organizing community involvements and provision of assistance for the successful implementation of GSFP in their locality (GoG, 2015; Alhassan & Alhassan, 2014).

## **2.12 FUNDING OF GSFP**

GSFP is funded by the Government of Ghana (GoG) and through kind courtesy of the Royal Kingdom of Netherlands Organization (SNV). The Dutch Government support 50% of the feeding aspect (WFP, 2007). Other international donors include, Social Enterprise Development Organization (SEND Foundation), World Food Programme (WFP), United Nation Children Educational Fund (UNICEF), Plan International, Partnership for Child Development (PCD) sponsored by Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, School Initiative Ghana Netherlands (SIGN). These donors supplement government's efforts through cash and kind to fund the GSFP. The Government of Netherland donated more than 45 million euros to fund the GSFP (WFP, 2007; Alhassan & Alhassan, 2014; Darko, 2014). The cost of meal per day per child has now been

increased from GH¢0.50 to GH¢0.80 in 2017 to meet the rising cost of commodities (Field interview, 2018).

## **2.14 IMPORTANCE OF SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMMES AROUND THE GLOBE.**

School Feeding Programmes around the globe has its own importance on individual countries undertaking or implementing it. SFP has shown more positive effects on countries than negatives. Among them are, it serves as enrolment and retention tool in beneficiary schools in countries. A study conducted by Akanbi (2011) in Nigeria revealed that, there has been an increase in enrolment of pupils in Osun state where prior to the commencement of the programme, in 2002/2003, the highest enrolment figure was 97,010 and increased to 130,000 in 2005/2006 academic year (Akanbi, 2011). An increased enrolment figure has also been noticed in India where there was 15% increase in the total enrolment of school children (Drake et al., 2016). Before Njaa Marufuku Kenya (NMK) programme has taken full course in 2006 in Kenya, the average enrolment of beneficiary schools was around 112 but escalated to 557 in 2010 and those schools without the SFP had average enrolment of 221 in 2006 but had just increased by 2.7% (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016). The Mid-Day Meal Scheme really helped to increased enrolment and attendance among school children and also controlled truancy among teachers in India (Agnihotri, 2005).

The school feeding programme in Pakistan has increased enrolment in beneficiary schools and raised attendance from 73% to 95% (Ahmed, 2004). Another study in Bangladesh by the International Food Policy Institute on the outcome of feeding policy confirmed that, 14.2% increase in enrolment rates was realized and the likelihood of dropping out of school decreased by 7.5% and attendance rate per month increased by 1.3 days (Ahmed, 2004). The adhesive power of

the school feeding programme was experimented in Malawi where a test of the school feeding programme for just a period of 3 months led to 5% and 35% of increment in enrolment and attendance respectively (WFP, 2013).

Another importance of school meals is the positive effects of improving child nutrition and academic excellence. Vermeesch & Kremer are of the view that, the nutrients in school meals is helpful for children to improve their in their academic excellence (Vermeesch & Kremer, 2004). This is linked with the point raised by Kazianga et al. (2008) that school feeding programmes are platforms for increased in academic excellence, cognitive enhancement and school enrolment booster for children. From a research conducted about the nutritional status of 600 children in state primary school in Dakar-Senegal, result from bio-medical data revealed that, 5% of the school children are stunted with unsatisfactory micronutrient status showing 36% lacking vitamin A, 39% lacking iron and 26% being zinc-deficiency (Fiorentino, 2015). Dr. Butler Jones, argued in the Chief Public Officer's comments on the affairs of Public Health in Canada that, when children do not eat before going to school or take unbalanced diet, their energy rate, ability to think and remember, problem solving skills, innovation, concentration and behavior are all poorly activated and affect the full realization of their potential and 83.3% of teachers in public primary schools in Fafi sub-county in Kenya agreed on the improvement of pupils cognitive and learning abilities after the school feeding programme has been introduced (Butler-Jones, 2008; Wekasa, 2015). In Nepal, a research into the attendance and enrolment of children pointed out that, the likelihood of schooling is measured 5% for underdeveloped kids compared with 27% for children having appreciable nutritional status (Mock & Leslie, 1986).

Another important aspect of school feeding programme around the globe is its link with the employment and local agricultural production in countries implementing this social intervention policy (SFP). Though the proof of the impacts of SFP on employment and local agricultural development is difficult to access in more countries, few countries are able to substantiate their claims (WFP, 2013). SFP is anticipated to give job opportunities to citizens, especially local folks in their respective countries, data from Osun-state indicated that, 3007 cooks were employed as caterers to cook and serve school children with school meals and this has given meaningful work to some portion of the youth especially women; there are also 1,000 kitchen women employed in 767 state primary schools and 400 in state public pre-primary schools as the result of the National School Nutrition Programme in Cape-Verde (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016).

Though there are linkages of local farmers and school feeding programme in countries, this linkage is in a minimal scale with example from Namibia school feeding programme, large quantity of maize for school meals are exported from South Africa and Zambia because of low quantity production from Namibian farmers due to the nature of their land which do not support maize production (Drake et al., 2016). Namibia school feeding policy is somehow better than Mexico school feeding programme in terms of linkages to local production because in Mexico, local farmers contribute less to the supply of foodstuff to the programme because, it is made mandatory to be a registered supplier before such a contract can be given and also, few registered farmers that are local farmers do not meet the standard during the tendering process hence national suppliers are always given the chance to operate (Drake et al., 2016). Efforts by some countries such as Botswana to depend on the supply from local producers for school feeding proved futile due to inability of them to produce in bulk with high quality level and also maintain regular supply (Drake et al., 2016).

In some school feeding countries, institutions and practices supported the link of local farmers to the school feeding programme. In Brazil 30% purchase from the local farmers is backed by law since 2009 and since the introduction of Law No.11.947, the purchasing of supplies from local and small holder farmers increased, where 67% of states and municipalities buy from small and local farmers (Presidência da República, 2009). The arrangement between local farmers in India and their government resulted in the supply of local raw foods ranging from 25% to 30% to the government for school meals (Kumar, 2011).

In order to have a high link between the school feeding programme and the local farmers, Cote d'Ivoire has introduced the use of modern equipment and other inputs such as fertilizers, urea, selected seeds, tractors and seedlings to provide high yields for school canteens . Yield of rice after application of modern inputs by local farmers recorded 1,200-8,000kg/hectare, 5200kg/hectare for tomato and 1,100kg/hectare for maize and this made raw foodstuffs easily accessible and available for school canteens (DNC, PCD and PAM, 2011). Governments therefore need to train and equip farmers with financial and technical supports for the realization of school feeding policy impacts on local agriculture production and employment (De Hauware, 2008).

## **2.15 FUNDING AND BUDGETING OF SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMMES**

Data about funding school feeding policies in different countries is generally difficult due to the variety in modalities employed by different countries with unequal income level (WFP, 2013). Whiles information on budgets and funding of school feeding programmes from less developed countries are to some extent easy to access than high-income countries because major funding of SFP is done by governments and donor agencies whose data are made available for organizations and other institutions (Drake et al., 2016).

Majority of low income countries implementation of the SFP were sponsored by their respective government and donors especially from the beginning of the policy. The United Nations World Food Programme (WFP) had sponsored the Government of Namibia in funding the school feeding programme from 1992 to 1994 after the pilot programme in 1991 (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016). Without an exception, Ghana also enjoyed assistance in one or the other from international donors for the implementation of SFP. Ghana benefited from Dutch government's support for the GSFP from 2006 to 2010 costing 40 million euros equivalent to US\$46,674,446 or GH¢104,000,000 when US\$1 was equivalent to GH¢2.23 (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016). In 2008, the WF, Japan, EU, The World Bank and other international donors supported Cote d'Ivoire to be able to raise 2.5 billion francs equivalent to US\$5 million for school feeding programme (DNC, 2012). In the same vain, there was also financial and technical support to the Government of Ecuador by WFP and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) to run the country's SFP from 1980s to 2009 before the government took full responsibility of the programme (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016). To show how the Ecuadorian government is committed to the execution of the school feeding programme, in 2011 state budget, US\$70 million was allocated to SFP and this portrayed how school feeding as a social intervention policy has won the commitment and political will of policy makers in Ecuador (Drake et al., 2016).

The availability and easy access of individuals' information and data by the government agencies in United States has helped US to develop a comprehensive method in funding the National School Lunch Programme (NSLP) for which funding is done by either the government, parents or both depending on the family income level (USDA, 2017). In funding of NSLP, any child in a beneficiary school may benefit through the NSLP but what a student pays depends on the income

level the student's family. Students from homes with income of 130% or less of nationwide poverty level are qualify for free meals and for students that are qualified for subsidized price meals are students from homes whose income status must be between 130%-185% of the poverty level whereas children whose family income is above the poverty level (185% and above) are levied by food authority for their school meals (Masangcay, 2014).

As it stands now, majority of the expenses of school feeding programme is bear by many lowincome countries themselves. In 2012, Mali budgeted 2.8 billion francs (US\$5.6 million) for SFP with cost per year per child of 4,500 CFA francs in 2009 and Namibia with Gross Domestic Product per capita of US\$5,786 in 2012 also budgeted N\$87,000,000 (US\$9,830,508) for the full cost for the implementation of NSFP IN 2012-2013 financial year with an estimate of N\$282 (US\$31.85) as the cost per year per child (GRN, 2012b). Figures gathered from Drake et al. (2016) indicated that, India with Gross Domestic Product per capita of US\$1,509, budgeted US\$3,850 million in 2010-2011 for the implementation of Mid-Day Meal Scheme with cost per year per child of about US\$32.40 as compared to Chile with Gross Domestic Product per capita of US\$15,732 in 2013 budgeted US\$624 million for school feeding programme with cost per child per year of US\$331.52 on which US\$1.72 worth of ration will be provided per child (Drake et al., 2016). In conclusion, the income level of a country really the reflects the budget and funding of public policies in the world because the income level of a country determine how much a country can afford to spend on the implementation of a programme.

## **2.16 FACTORS AFFECTING SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME IN COUNTRIES**

### **2.16.1 Lack of Supportive Infrastructure**

School feeding policies varies from one country to another. In some countries like Malawi, the community's support is to provide firewood, cooking and serving meals to students. In Namibia, communities where school feeding programmes are implemented select their own people from the community as caterers for the school, construct store rooms and cooking shelters (WFP, 2012).

In some schools under SFP, there are lacks of a convenient place for pupils to eat their foods comfortably. Kitchens are in bad conditions, no access to portable water and some store rooms are very small to keep foodstuffs (Taylor & Ogbogu, 2016). These trigger some caterers to cook outside the school premises for children (Taylor & Ogbogu, 2016). Wangari (2014) maintained that, poor infrastructure in schools under SFP is a big challenge to its implementation. She noticed that, there are some schools without clean and safe drinking water for cooking school meals. Her study in Kajiado County in Nairobi revealed that, bad roads within the locality that link the schools pose a challenge for delivery of suppliers especially in raining seasons and this sometimes ends up school children to go without meals.

### **2.16.2 Lack of Effective Monitoring and Evaluation**

Monitoring and supervision of school feeding programme is very essential because it is the pivot for the successful outcome of the policy. The District Assembly and the SIC are the main bodies responsible for monitoring and evaluating SFP in schools. A research done by Taylor & Ogbogu (2016) in Osun State, Nigeria, pointed out that lack of monitoring and evaluation of the SFP to ensure quality food preparation and sanitation of the environment where school meals are prepared

and served are some of the challenges of the implementation of the SFP. A study conducted by Osiero (2014) revealed that, majority of parents do not monitor or supervise how their wards' meals are prepared in schools and whether the meals are cooked or eaten in a hygienic conditions. She noted that in some schools too teachers feel reluctant to supervise the operations of caterers, importantly cooking and serving of school meals.

### **2.16.3 Insufficient Funding and Delayed Payment of Caterers**

Funding of the SFP is a huge task which is unbearable for most government of developing countries. Despite the fact that there are donors that support the programme in majority of such countries, some governments are not able to raise funds to supplement the financial assistance available to them to pay SFP and this causes delays in the payment of caterers that purchase, cook and serve school children with meals (Drake et al., 2016; De Hauwere, 2008). The Botswana School Feeding Programme (2013) indicated that, in 1998 when government took full responsibility of SFP funding, it has been a challenge to provide the full budget needed for the implementation of the programme. Taylor & Ogbogu (2016) maintained that, lack of sufficient funds available to the Federal Government and Osun State for the implementation of O-MEALS in Osun State, Nigeria, resulted in inadequacy of desks and classrooms to support the increasing enrolment in schools.

### **2.16.4 Poor Linkages of Farmers and SFP**

SFP in countries are meant to improve on local agricultural production by increasing demand for local foodstuffs for school meals. Global School Feeding Sourcebook (2016) analyzed SFP in South Africa and pointed out that, most foodstuffs that are used to prepare school meals are not

purchased from the immediate communities where the SFP is located, hence scored insignificant linkage between the SFP and the local farmer (Drake et al., 2016).

Kadenge & Aluko (2014) cited Espejo et al. (2009) that, HGSFP is meant to alleviate the poor condition of the local farmer. These farmers need critical attention and support to acquire advance inputs such as fertilizers, hybrid seeds, weedicides and education on good agricultural practices which will go a long way to provide the needed local foodstuffs in large quantity for the SFP. They further concluded that local farmers were not fed with education on the programme to know their contribution and benefit the implementation of SFP has on their living conditions. Local farmers are therefore ignorant of this golden opportunity for having already market for their produce (De Hauwere, 2008). This reduces the chance for HGSFP to achieve one of its objectives of developing or expanding demand for local agricultural foodstuffs (De Hauwere, 2008). Kadenge & Aluko (2014) noticed empirically in Kinango Sub-County, Kwale County, Kenya that, there is no major significant increase in the production of maize even after the introduction of HGSFP in Kenya.

### **2.16.5 High cost of running SFP**

Implementation of a SFP in a country is very costly. Governments spend a lot of money to cater for the smooth implementation of SFP in developing economies. In 2010-2014 academic years in Kenya, the fund needed to provide school meals to 762,715 school children in 195 school days is US\$10.41 million. Feeding cost per child per year stood at US\$28.00 (KSH 2,421) for HGSM in 2012 (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016). Report highlighting the high cost of SFP as a factor affecting implementation of SFP in India too, where prices of foodstuffs are increasing in alarming rate. A situation which renders even high performing states unable to raise funds for the

SFP even if the central government has made its part of the fund available (Government of India, 2006).

The cost of running SFP does not only take the cost of meals into consideration. SFPs are costly to run and maintain, the cost per child per day is only for the school meal but the administrative and other expenses paid by government raises the total cost of providing SFP unbearable for some governments. Due to the high cost of operating SFP, some communities contribute to fund the programme which resulted in drop-out of some poor school children whose school parents could not afford to add their quota (Wangari, 2014).



## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This study seeks to identify the factors affecting implementation of school feeding programme in Ho Municipal Assembly in the Volta region. Semi-structured interview guides were developed by the researcher to aid him gather enough data in six (6) beneficiary schools in the Volta region on factors affecting the implementation of school feeding programme in Ho municipality.

This chapter entails, research design, target population, sample size, sampling techniques, data collection instrument, data collection procedures, pre-testing of questionnaire for instrument validity and reliability, data presentation and analysis and ethical consideration.

#### 3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is a plan that is taken in order to get a study done (Churchil & Lacobucci, 2005). Kinnear & Taylor argued that, research design of a study also determines the form of information to be collected; its origin and the data collection instrument to be employed (Kinnear & Taylor, 1996).

The study applied a descriptive survey design. Descriptive research offers an image of a condition as it clearly occurs to explain existing activity, finding and also to improve concepts (Burns & Grove, 2003). The definition of descriptive research by Aggarwal (2008), descriptive research is keen in collection of data about prevalent condition for report and explanation. The researcher

decided to use descriptive research on the bases that, it provides tangible information from a large population about SFP for analysis and clarification (Neeru, 2012; Mugenda, 1999).

Descriptive survey allows gathering of data through research instrument such as questionnaire and interview from respondents which are used to find, discover and analyze a particular occurrence (M<sup>u</sup>IKiugu, 2014).

Qualitative research was adopted by the researcher to organize data for analysis in this research work. Nkwi et al. defined a qualitative research as a research which organizes data in a form of sound, text, images and not ordinal values (Nkwi et al., 2001). Qualitative research seeks to explain events in their natural situation in order to make people understand facts relating to the setting (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). The importance of the qualitative method are highlighted by Peshkin (1993) that, it comprises of interviews, observation, interactions visual texts, stories about life and information gathered from personal experiences that are important in solving societal problems of human beings (Peshkin, 1993).

Semi-structured interview was used by the researcher as a research instrument to gather information from participants considered vital to the topic under study. The semi-structured interview was preferred by the researcher because, it allows the researcher to gather data on specific area of interest to the research and also allows the participants to give additional information about the research topic or questions posed which might be vital to the study (Mathers et al., 1998). Semi-structure interviews are design in a conversational style and are used to uncover attitudes of people, beliefs, choice of behavior and if designed well, it provides more information the researcher is not expecting than the rigid or structured interview that may limit respondents' explanations and explanation of social reality from respondents' point of views (Raworth et al.,

2012). In semi-structured interviews, qualitative data are generated which are used to explain research questions and it also allows the researcher to probe the participants in order to explain their points for clearer understanding which is totally absent in structured interviews (Mathers et al., 1998).

### **3.3 TARGET POPULATION**

Target population refers to all the elements who meet a particular condition identified for a research enquiry (Alvi, 2016). The target population may not be necessarily equal to those sampled for a study; it may be a subset of the actual target population (Greenland, 2005). In a target population, the population may be considered to be either homogeneous (all members have common characteristics altogether) or heterogeneous (members in the population are not the same in all aspects). The nature of the population depends on the nature of the research to be undertaken (Alvi, 2016). The target population for this study can be considered as heterogeneous which is made up of all schools benefiting from the GSFP in the Ho Municipal Assembly in the Volta region. In addition, the researcher targeted the caterers, PTA/SMC representatives, parents or guardian of pupils in the beneficiary school, School Health Coordinators, classroom teachers, officials from municipal secretariat of GSFP and Ghana Education Service (G.E.S).

Pupils are targeted for this research work for data collection because; they are the direct beneficiaries of the programme for some years now and therefore can share information on some challenges facing the programme in their respective schools. The PTA/SMC are also justified to be part of the target population for this study base on the fact that, some of them are serving as School Implementation Committee members (SIC) in the various schools who are charged to play supervisory roles in the implementation of GSFP in schools. They have some experiences to share

on the programme since most of them are also parents of the school children under the programme. They are also vital for the study because majority of them are farmers which are supposed to feed caterers with raw foodstuffs, so may have some flaws and suggestions to share with the researcher. The Head teachers, School Health Coordinators and supportive teachers are the first supervisors of the GSFP at the school level, they also interact frequently with pupils and caterers of the programme, hence have more to share about the problems affecting the implementation of the SFP in their schools.

The caterers are employed to buy, cook and serve pupils with one hot meal as defined by the GSFP and they also get into contact with other stakeholders for dispensation of their duties for the goal of GSFP so, they are needed to give information on their experiences and suggestions about the problem affecting the implementation of school feeding programme in schools they serve.

The officials from the municipal secretariat of GSFP and Ghana Education Service (GES) are also included for interview about the factors affecting the implementation of the programme because; they also have oversight responsibilities over the implementation of the GSFP in their districts. They monitor and report the progress of the programme. They also have in-depth knowledge about how the programme should be run and can explain by comparing expectations with realities on the ground.

### **3.4 SAMPLING SIZE**

The numbers of respondents from whom data is collected or number of participants from whom answers to questions is derived in a study represent the sample size of the study (Annum, 2017).

The sample size of this research work is made up of six (6) Head teachers, six (6) school health coordinators, twelve (12) classroom teachers teaching in the present school for the past four years and above, two (2) PTA/SMC representatives from each school making twelve (12), six (6) caterers from the six selected schools, two (2) pupils each from the six schools selected making twelve (12) pupils in a whole, two (2) parents from each selected schools summing up to twelve (12) parents for the study, one (1) municipal SFP officer and two (2) circuit supervisors from the six circuits. In all the sample size for this research work is sixty-nine (69) participants from the target population. These participants were expected by the researcher to provide the researcher with information base on their experience, observation and knowledge about the topic under study.

### **3.5 SAMPLING TECHNIQUES**

Simple random sampling was employed by the researcher to randomly choose six (6) circuits from the eleven (11) educational circuits in the Ho municipal assembly. Simple random sampling method was used by the researcher to give equal chance of inclusion to all the circuits in the municipality. This helped to limit or avoid the bias that would have been created when the researcher select circuits without resorting to random sampling method.

From the six (6) circuits selected, one school under GSFP per circuits is selected using the random method of sampling. Simple random sampling was applied here by the researcher in other to give a probability chance to all the schools under SFP in each of the six (6) circuits an equal chance to be part of the study. Therefore, the school in each circuit was objectively selected by the researcher for the study. From the six (6) schools selected, the six head teachers were purposively selected for the study because, they were considered as one of the important stakeholders at local level of the implementation of GSFP in schools. They are the first contact for caterers, teachers and pupils

concerning issues of school feeding in school hence, they have some knowledge and experience to share with the researcher on the factors that affect the implementation of school feeding programme in their school. Purposive sampling was used to select the head teachers because, there are only one head teacher per schools so, purposive sampling was judged the most convenient method of sampling of head teachers.

One school health coordinator was purposively selected from each school to respond to interview questions from the researcher. In majority of the schools in Ho municipality, they have only one health coordinator per school; hence all the six school health coordinators were purposively sampled, since they are part of the School Implementation Committee members, they can contribute immensely to this research by providing information to the researcher.

Caterers of the sampled beneficiary schools were also purposively included to be part of the respondents since they are charged to purchase, cook and serve pupils with food, so, they have more information to share with the researcher during interview. Purposive sampling of nonprobability sampling was used to select the caterers since the ratio of caterers is one is to each beneficiary school.

Two (2) classroom teachers teaching for four years or more in the present beneficiary school selected for the study was sampled using simple random sampling method. List of teachers teaching in the beneficiary school for four years or more was taken from the head teachers and simple random sampling method was used to select two (2) teachers. This process was repeated in each of the six selected schools. Classroom teachers were selected for this research work since they usually interact with pupils in and outside school, observe activities of the SFP in their schools and were deemed fit to provide information the researcher will ask for.

Two (2) representatives of PTA/SMC preferably, chairpersons or their representatives in the SIC were added to the participants purposively. The PTA/SMC in each school has a vital role to play in the execution of GSFP in beneficiary schools hence; they are justifiable to answer questions pertaining to the programme. Purposive sampling was selected among other non-probability and probability samples to help get the right representatives that are also part of the School Implementation Committee in each selected school. Two (2) parents from each selected schools were included to the number of respondents for vital information because, they are part of the stakeholders who are supposed to monitor the progress of the programme in their schools. Most of the parents are also farmers that are required to supply foodstuff to caterers for school meals. Convenient method of non-probability sampling was used to sample two (2) parents from each school's community. The convenient sampling was used to sample the parents so that, parents that are farmers are included in the study to help the researcher obtain vital information from them concerning the linkage of farmers and the school feeding programme in their schools.

Two (2) pupils from each school selected were purposively sampled to aid the researcher in obtaining information from them. Pupils are the direct beneficiaries of the school feeding programme. The school prefects (boy and girl) were picked among the pupils to answer interview questions about SFP in their school. The school prefects were purposively selected based on the reason that, they are the heads of pupil level administration and they sometimes help teachers and caterers in the day-to-day running of the SFP in their schools. Since, pupils are direct beneficiaries of the programme, they were also considered important to provide the researcher with information based on their experience and knowledge about the factors that affect the implementation of school feeding programme in their school.

One officer from the municipal office of the school feeding programme was also added to the participants for the study since the municipal secretariat of the GSFP is the highest office of the GSFP in the municipality and officers there are charged to coordinate and monitor the implementation of the programme so, their information on the programme is very vital. The purposive method of sampling was used to select the officer which will respond to the researcher's interview questions. The purposive method was opted at the expense of other methods because, not everyone working at the Ghana school feeding programme secretariat can have answers to all questions from the researcher.

Also, two (2) circuit supervisors were sampled from the six (6) circuits already chosen from the eleven circuits in the municipality through the use of simple random sampling method. Circuit supervisors of the two circuits selected randomly was added to the respondents of this research. Random sampling was used to select circuit supervisors because, almost all of them have fair knowledge about the school feeding programmes in their schools and to give equal chances they have to be selected randomly. The circuit supervisors were added to the respondents for the research work because, they are the general supervisors of all schools in their respective circuits level and they coordinate with the head teachers, SMC/PTAs to help oversee the implementation of the SFP in schools.

In a simple conclusion, the research study has sixty nine (69) participants made up twelve (12) pupils, six (6) head teachers, six (6) school health coordinators, twelve (12) classroom teachers, six (6) caterers, twelve (12) PTA/SMC representatives, twelve (12) parents, one (1) SFP officer and two (2) circuit supervisors.

### 3.6 SOURCES OF DATA COLLECTION

In this study, both primary and secondary sources of data were used extensively. Primary data was gathered from sampled participants in the Ho Municipal Assembly through semi-structured interview guides and administered by the researcher on factors affecting the implementation of SFP in Ho Municipality in the Volta region. These interview guides were administered and questions answered provided the researcher with enough data on GSFP in the municipality. The semi-structured interview helps the researcher to direct the respondents to the topic of interest to the researcher. Respondents are given the chance in semi-structured interviews to further elaborate points for clarifications.

The secondary sources of data gathered for the study was obtained from books, reports, journals, papers and other relevant materials. Most of the secondary data were downloaded through the internet. Some of the other sources where secondary data were collected are the policy documents, press releases and papers by scholars about school feeding programmes in other districts, regions or countries.

Secondary data gathered from these sources helped the researcher to work in detailed about the review of related literature on the topic under study. Through the secondary sources the researcher was able to acquire extensive knowledge on GSFP which helped him in designing interview guides for this study since data from both primary and secondary sources should be complete and accurate to help decrease professional risks when making decisions (Kortleven et al., 2013).

### 3.7 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

An instrument designed for an inquiry is what you use to gather data to confirm your research questions in a study (Kok, 2013). Research instrument is termed fact finding strategies which are carefully designed to gather data analysis (Annum, 2017). Interview is the posing of a number of questions to individuals and noting down of the replies, it may involve a face-to-face interaction or can be done on the phone (Mathers et al., 1998). In semi-structured interview, the researcher poses worded questions that help to direct the informant to the type of information he wants and the further follow up open questions helps the researcher to get deeper understanding of views (Vulliamy et al., 1990).

Semi-structured interview guide was adopted by the researcher to obtain information from the respondents selected for the research work. In the semi-structured interview, it comprises of the key questions the researcher is interested of and it gives chances to interviewee to add other points or clarifications. Semi-structured interview was vital and chosen by the researcher because it helped to gather information from respondents experiences, opinion or ideas. Semi-structured interview guide was developed by the researcher which comprised of the space for writing demographic information of the respondents. Respondent sex, age, position and other equally important information needed from the respondents are provided a space to be filled by the researcher. This was done to help him during the analysis of data from the interview. The researcher outlined a number of open ended questions to help understand the ideas, opinions and experiences of the interviewees and through that answers were provided to answer the research questions of the study. The semi-structured interview guide was provided for all the respondents to help frame questions meant for each category of respondents.

Sections are provided for each question in the guide to help the researcher note the responses of the participants. In totality, semi-structured interview was selected by the researcher because it helps frame the interest of the researcher into perspective which helped the researcher to get ideas relating to the topic under study.

### **3.8 PRE-TESTING OF INTERVIEW GUIDE**

An instrument is considered reliable if its measurement or process is consistent and allocates similar scores to characters or substances with identical criteria (Ganesh, 2009). Validity is defined by the extent an investigation scores what it is due to measure (Gregory, 1992, P. 117). Measurement of reliability of a certain instrument is done by assessing its continuous unchanging responses gotten whenever the research instrument is administered at the same condition, in short reliability measures how stable an outcome is (Altheide & Johnson, 1994).

The validity of the research instrument was done by the university supervisor for the researcher's project to check whether the questions in the semi-structured interview guide pass the validity test. Corrections and suggestions were taken from the supervisor and questions adjusted and sentences rephrased to help the researcher address the research questions of this project work.

Semi-structured interview guides were tested at Avee R.C Primary school during the pre-test after the approval by the university supervisor for its validity to help the researcher ascertain that, all the questions were clear and are not misleading. The assistant head teacher, two (2) teachers, one (1) pupil, assistant cook, a parent were interviewed using the guide for pre-testing. Questions that seemed ambiguous were reframed to aid easy understanding of the questions in the interview guide to check reliability of the research instrument.

### 3.9 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Information for this research work was collected under the auspices of the university supervisor who approved the proposal and reframed the interview guide of the study. Letters were served to institutional heads and officers selected from the target population for the study. Before the administration of the interview guide, the researcher went to the different schools and communities selected for the research and created good rapport with some of the respondents that were found. The purpose and importance of the research work was well explained to selected participants of the study by the researcher in order to achieve informed consent of participants.

In order to make respondents confident in the researcher and able to provide information, letters from institutional heads, student identity cards were shown to some selected participants. The interview was administered on the dates set aside by the respondents and the researcher which was different from one selected school or community to the other. The semi-structured interview was conducted by the researcher himself in June, 2018.

Each selected respondent was politely approached by the researcher for the face-to-face interaction or conversation on weekdays. Some teachers and pupils were met during break times and after school hours in order to avoid misuse of instructional hours for teachers and pupils.

PTA/SMC representatives in each community were scheduled for the interview from 3 o'clock in the afternoon each agreed weekdays, so that, those meeting times with respondents will not be affected by their farming activities. Caterers were also met at school hours for their responses to the interview questions. Other individual schedules were made to interview those respondents that were not met during the normal visit by the researcher. Information shared by the respondents was

noted on the individual interview guide sheet which was prepared by the researcher and voice recorder was used to record the whole interview for later references.

### **3.10 DATA ANALYSIS AND REPRESENTATION**

The demographic characteristics of the respondents were gathered from the interview answer sheet by the researcher and organized using percentage tables, pie charts and histograms.

Respondents' gender, age and other equally important information about them were represented through the use of SPSS to generate tables and charts.

Qualitative content analysis is done by the researcher to put the interview results from the respondents into analytical perspective. A content analysis is a thorough and organized discussion of the content of a specific material for classifying patterns and themes (Lal Das & Bhaskaran, 2008). Content analysis can also be explained as the scientific study of content of communication (Berelson, 1952). Content analysis depends on the message or communication gathered and draws analytical conclusions based on whatever information is in the message (Nachamias & Nachamias, 1976).

Based on Weber's definition, content analysis is a research methodological method that uses defined processes to make valid inferences from texts (Weber, 1990). The researcher after gathering the information from the respondents classified the materials into categories or themes by coding them so that, a sentence or a word should belong to one and only one category (Chadwick et al., 1984). This is very necessary since it helps researchers to identify pattern of the data gathered. Coding is very essential tool in content analysis because it decreases the amount of themes by disintegrating related ones into bigger classes (Dey, 1993). The researcher then formulated a broad picture of the

research theme by generated groupings for analysis (Burnard, 1996). Some words and sentences of the respondents are quoted verbatim to support the analysis done.

One of the advantages of using content analysis method is that, it is very flexible method to use because, anytime the researcher found out that an important information was wrongly coded or cannot be found among the categories, it is very easy to refer to the original text recorded for adjustment, and this is difficult when using experimental research method (Woodrum, 1984).

It is very good to note some disadvantages associated with content analysis method that, its generalization is only based on the content of the texts, which was coded based on the researchers own categorization of materials which may not reflect the same idea of the respondents (Lal Das & Bhaskaran, 2008). Also, the content analysis method cannot be used to verify (test) casual relationships between variables and the reliability and validity issues in content analysis is questionable (Chadwick et al., 1984; Krippendorf, 1980).

### **3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION**

The research was done under generally acceptable ethical principles. The researcher upheld the dignity of all respondents in high regard. All participants were accorded maximum respect and the purpose and objectives of the study was well explained to the respondents for their informed consent. Respondents were assured hundred percent security of confidentiality. Questions from participants were answered by the researcher and his in a polite manner to show respect for them. Respect was accorded to all participants in all the stages without considering differences in their ages, gender, and level of education or economic status.

The researcher considered avoidance of harm, privacy, confidentiality and informed consent as pillars in his research study (Burnham et al., 2004). The informed consent was achieved by the researcher during his research by explaining the purpose, processes and importance of the research to the respondents for them to freely accept to be involved in the study. Some accepted orally but others such as the head teachers, SFP officers and the circuit supervisors appended their signatures to that effect. Trust was also built by the researcher by showing his student identity card and admission letter to those who were doubted him.

The confidentiality in the ethic consideration was well dealt with by the researcher where the names and location of respondents were not attached to interview guides and comments raised by them. The researcher was able to convince the participants enough which led to the high level of their willingness to participate in the study. There was absolutely no exertion of force or coercion on any participant to be involved in the study.

### **3.12 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The administration of the interview guide to participants was time consuming because some of the questions needed to be translated into the local language for some participants such as parents, PTA/SMC representatives and some pupils. Data organized from the SMC and PTA representatives were delayed because about 90% of them are farmers who sometimes leave for farm before the researcher arrives for data collection. The researcher sometimes had to stay back till they come back from their respective farms.

One limitation of the qualitative research approached used by the researcher is that, the outcome of a qualitative research cannot be generalized with same degree of certainty among the population from which respondents are sampled from than quantitative method (Otieno, 2009). Also, in the

content analysis method used, there is a high degree of ambiguity in terms of language or words, meaning of some words has effects on the coding and categorization of themes for analysis (Lal Das & Bhaskaran, 2008). The tape recorder used for the recording of the interview was useful for replaying of discussions for necessarily corrections and changes.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter entails the analysis, discussions and interpretation of both the primary data collected using interview guide as an instrument and secondary data from books, journals and documents on the factors affecting the implementation of the school feeding programme in Ho Municipal Assembly, Volta region. The interview guide was designed by the researcher and data was collected from respondents through face-to-face interactions between the researcher and participants. There were sixty-nine (69) participants for this research, which are part of the target population that equally have an intensive knowledge about the research topic.

The study placed more emphasis on impacts of school feeding programme on pupils, supportive infrastructure available for school feeding programme in the municipality, monitoring and evaluation of school feeding programme, level of community participation in school feeding programme, funding of school feeding programme. Data was also gathered around the linkages of farmers to school feeding programme, challenges facing the implementation of the SFP and respondents were made to suggest some ways to combat such challenges in order to have a successful implementation in the of SFP in the municipality and Ghana as a whole.

Percentage tables, bar charts and pie charts are used to represent the demographic information of head teachers, classroom teachers, pupils, parents, PTA/SMC representatives, caterers, officers from G.E.S and municipal SFP directorate whiles content analysis of qualitative research method is used by the researcher to analyze materials and information gathered from interviews.

**Table 4.1: Number of Respondents for the Study**

<b>Categories of participants</b>	<b>Number</b>
<b>Head teachers</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Classroom teachers</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>School Health Coordinator</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Caterers</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Pupils</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>Parents</b>	<b>12 PTA/SMC</b>
<b>Representatives</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>SFP Officer</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Circuit Supervisors</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>69</b>

#### **4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS**

During the interview, the researcher asked respondents about the demographic information which he noted down. Information about gender, age, number of years at present station, occupation, and the highest qualification were gathered from respondents. The data of the demographic information of respondents were considered relevant to the study because, these variables could directly or indirectly influence the factors affecting the implementation of school feeding programme in the municipality.

### 4.2.1 Gender of Respondents

The gender of respondents was asked by the researcher during the face-to-face interaction with participants of the study and the answers were summarized in the table below.

**Table 4.2: Distribution of Participants by Gender**

#### GENDER OF PARTICIPANTS

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	37	53.6	53.6	53.6
Valid Female	32	46.4	46.4	100.0
Total	69	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field interview (2018).

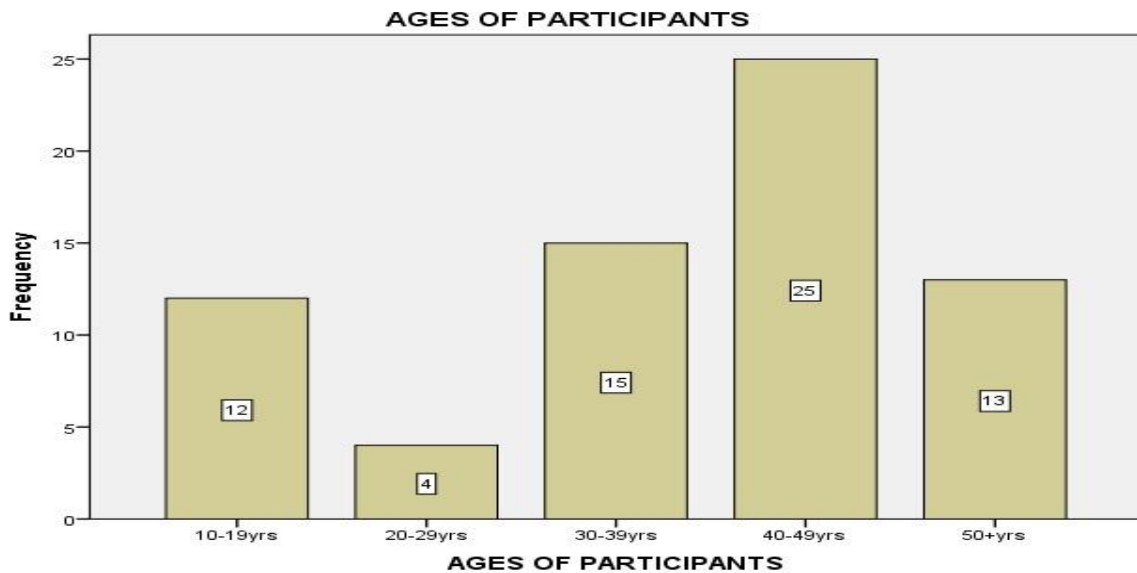
From table 4.1 which summarized the gender disparity of respondent's shows that, the differences in gender of the respondents that were interviewed by the researcher has just a slight differences with males 53.6% and females having 46.4% inclusion. This will help the researcher to get information shared by two distinctive categories which may have different experiences and values.

### 4.2.2 Age of Participants

The interview guides developed by the researcher provided a space to enter age of participants. The age of participants were needed to the researcher because, it shows how mature and experience

the key shareholders of the SFP are. The experience and knowledge they have may influence how they coordinate and monitor the programme in their respective communities. **Figure 4.1: Age**

**Distribution of Participants.**



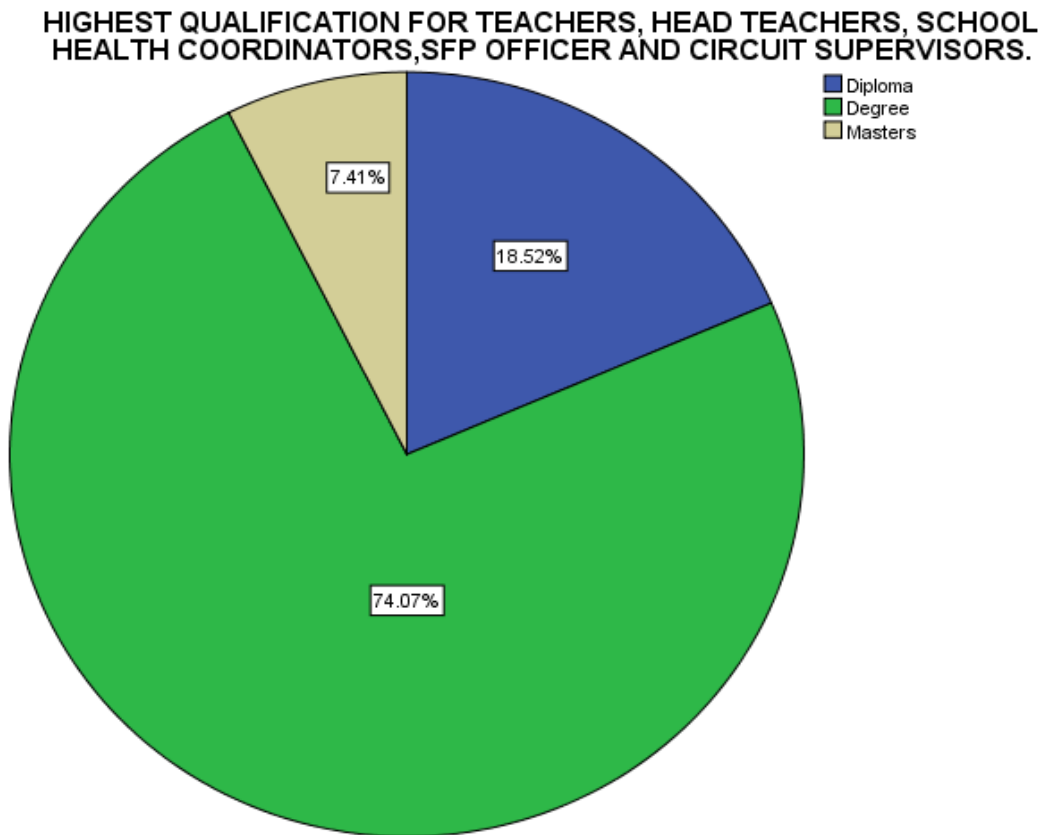
Source: Author's own construct (Field data, 2018).

From Figure 4.1 indicate that, from the 69 participants, 13 of them are of age 50 or more, 25 of them ranges from the age of 40 and 49 years, 15 of them have ages of 30 to 39 years, 4 of the participants have ages ranges between 20 to 29 years and 12 participants which were identified as pupils have ages from 10 to 19 years. The bar graph portray that, majority of respondents have years ranging from 30 years and above, so are youth that can have influence on the activities of the SFP in their community and schools.

### 4.2.3 Highest Qualification of Teachers, SFP Officer and Circuit Supervisor.

The researcher interviewed head teachers, classroom teachers, the SFP officer and two circuit supervisors about their highest qualification. The data given is represented below.

**Figure 4.2: The Highest Educational Qualification of Teachers, SFP Officer and Circuit Supervisor**



Source: Author's own construct (2018).

The portions depicted by the pie chart in figure 4.2 shows that, portion green which portrays 74.07% of respondents with degree has the highest portion, followed by those with diploma of

18.52% and some few are with Master degree constituting 7.41%. Teachers and officers from the SFP directorate including the Circuit supervisor of education are the key monitors and supervisors of the programme, therefore, their qualifications may influence how they plan and manage activities in schools which affect the implementation of the SFP in one way or the other.

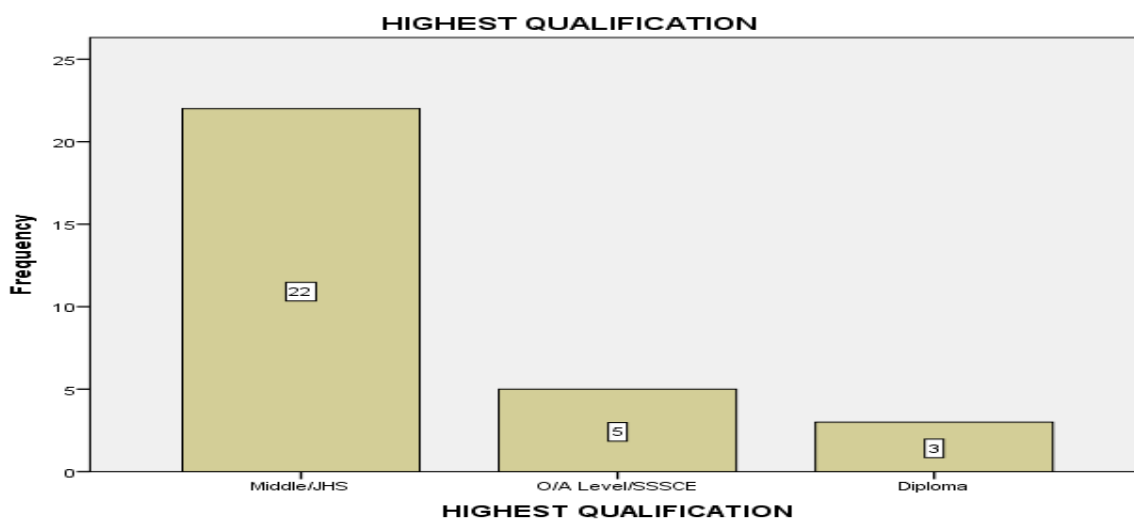
Appreciable qualification is necessary to manage SFP in our schools.

#### 4.3.4 Qualification of Parents, PTA/SMC and Caterers

The qualification of parents, PTA/SMC representatives and caterers were gathered by the researcher in order to complete the demographic section of respective participants interview guide.

These actors of the SFP have a high task to perform and their academic qualifications have influence on whatever strategies they undertake in implementing school feeding programme. The information of their highest educational qualification is tabled below.

**Figure 4.3: Highest Educational Qualification of Parents, PTA/SMC Representatives and Caterers.**



Source: Author's own construct (2018).

Figure 4.3 portrays that among 30 respondents interviewed in this category, 22 are with Middle/JHS qualification as the highest educational qualification, 5 have either obtained O'Level /O' Level or Senior High School certificate and 3 participants has a diploma as the highest qualification. From the bar graph represented, the most occurring highest qualification is Middle/JHS level. Educational levels of these actors influence their actions and inactions hence may have direct or indirect link with how the school feeding programme is implemented.

#### **4.2.5 Number of Years Head Teachers, Classroom Teachers and Caterers are working in the Present School.**

In order to know the duration Head teachers, classroom teachers and caterers are working or teaching in the selected schools, the researcher interviewed the participants about their posting years to the current school. The number of participants in all the above categories is 30 participants. The percentage table drawn below exhibits the findings.

**Table 4.3: Number of Years Head teachers, Classroom Teachers, School Health Coordinators and Caterers are working in the Present School**

#### **NUMBER OF YEARS RESPONDENTS ARE IN PRESENT SCHOOL**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1-3yrs	3	10.0	10.0	10.0
4-6yrs	21	70.0	70.0	80.0

7+yrs	6	20.0	20.0	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

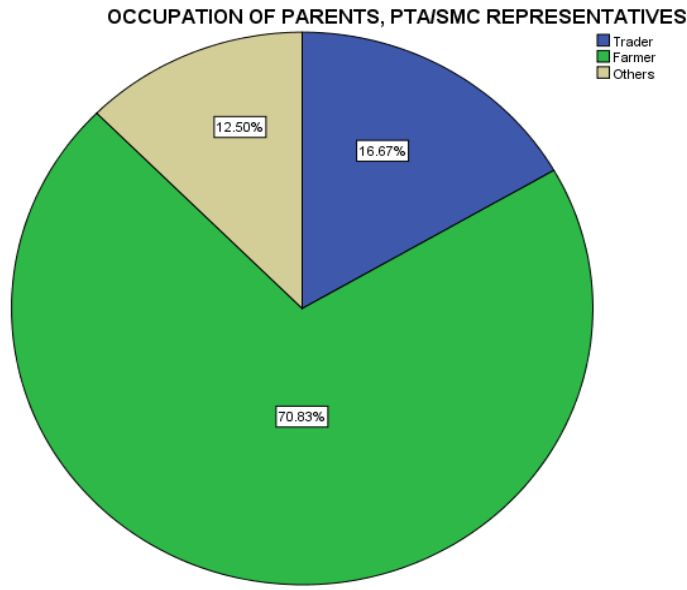
Source: Field Interview (2018).

From Table 4.2 above, 10% of the 30 participants are working at the present station from 1 to 3yrs, 21% are for 4 to 6yrs, for those serving the highest year in the current school which is 7yrs and above are 6% of the 30 participants interviewed about number of years served in their present school. From Table 4.2, the information gathered shows that the highest number of staffs served for years ranging from 4 to 6 years. This therefore means that, the sampled respondents for the research have more experience and knowledge in their present school about school feeding programme and can share with researcher factors affecting the implementation of school feeding programme in their schools.

#### **4.2.6 Occupation of Parents, PTA/SMC Representations.**

The researcher deemed it fit to interview parents, PTA/SMC representatives about their major occupations. The answers given are represented in the pie chart below.

**Figure 4.4: Occupation of Parents, PTA/SMC Representatives**



Source: Author's own construct (2018).

From Figure 4.4, it is conspicuous that, the biggest portion represents farmers have 70.83%, followed by traders with 16.67% and other equally important jobs representing 12.50%. The occupation of these participants are very necessary to the researcher in order to judge them appropriate for answering questions concerning the linkage of school feeding programme and other economic activities such as farming and trading in their localities.

### **4.3 IMPACTS OF SCHOOL FEEDING ON PUPILS.**

#### **4.3.1 Attendance**

The school feeding programme was adopted and implemented from 2005 with a number of objectives. One of such objectives is to increase enrolment and retention in beneficiary schools through the provision of one nutritious meal each schooling days to all primary and kindergarten pupils in beneficiary schools. In the face-to-face interaction with all the 69 sampled participants of

this study, the researcher posed a question to individual participants on whether school feeding programme is having any influence on pupils. Out of all the sixty-nine (69) participants attested to the fact that, the school feeding programme has an influence on pupils in one way or the other. Classroom teachers were of the view that, the school feeding programme has actually influence the attendance of their pupils. When the researcher checked class attendance registers of some schools it was actually confirmed that, absenteeism is minimal. The impact of the SFP was deeply expressed by one respondent who is a parent. She indicated that;

*“This school feeding programme has totally changed the way my children respond to going to school. They will wake up early, get their chores done and the small food I have, I always give it to them and they move to school as early as 6.30am. Unlike those days without the school feeding programme, they feel lazy to go to school especially, if I have less food to give to them”.*

It is found through the interviews of the respondents that, the school feeding programme influence the attendance of beneficiary pupils. This result of the interview on the impact of school feeding from this study corresponded to the study done by Akanbi (2011) that, SFP has instill confidence in pupils in public primary school and this led to positive attitude to schooling which manifests in their regularity, punctual attendance, minimized in absenteeism and active in academic activities in schools. It was also identified through a research done on SFP in Kenya that, solution to truancy among pupils in Kenya has been curbed due to the introduction of the SFP and it also assist parents by lowering their task of catering for their wards (Langinger, 2009). Majority of participants in their comments on impacts of school feeding programme highlighted that, the government should continue with the school feeding programme in their schools since it

is helpful in both the classroom and outside the school. Many classroom-teachers stressed on how the programme has put a stop to a bad habit among children who always come back late from break and sometimes do not return to school at all with a sole reason of eating in the house during break times. A head teacher who has been teaching in the current school for more than seven years confirmed that;

*“The programme has reduced some of my tasks of checking and driving pupils to prevent them from going to their houses while classes are in sessions. I also have a relief when complains of sickness is now at minimal rate, because some pupils do not before coming to school which results in bad health conditions. I thank SFP in my school”.*

A similar interview was administered by Oduro-Ofori & Adzoa-Yeboah (2014) at Kwaebibrim District in Ghana and the result stated that, 71% of parents appreciated the GSFP because it serves as a helper in times of crisis and keeps their children in school.

#### **4.3.2 Enrolment**

Through the interview on impacts of the school feeding programme on pupils, the data gathered from all the 69 participants were of the views that, the SFP influence the current enrolment figures in their respective schools. The PTA/SMC representatives and parents interviewed pointed out that, some children in the community who are not attending school are now in school. Some classroom teachers also made the researcher aware that, there is increase in the number of pupils in their classes compared to previous years where there is no programme like this and this increases according to them is out of the result of the feeding programmes in their schools. All head teachers from the sampled schools confirmed that, there is an increase in the number of pupils throughout

the academic years since the introduction of the school feeding programme. A head teacher made a comment that;

*“Actually the enrolment of the pupils now is encouraging than the former years when there was no school feeding programme. The total enrolment of pupils keeps increasing every term, even this term I admitted six (6) pupils in my school”.*

The interview conducted by the researcher revealed that, there is actually rise in the admission of pupils in beneficiary schools due to the introduction of school feeding programme though some few pupils interviewed said they do not come to school because of SFP. This finding on increase in enrolment due to school feeding programme is similar to a research done in Osun state school feeding programme in Nigeria where there is a significant increase from 97,010 to 130,000 in enrolment figures of pupils between 2002/2003 and 2005/2006 academic years in the state primary schools where school feeding programmes exist (Akanbi, 2011).

#### **4.3.3 Nutrition**

Though the interview about the impact of SFP on pupils shown a positive result, it is left to whether the meals taken by the beneficiary pupils are enough and whether of high nutritious rate.

Out of 69 respondents interviewed on whether the school meals are nutritious, 50 respondents representing 72.5% do not agree on school meals been nutritious. Some pupils further explained that, sometimes, the food is tasteless and caterers do not give fish or meat to them, they serve them with the “raw food”. A pupil made a comment during the interview that;

*“Our food, it has a fish scent but there is limited fish to be shred to all. Sometimes you will get a small fish called “adziatore” (similar to Keta school boys) in your soup or stew and that is final”.*

Interview on the quantity of school meals served to pupils portrayed that, out of 69 participants interviewed, 56 of them said the quantity of food served to pupils is not enough at all. There were some participants that stated during the interview that, some kindergarten pupils are able to get satisfied but the problem is those in the lower and upper primary schools. Findings on nutrition in this study affirmed a practical exploration study undertaken by De Hauware (2008) about GSFP which argued that the nutritious value of school meals are endangered by late and limited release of funds to caterers. It has been argued also by the Global Child Nutrition Foundation (2008) that, there is no laid down nutritional guides for SFP in Ghana and in some schools, menus are not used (SVN, 2000) to indicate which food is to be taken hence, children are provided with many starchy foods such as banku, rice and others with less fruits and vegetables.

Caterers’ comments on the nutritious nature and quantity of food served was that, there are times when they also feel bad when teachers and parents talk about quantity and nutrition aspect of the food they serve to pupils. To the caterers, they also have being doing what is necessary within their power to provide quality meals to pupils. Five (5) out of six (6) caterers said, they are also challenged with low cost per child per day charged for school meals and lack of funds from the government to purchase raw foodstuffs which also have an influence in the nutrition and quantity of school meals served. This comment is not different from the argument made by De Hauware (2008) in his practical exploration study on school feeding programme in Ghana that, nutritional

value of SFP meals are threatened by many issues, some are untimely and or limited released of funds by the GSFP divisions and inadequate contact to good consumable water for school meals.

#### **4.4 SUPPORTIVE INFRASTRUCTURE AND SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME**

For a policy to have a high level success, it should have the materials and resources it takes to get the policy implemented (Elmore, 1985). In GSFP, it is the responsibility of the District Assemblies to construct kitchens, supply water or provide water tanks and other necessary materials for the implementation of the programme (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016). In a face-to-face interaction with the respondents, the researcher posed a question to the participants to mention the available facilities or infrastructure that helps them to store, cook and serve food to children. Almost all the participants were able to mention more than two materials or facilities but the popular among most of the responses are stores, kitchen, cooking utensils, water which means most of the schools have one or more aforementioned materials and facilities for cooking school meals. When the respondents were asked individually to comment on the state and nature of these facilities and materials, there were a lot of negative comments on them, a class teacher stated that;

*“The kitchen in my school is not in a good shape, it is an old building made up of wooden structures so, anytime it rains it disturbs the caterers and sometimes prevent them from cooking especially when the firewood are wet”.*

The circuit supervisors also added in different interviews that, facilities for the school feeding programme in school are not in good shapes. One of the circuit supervisors added that;

*“There are also some schools in my circuit that do not have kitchens located at the school. They cook from the house and serve the pupils on the school compound and this I think is a problem because, how the food is handled and prepared no one knows”*

The PTA/SMC representatives added in individual face-to-face interaction portrayed that in most of the schools in the locality, they have inadequate portable water and the few existing ones are not located in the schools. When a caterer was asked to comment on how she gets water to cook, she said, she depends on a nearby stream and pupils to supply her with water for the cooking. When asked whether she is sure those water supplied by pupils are from hygienic sources, she replied;

*“I know about two different sources of water in this town, the bore hole and the well but I don’t know which one exactly they fetch for me”.*

These comments from the respondents are similar in the condition of school feeding programme in Osun state, Nigeria which was stated in the study undertaken by Taylor & Ogbogu (2016) that, some schools under the SFP have bad conditions of supportive facilities, store rooms are very small to keep foodstuffs, no access to portable water and they further added that, these situations resulted in some caterers opting to cook outside the school premises for beneficiary pupils. The finding also agrees with a study done by Ernst and Young (2012) about SFP which revealed that, insufficient facilities such on-site clean water to support SFP resulted in buying of water from the market which affects the funds available for purchasing of raw foods. This situation is quite different from Botswana school feeding programme, where the Department of Food relief Services (DFRS) in each district is responsible for the provision of supportive infrastructure, materials and facilities such as kitchen, stores, water, cooking utensils and bowls for the school feeding

programme while the district council are powered to maintain facilities of the programme to increase their life span (Drake et al., 2016).

## **4.5 MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME.**

### **4.5.1 Availability of SIC in Schools**

The monitoring and evaluation of the SFP is one of the ways to have a successful implementation of the policy. When workers are left to work on their own directions and pace, they do what they want using their own discretions. For monitoring and supervision of SFP in schools, the School Implementation Committee (SIC) and the District Assemblies SFP Directorate have the mandate to monitor and supervise activities caterers undertake in implementing the SFP (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016). The head teacher, school health coordinators and, pupils' representation, PTA/SMC representatives are all part of the School Implementation Committee (SIC). The parents of the pupils also have a role to play concerning the implementation of the programme. When the researcher interviewed the 68 respondents, all the respondents said no to that question. The school circuit supervisors and the SFP officer were of the view that, some of the schools in the municipality have but when asked if this committee is active, one of them stated that;

*“Well, I visit some schools and I learnt they have the School Implementation Committee as we advised them but the head teachers of the schools told me that, the SIC in their schools are inactive and for the past four years meeting have not been held”.*

When the 6 head teachers were asked to answer the question posed by the researcher about School Implementation Committee, in their schools, they said they have nothing like that and it is only the

school health coordinators assist them to do their best about the programme. The researcher also asked parents as part of the shareholders how they monitor what their children eat at school as meals. To the researcher dismay, not a single respondent among the parents nor PTA/SMC representatives was able to tell the researcher that, he once visited the kitchen to know and see what his/her child is going to eat. When asked why, one of the parents responded that;

*“I am not aware I have to visit the kitchen regularly to check on how the school meals are prepared for my children”*

For one of the PTA/SMC representative, he explained his reason that;

*“Because, teachers can do that more than us and you see, majority of us are farmers so, we go to farm almost every day and come back after school hours. It will be very difficult for me”.*

For a programme which is less supervised and monitored will achieve less result. The comments from the respondents shows that, the PTA/SMC representatives including parents do not supervised the execution of the school feeding programme in their schools and this will have effect on the SFP in their respective communities as argued by Taylor & Ogbogu (2016) that, lack of monitoring of the SFP to ensure quality food preparation and sanitation of the environment where school meals are prepared and served endangered implementation of SFP in schools. The finding from the researcher’s interview also agreed with the idea of Elmore (1985) on the effective implementation of public policies. He maintained that, task performed in implementing policies should be measured with performance standards measurement to help justify if the progress made is in the line with the objective of the policy (Elmore, 1985).

Pupils, parents, PTA/SMC representatives, classroom teachers, school health coordinators and caterers themselves when interviewed acknowledged the fact that, the parents and the PTA/SMC representatives are playing passive role in the implementation of the SFP in their schools.

When the researcher interviewed the circuit supervisors and the SFP officer on the last time they visit schools to monitor and evaluate how the school feeding programme is implemented, based on their comments, they seemed to have too much work to do so, they do not visit schools frequently to monitor the SFP. The SFP officer said;

*“The secretariat has a timetable to move around the beneficial schools. There are sometimes that problems beyond our control prevent us from visiting schools under the programme but anytime we are given information about a situation at one school or the other, we do urgent follow ups to check and calm things down though, the secretariat is challenged with logistics such as vehicle for monitoring and supervision”.*

#### **4.5.2 Municipal SFP Secretariat Supervision**

Still on supervision, when the caterers were asked to give the last time officers from the Ghana Education Service or the Municipal SFP Secretariat visit them for supervision, different times and durations are called by the respondents. Based on their comments, it is deduced that, officers from both institutions do not visit caterers frequently to find out how things are going in terms of implementing the school feeding programme. Four (4) out of six (6) caterers mentioned last two terms and the rest were not too sure of the time but they know they came around this year. Implementation is a difficult task (Brynard, 2007) so; citizens and other stakeholders should get involved in formulation and implementation of policies to avoid questionable results (Klein & Knight, 2005; Elmore, 1985).

## **4.6 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME.**

The communities from which beneficiary schools are selected or chosen from also have a role to play in the effective implementation of the SFP in Ghana (Drake et al., 2016). It should be noted here that, the Government of Ghana does not rely on community finances for the implementation (Drake et al., 2016). The GSFP is government sponsored programme where the budget for the programme is drawn yearly by GSFP National Secretariat. Funds are channeled through Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development to each MMDA (Drake et al., 2016). A caterer in each beneficiary school is paid by the MMDAs based on the number of pupils fed and the total number of days school meals were served.

### **4.6.1 School Implementation Committee (SIC)**

At the school level, GSFP has incorporated community participation through the provision of School Implementation Committee. This committee involves the head teacher, PTA representative as the chairperson, member of SMC, a traditional ruler from the community, Assembly member, a boy and girl school prefect (Drake et al., 2016).

The real programme execution at the school level is the work of the SIC with advised and supervision from the DIC. The SIC is charged to give termly reports on school feeding activities, work with the DIC to draw the menu for nutritional meals, supervision of caterers, facilitate mobilization and involvement of the community for the success of the programme. The committee also maintains hygienic condition at the kitchen; provide security for the store and canteen (Drake et al., 2016). In fact, they have the power to report sub-standard food to the DIC and this reports influences renewal of contract with caterers at the next time of awarding of contracts.

#### 4.6.2 Community Involvement

The interview conducted by the researcher on the assistance the beneficiary schools get from the communities for implementation of the school feeding programme and how parents or the SIC help in developing the menu for school meals portrayed that, there is nothing like assistance in any form from the community and parents were not involved in preparation of the school menu. Some respondents such as the PTA/SMC representatives and parents complained that, they are not aware they have to participate in the execution of the school feeding programme. Finding shows that, there is lack of information and education on the programme to the community members on the roles they have to play concerning school feeding programme.

From the interview of parents and PTA/SMC representatives, their comments on community participation shows that, all the tasks outlined to be executed by the SIC is left out in the execution of school feeding programme in the designated schools. It has a tendency to affect the implementation of the SFP in the beneficiary communities. This finding is in line with the report of SEDL (2000) which analyzed the benefit of forming good community ties with schools to improve better education. The report further stated that, if parents and community members are not involved in decisions in public schools, it brings clashes and misunderstanding. In the same vein, Bundy (2005) did a research on SFP and stipulated that, a good rapport by parents, staff, teachers and pupils is required in order to find solutions to challenges of the SFP programme in beneficiary schools.

Though the government of Ghana do not depend on the contributions of communities for implementation of the SFP, the SIC is mandated to facilitate community involvement, mobilize support for the programme (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016). It was gathered from

interview results that, none of the schools selected has SIC and this information gathered from the interview is similar to the study done by SEND Ghana which found out through their research done with 10% of the beneficiary schools in Ghana that, none of the school sampled for the study has SIC in their schools and communities for the execution of the SFP (SEND-Ghana, 2008).

When the respondents were asked to comment on the assistance that the school get from parents or the community members for the school feeding programme, out of 12 parents and 12 PTA/SMC representatives, none of them was able to tell the researcher he or she has given out this or have ever seen or heard someone from their respective community has donated anything in the form of raw foodstuff or cash. This finding is similar to the study conducted by Adams & Fatawu on GSFP which stated that, the SIC is noted in the national policy for the implementation of GSFP but the outlined contributions of respective stakeholders are not fully executed at the lower levels. The community involvement in the sampled communities digress from what is done in Namibia where beneficiary communities make available, firewood and coal for fuel, provide water, plates and cleansing agents. They also provide cooking utensils, kitchen, store and security personnel to secure the premises (GRN, 2013a). The paper further examined the activities undertaken in the beneficiary communities; where meetings are organize three times in a year to discuss problems of the programme. Funds are also raised to support the activities of the SFP (GRN, 2013a). Reports on school feeding programme in Mexico stated that, in some states such as Nuevo Leon state, parents contribute perishable foodstuffs such as pepper, tomatoes and other vegetables towards the SFP (Drake et al., 2016). This finding from the sampled communities also shows a negative correlation with the research done by DNC, PCD and PAM (2011) that, communities in Cote d'Ivoire contribute cash and kind in order to withstand their feeding programme. In conclusion,

inability of the community and SIC to support the programme in the sampled school has resulted in burdening of pupils for firewood and water which may influence their academic work.

#### **4.6.3 Pupils' Involvement in SFP**

When the researcher asked respondents on what pupils provide for the preparation of the school meals, all the six (6) answered that, since there is no SIC, they take it upon themselves to ask pupils to bring firewood and water to school when it is needed.

When pupils were asked what they supply for execution of the school feeding programme, all the twelve (12) sampled pupils representing pupils level leadership confirmed that, they have being supplying the kitchen with firewood and water. A pupil stressed on duration for which they provide these items. He said;

*“In my school we bring firewood every two weeks and we also fetch water to the kitchen every week so that we help the caterers to cook for us”.*

The contribution of pupils is clear from the comments the pupils made concerning the quota they have being contributing to the implementation of the school feeding programme in their schools. It can be concluded from the data deduced from the interview that, pupils are burden to provide firewood and water for the implementation of the programme which may be otherwise provided by parents through community participation for the implementation of the SFP. This finding is in line with the outcome of a study done by GhanaDot (2008) on GSFP in 21 districts in Ghana, it was revealed that, due to unavailability of safe drinking water for SFP in 43% of the schools, pupils are burden to walk for a long distance in search for water which affects their instructional hours. This finding is directly opposite to the local community involvement in Kenya school feeding

programme. According to Bundy et al. (2009), the communities in Kenya where the school feeding exist provide firewood, salt, water and cash for payment of the caterers through the SMC and PTA associations to help the continuity and success of the implementation of SFP in their communities.

#### 4.6.4 Menu Planning

A question was posed to respondents on how menu for school meals is planned. The school feeding programme of each school is supposed to be planned by the District Implementation Committee (DIC) with conjunction with School Implementation Committee (SIC) of each respective beneficiary school to ensure nutritious and balanced diet for school children (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016).

In response to the question posed by the researcher on how school meals menus are planned, majority of the head teachers said, the menus they have which are not always followed was given to them by the caterers. According to most of the head teachers, the menu their caterers use is taken from the Municipal Assembly.

When the researcher interviewed caterers individually about the menu, all the respondents (6) declared that, they were given the menu from the Municipal Assembly to be followed for the cooking and serving children with school meals. When the SFP officer from the Assembly was interviewed on this by the researcher, he said;

*“The District Implementation Committee sat down to plan the menu for the caterers to be used in the beneficiary schools”.*

He quickly added that;

*“This menu has to be done by the DIC with SIC in each of the beneficiary school but the fact is that, many of the beneficiary schools are not having the School Implementation Committee that will seat with us to plan the menu”.*

The information gathered on how the menu for meals is prepared for the sampled schools shows that, inability of beneficiary communities to form SIC and participate as such has left every implementation efforts on District Assembly officials of the SFP Secretariat, teachers and caterers. This finding is similar to the argument raised by Klein & Knight (2005) which links with findings of Elmore (1985) that, in public policy implementation, policies that are without the involvement of all the stakeholders especially the beneficiaries may be difficult to implement because, it may give rise to implementers operating on their own pace and discretions.

#### **4.7 FUNDING OF SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME.**

The GSFP started as a pilot project in 2005 and the Government of Ghana have enjoyed supports from bilateral aid from the Dutch Government and other international donors such as WFP, UNICEF and other bodies notably was Netherlands Government who donated more than 45million euros to fund the GSFP (WFP,2007; De Hauware, 2008; Darko, 2004). From 2012, the Government of Ghana all major expenses for the implementation of the GSFP in the beneficiary schools (Drake et al., 2016).

The researcher posed a question on who is responsible for funding of school feeding programme in the sampled schools. From all the 69 participants interviewed individually, each of them was able to mention that, Government of Ghana is responsible for the sponsoring the SFP in their schools.

The follow up question was asked by the researcher on how the funding is done by the government. The SMC/PTA representatives and parents interviewed seemed to know less about how the funding is done by the government before meals are served to their kids, but are sure the government pays for the foods given to their children.

The classroom teachers and headmasters have a clear idea on how the funding is done to caterers who purchase, cook and serve school meals to pupils. One classroom teacher commented;

*“The government pays the caterers based on the number of pupils they serve in a beneficiary school and the calculation is done by taking the number of times the caterer cook for the pupils in a term. I also know that caterers look for funding themselves for the provision of meals before government pays for their services. Our caterer always complains about lack of access to financial facility and delayed payment from the government”*

The detailed explanation was given by the SFP officer from the Municipal Assembly; he started with how the budget for the programme is drawn by GSFP National Secretariat and funds channel to Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development through MMDAs to caterers in beneficiary schools. He also stressed that payments are made after services are rendered by caterers with their own personal funds.

When caterers were interviewed on how the funding of the programme is done by the government, their replies were not different from what the teachers, head teachers and the SFP officer said during their interviews. Some caterers also added that the delayed payment from the government is affecting the supply of foodstuffs they do. A caterer from the sampled beneficiary school stipulated that;

*“Government is supposed to pay us termly according to the contract but the payment is not regular, I need to borrow money from the bank with interest and also borrow food items when I use all the money I borrow. When government delays payment, I can’t go for additional supply if the last payment is yet to be cleared. This is really a headache to me”*

From the responses of the sampled participants on funding of the Ghana School Feeding Programme and how it is done, it is clear that government delays payments that caterers are due for and this delayed payment reflect on the supply of foodstuff available to the caterer for cooking and serving school meals to pupils. The finding shows that it sometimes affect the menu, quantity and quality of food served to pupils. This finding is in line with a study done by Wenu (2011) about SFP in Kathonzwi District in Kenya. The study revealed that, one of the challenges about school feeding programme is the inability of national government to release fund for schools in appropriate time for payment of supplies. The finding is also in concord with WFP (2013) report that, funding of SFP in countries by government is influenced by the income status of the country in question.

#### **4.8 LINKAGES OF FARMERS AND THE SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME.**

There are objectives outlined by the Government of Ghana for implementation of the GSFP. One of such objectives is to boost local food productions which will at the long-run increase the incomes of poor rural households (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016; GoG, 2015). In GSFP, caterers are recommended to purchase 80% foodstuffs from the beneficiary community where the school is located and the second option is to buy outside the community only if the items wanted are not available there (Drake et al., 2016).

The sampled parents and the PTA/SMC representatives are predominantly farmers. The researcher posed a question to respondents individually on whether the farmers in the local community supply greater portion of their foodstuffs for the caterer. Majority of the of the parents and the PTA/SMC representatives interviewed pointed out clearly that, they have never sell their farm produce to the caterers for school meals. Some of the interviewees (parents and PTA/SMC representatives) confirmed that, they tried to sell their farm produce to them for school meals but caterers preferred buying from the central market which is outside the communities the beneficiary schools are located. One of the parents explained that;

*“I personally went to the caterer to tell her that I want to be supplying them with okro but the caterer said, they have been buying everything from Ho-Central market for the school meals. That is why I don’t associate with them again in terms of business”.*

Another PTA/SMC representative also made the researcher aware that;

*“I one day harvested plantain in large quantity for the caterer to buy because I heard from town that, the caterer will be preparing plantain slice for pupils. I contacted her to buy the plantain for market”.*

This finding is similar to the assessment done by Alhassan & Alhassan (2014) who revealed that, most caterers of GSFP prefer purchase of majority of their food commodities from the central market despite the availability in the local areas they operate.

#### **4.8.1 Purchases of Foodstuffs for SFP**

Out of the six (6) caterers interviewed about where they purchase majority of their foodstuffs for the school meals, five (5) out of six (6) of the caterers stated categorically that, they buy almost

everything for the school meals from the urban market specifically Ho-Central market. Only one caterer said she at times look for some food items in the village where she cook and if she is not able to get from there, she now move to the central market for those items not found in the village where she cook. One of the caterers' reactions to the question on where she buys her food items is that;

*“ ...if I buy my food items in the urban market it is cheaper than from the local farmers, hence I decide to purchase most of my food items from the central market”*

From the interview, information gathered shows that, the highest percentage of the food items for the school feeding programme is bought from urban markets not from the local farmers. Hence the objective of the school feeding programme having a positive effect on local agriculture production is in jeopardy. It also portrayed that, the caterers depend on their discretions to purchase food items. They are not obliged to purchase the higher percentage of foodstuffs from the local farmers, since there is no established rule or law binding them on that. This finding is similar to the practical exploration study about GSNP done by De Hauware (2008) who postulated that, only narrow amount of food items are purchased from the local people. Another study done by Sulemana et al. (2013) about SFP in Northern Ghana also affirmed to this finding.

It was pointed out that, insignificant amount or even no food from the local communities is purchased by the caterers from the locality where they cook school meals.

Some of the caterers explained their reasons why they do not buy from the local farmers. Those caterers are of the view that, in the communities where they cook, farmers have small farms which yields are small to feed the large number of pupils. One of the caterers explained that;

*“It is very difficult to buy from the local farmers in the village where I cook because, farmers there have small farms and they are not in group or any other association which can make buying from them easy. It means you have to be moving from one farmer to the other searching for the food items you want. This does not happen in the urban markets”*

The findings from the interview conducted by the researcher on why caterers buy their food items from where they have mentioned in the previous interview shows that, caterers have problems with the cost of foodstuffs from the local farmers and also the quantity of supply they want for the school meals are not provided by the local farmers since they are not in groups or associations to gather their produce for sale in a large quantity. This finding is not different from the situation in Tamale Metropolis; Tolon-Karaga Districts in the Northern region of Ghana where more than half of the local rice farmers are not in any farming group which will make supply of rice to the caterers easier (Shaibu & Al-hassan, 2014).

#### **4.8.2 Payment of Caterers**

Another caterer also pointed out that, since the government delays their payments for a long period of time before releasing funds; farmers are unwilling to sell their foodstuffs on credit to them. A caterer during face-to-face interaction with the researcher said;

*“if I buy from the local farmers, due to how payment is done to us, I don’t pay cash. I wait till the time government release fund to us before I settle the local farmers. This makes them to quarrel and harass me sometimes, so I don’t buy from them again I prefer urban stores that will give you supply so that you can pay latter”.*

Through probing by the researcher, it was found out that, delayed payment from the government is a major problem to caterers. It affects their supply and other expenses and also influences the level of nutrition and quantity of food they serve to pupils because; most of them borrow from banks with unfavorable interest rates which increases cost of cooking school meals. The research done by De Hauware (2008) has been confirmed by Alhassan & Alhassan (2014) on SFP highlighted a link with this finding that, if the cost of preparing school meals is high, it decreases the food quantity and its nutritional value drastically since the caterer has to spend base on the cost per child per day.

#### **4.8.3 Purchasing of Foodstuffs from Farmers**

The researcher posed a question to the sampled parents, PTA/SMC representatives who are predominantly farmers from their communities to comment on whether the farmers in their communities can supply the caterer with the quantity of foodstuff needed for school meals in their communities. The respondents are of the view that, not all the commodities they can supply to the caterer but there are notable food items such as maize, beans, cassava dough and other vegetables that are common in their area which the caterer can buy from them. Some of the respondent stated that, a farmer cannot supply all the quantity the caterer may want due to inability of them to expand their farms and the low technologies used in farming. The finding from the information gathered from farmers shown that, they don't farm in a large scale so, are unable to supply in bulk due to their small farms and lack of technical-know-how. Also the research uncovered that; there is non-existence of local farmers associations which can facilitate easy access to food items by caterers. There is a link between this finding and the research done by Alhassan & Alhassan (2014) on the challenges caterers face for reaching farmers due to absence of local- farmers groups. Espejo et al

(2009) argued that, farmers are unable to produce more because of inadequate access to land, fertilizers and financial assistance and other advance technological logistics.

#### **4.8.4 Supports for Local Farmers**

When respondents that are farmers were asked whether they received any help from the government or any NGO to help increased their farms to appreciable ones, all the 24 respondents which were parent and the PTA/SMC representatives said no. A farmer stated that;

*“I work alone in my farm; I never remember getting any material in a form of money or farm inputs from the government to use in my farm. I have been waiting for such opportunity in order to expand my farm for more yields”*

This means the Government of Ghana is doing very little or no efforts to link the local farmers in the sampled communities to the GSFP in order to achieve the expansion of local agriculture as outlined by the GSFP objectives. The finding is similar to the outcome of the practical exploration research on GSFP conducted by De Hauware who in his study found out that, there is no evidence of the government taking any step to help increase local agriculture as espoused by the objectives of the GSFP (De Hauware, 2008).

### **4.9 CHALLENGES AND SOLUTIONS OF GSFP**

#### **4.9.1 Challenges**

Respondents were asked by the researcher to identify problems associated with SFP in their respective schools and communities. Delayed payment of caterers which in return affects the quantity and quality of school meals was raised by virtually all the respondents in an attempt to

mention challenges facing the implementation of SFP in their schools. A head teacher complained that;

*“The caterer in my school always complains about delayed payment of funds from the government any time I contact her about low quantity and absence of fish in school meals.”*

A pupil also lamented during the face-to-face interview with the researcher. He said;

*“The food we get from school is not enough. Sometimes no fish is given to us and we also eat “one-way” food, most of the time we are served with rice”.*

From the interview, it can be deduced that, the delayed payment for the caterers in the sampled schools have a great influence on the quantity of food given to pupils and the nutritional values of school meals. The finding from this interview on the challenges facing the sampled school has a link with the study on GSFP done by De Hauware (2008) who stipulated that, the nutritional value and quantity of school meals is affected by the late release of payment for caterers. A similar finding was realized by a study done by Taylor & Ogbogu (2016) on the effects of school feeding programme on enrolment and performance of pupils in Osun state in Nigeria which found that, there is existence of problems on small quantity of food served to pupils in beneficiary schools.

Some pupils when interviewed were in the view that, engaging them in fetching water and firewood is a challenge to them under the SFP. The interview conducted shows that, pupils usually feed the kitchen with water and firewood which should have been reserved for the Municipal Assembly, parents or the community at large as part of their mobilization of resources for the successful implementation of the SFP in their community. GhanaDot (2009) has also revealed similar finding about SFP in some beneficiary schools of GSFP that, pupils sacrifice their times walking long

distances in search for water for cooking school meals which causes waste of contact hours. The paper further stipulated that, 43% of beneficiary public schools of GSFP did not have access to hygienic drinking water for both the caterers and the pupils (GhanaDot, 2009).

Another challenge of the SFP in sampled schools was identified during the interview of participants. Respondents lamented about lack of proper store room for keeping raw foodstuffs and absence of well-built kitchens for cooking school meals as some of the challenges of the SFP was identified by the respondents. Other respondents especially head teachers added that, lack of dining hall is also one of infrastructure challenges of the programme. A head teacher pointed out that;

*“Pupils do not have a convenient place to seat and eat their foods. They sometimes stand under trees while eating. Sometimes too, they use classrooms for eating when it is raining after which they clean their desks for continuation of academic work. Some pupils end up in soiling their exercise books with oil”*

A similar study done on GSFP by GhanaDot (2009) in 21 districts in Ghana revealed that, 61% beneficiary schools studied is without well-built kitchen structures and facilities for cooking. This statement is also affirmed by a study done by Wangari (2014) about school feeding programme in Kjiado County in Nairobi which pointed out that, poor infrastructure and lack of resources in schools under SFP is a big challenge to its implementation.

A School Health Coordinator also said;

*“The caterer in my school is not able to provide dining bowls and spoon to the pupils. Some pupils use their hands for eating foods like rice that needs to be taken with spoon. Due to inadequate bowls, some pupils will wait for their friends to eat before their turn”.*

It was also raised by the respondents especially, school health coordinators and head teachers during the interview that, absence of School Implementation Committee (SIC) in beneficiary schools is also a challenge to the implementation of SFP in their schools. The head teachers were of the view that, without the SIC, the monitoring, supervision and mobilization of support from the community members is difficult at the local level. A classroom teacher was on the view that, the absence of the SIC results in overloading the work of the head teachers because;

*“They have to work from the kitchen to the office”*

A similar outcome of a research done about school feeding programmes in Africa affirmed that, there is lack of cooperation and partnership among stakeholders of the SFP programme in schools in a number of schools in countries, ranging from regional levels to school levels (Buhl, 2012).

The study also revealed through interview of sampled respondents that, monitoring and supervision of the SFP in the sampled schools are very poor. The head teachers complained that, the supervisors from the district office do not visit schools regularly to monitor the progress of the implementation of the programme. This coupled with the absence of SIC create a challenge of lack of supervision and monitoring of the SFP in the sampled schools. This finding in this research through administration of interview guide by the researcher is similar to the study conducted by Taylor & Ogbogu (2016) about the Home-Grown school feeding programme in Osun state which discovered that one of the greatest problems in implementing the SFP is the lack of monitoring and evaluation of the programme.

Member of PTA/SMC representatives including parents who are mainly farmers mentioned that, there is lack of attempt by the government in encouraging expansion of local food production. Farmers further explained that, the inability of the government to supply them with agricultural inputs such as fertilizers, weedicides and financial credit with lower interest has resulted in their small sized farms and low yields. Through the interaction with the respondents, it was found out that, one of the challenges of the local farmers to link with the SFP is lack of farm inputs and financial assistance for expansion of farms which the government of Ghana is doing less to improve. This challenge is prevalent in the whole GSFP across the country base on the practical exploration study of GSFP undertook by De Hauware (2008) who stipulated that, government is doing nothing to link the local farmer to the SFP as outlined in the objectives of the GSFP.

During the interview of the classroom teachers on the challenges associated with the school feeding programme in their schools, it was realized from their comments that, due to enrolment increase in the school as the result of the feeding programme, there is shortage in the number of textbooks and desks in the classes. Others also complained about overcrowding of pupils in the classrooms.

A teacher said;

*“The school feeding programme is bringing more children to school. Admission is given to pupils day-in-day-out. Even this third term, four (4) pupils were admitted to my class whiles the existing ones are already having problems with seats”*

The overcrowding of pupils and pressure on learning materials and facilities in sampled schools has also been seen in the research done by WFP (2007) on GSFP which stated that, due to the huge number of enrolment, there exist congestion in classes which resulted in building new classroom facilities to handle the situation in the Northern regions of Ghana.

#### 4.9.2 Solution to the Challenges

The study further seeks to find solution to challenges that affect implementation of school feeding programme in Ho municipality in the Volta region. After respondents have answered questions on the factors that affect the implementation of the SFP in their respective schools, the researcher further interrogated the respondents to suggest in detail some ways those challenges can be solved.

To some respondents, delayed payment of caterers can be resolved by government getting a consistent or regular source of funding for the SFP. When asked to explain, most of the respondents that mention regular source of funding were of the view that, the government should generate the fund through taxation. One of the circuit supervisors explained that;

*“I think the tax system in the country should be reviewed, where there can be slight increase in the existing Value Added Tax (VAT) for the sponsoring of SFP or a new tax can be introduced on citizens. Tax levied should not be high so much so that, citizens will feel the pinch”.*

Still on funding, some respondents suggested that, expenditure on school feeding should not be paid by the central government alone. It should be shared among the central government and the respective districts to reduce the large amount paid by the central government which causes delay in the payment of caterers. A respondent suggested that;

*“The district should be made to pay percentage of the total cost of the school feeding programme in beneficiary schools in the district through the revenue they generate. This will help reduce the payment difficulties on the central government”.*

This suggestion is similar to how Mexico school feeding programme is fund. The federal government of Mexico bears the cost of raw foodstuffs while the state governments and municipalities also support the programme by providing non-food resources such as utensils, school gardens, kitchens, stores, staff salaries and others (Drake et al., 2016).

In terms of lack of access to portable and safe water, majority of the respondents suggested that, this can be curbed by initiative of government to provide pipes, boreholes and supply of water tanks to beneficiary schools. Other respondents are also of the view that, business organizations should be informed about this menace so that they can provide portable water in schools as part of their corporate social responsibility.

Respondents suggested that, to find a solution to lack and unsuitable facilities such as kitchens and stores as well as dining halls, for the SFP, the government, philanthropists and the community should help in providing such facilities through collaborative work to reduce the cost of providing such facilities to beneficiary schools. This is perfectly done in Namibia where some communities provide kitchen, soap, gardens, utensils, cooks and firewood for the SFP in their communities (Drake et al., 2016).

The absence of SIC was raised by some respondents as a challenged to the programme. In other to fix this, respondents such as the head teachers, SFP officer, circuit supervisors who are conversant with the importance of SIC suggested establishment of the committee in the sampled school as early as possible. A head teacher from a sampled school recommended that, the SIC should be formed and made to work as it demands in the implementation of the school feeding programme. The SIC should be responsible for planning menu, organizing community involvements and

provision of assistance for the successful implementation of GSFP in schools (GoG, 2015; Alhassan & Alhassan, 2014).

Lack of frequent monitoring and supervision could be curbed according to some section of respondents, by active involvement of SIC and provision of logistic and funds to the Municipal school feeding programme secretariat for monitoring and supervision on weekly basis. Respondents are of the view that, this will reduce some hygienic and environmental challenges confronting the SFP. This suggestion is similar to what is done in Osun-state school feeding programme in Nigeria where local supervisors actively perform monitoring roles of the programme by collecting weekly reports on the programme from school to school to ensure that the right thing is done for successful implementation of their school feeding programme (Global School Feeding Sourcebook, 2016).

In order to achieve increase in the local agriculture by effectively linking farmers to SFP, a large section of the farmers among the respondents suggested that, the government should assist local farmers by providing them with financial assistance, fertilizers, high quality seeds, weedicides, agricultural extension officers and other advance logistics such as tractors to help farmers expand their farms for high yields that will be enough to supply for the SFP in the local communities. A study done by Kadenge & Aluko (2014) established that, farmers need supports to acquire agricultural inputs and there is a need to provide education for local farmers for increased in yields for the SFP.

Base on the interview of farmers on linkages to SFP, other respondents are of the view that, the government should provide a legal backing on purchasing of a percentage of foodstuffs from the local communities where school feeding programmes are situated. This suggested solution is well

practice in Brazil where farmers are properly linked to the SFP. In Brazil Law No. 11.947 of 2009 was introduced in order to make states and municipalities purchase 30% or more of their foodstuffs from local or small scale farmers from the area the SFP is situated and this was made mandatory (Drake et al., 2016). The arrangements between local farmers in India and their government resulted in the supply in the supply of 25% to 30% raw foods for school meals (Kumar, 2011).

In order to avoid overcrowding of pupils and burden on teaching and learning resources such as desks and textbooks as a result of increase in enrolment, respondents suggested that, the government should build new classroom blocks for schools that are experiencing the overcrowding and this suggestion is similar to what was done to curb the overcrowding of pupils due to SFP in Zogbeli Ahamadiya school in the Tamale Metropolis (Sulemana et al., 2013). A class teacher made a comment that;

*“The overcrowding in my class is due to increase in enrolment figures because of the attractive power of SFP in my school. To avoid this, new spacious classrooms should be built and furnished for schools that are increasing in enrolment, so that, pupils can leave in a conducive environment “*

To conclude, this chapter entails the presentation and analysis of information gathered from the interview of sampled respondents on impacts of school feeding programme on pupils, supportive infrastructure for SFP, monitoring and evaluation of SFP, community participation, funding of SFP, linkages of farmers to SFP and challenges and solutions of the implementation of SFP in some schools.

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## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter entails the summary of the study and research findings, conclusions and recommendations and suggestions for further study.

#### 5.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The main drive of this research is to find out the factors affecting the execution of school feeding programme in Ho municipality in the Volta region. The study was directed by five research questions which the researcher pursued to find answers to. The first research inquiry was about impacts of the school feeding programme on pupils, the second research question sought to find out issues on monitoring and supervision of the SFP, the third research question try to find the degree of community participation in terms of implementation of SFP in schools, the fourth

research question for this study was about the extent the government make the required fund available on time for caterers, the fifth research question sought to determine the factors affecting the implementation of the SFP and solutions. The study relied on descriptive research design to explain situations and practices of the implementation of the GSFP. Sample size of the study entailed six (6) head teachers, six (6) caterers, six (6) School Health Coordinators, twelve (12) parents, twelve (12) PTA/SMC representatives, twelve (12) classroom teachers, twelve (12) pupils, two (2) circuit supervisors and one (1) Municipal SFP officer. All the participants summed up to sixty-nine (69) for the study.

Interview guide was developed for the collection of the data from the respondents. The instrument was checked by the university supervisor for the study for the instrument's validity and pre-test was done to ascertain the instrument reliability. The interview guide was used to interview respondents and the information realized was used for the analysis and interpretation in this research work.

### **5.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS**

The objective of this research was to examine the factors affecting implementation of school feeding programme in Ho Municipal Assembly in the Volta region. This section presents a comprehensive summary of the findings that were found during the collection and interpretation of the data collected through the interview of respondents on the study. This research work examined the impacts of school feeding on pupils, supportive infrastructure and school feeding programme, monitoring and evaluation of school feeding programme, community participation and school feeding programme, funding of school feeding programme, challenges of school feeding programme and solutions to the challenges of school feeding programme.

### **5.3.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

Base on the data gathered from the demographic information about the respondents, there was insignificant differences in the ratio of meals to females in this study. 53.6% were males and 46.4% were females. In terms of highest qualification, majority of classroom teachers, head teachers and School Health Coordinators, Circuit supervisors and SFP officer have a first degree. This may be due to changes in the access of education in Ghana where a lot of people acquire education while working. This is in contrast to the highest qualification of parents, PTA/SMC representatives and caterers where 25 out of 30 respondents in this category have Middle/JHS education with only three with a diploma. Due to low level of education, most parents and PTA/SMC representatives are working in the informal sector and are mainly involved in farming.

### **5.3.2 Impacts of School Feeding on Pupils**

The finding from the research indicated that, the SFP has appositive impacts on pupils. To teachers and head teachers of the beneficiary schools, there is increase in enrolment figures of pupils and due to the SFP, pupils are regular and punctual to school every school going day. Though the finding shows a massive improvement in enrolment and attendance, there was a problem with the quantity and nutritional value of foods served to pupils under the programme. Findings of this research portrayed that, the quantity and nutritional value of SFP is affected by the delayed payment for caterers for buying foodstuff necessary for the food and low cost per child per day charged. This study affirmed a practical exploration study undertaken by De Hauware (2008) about GSFP which argued that the nutritious value of school meals are endangered by late and limited release of funds to caterers.

### **5.3.3 Supportive Infrastructure and School Feeding Programme**

The study on supportive infrastructure for SFP in schools indicated that, there are some facilities available such as kitchens, stores, cooking utensils, bowls in schools for the accomplishment of the SFP. However, these facilities and materials are not in good shapes. Most stores and kitchens are old and dilapidated structures and there is also inadequate bowls, cups and spoon for pupils feeding. The study also found out that, sources of water are not located in most of the beneficiary schools premises, kitchens are not connected to electricity, lack of dining hall is a general problem in all beneficiary schools, and there is also a record of problem on availability of fuel (firewood) for cooking. The finding further revealed that, the security of the stores where the raw foods are kept care not under any supervision. This condition is in line with school feeding programme in Osun state, Nigeria undertook by Taylor & Ogbogu (2016) that, some schools under the SFP have bad conditions of supportive facilities, store rooms are very small to keep foodstuffs, no access to portable water and they further added that, these situations resulted in some caterers opting to cook outside the school premises for beneficiary pupils.

### **5.3.4 Monitoring and Evaluation of School Feeding Programme**

At the grass root, the School Implementation Committee (SIC) from the beneficiary community and school and the District Implementation Committee (DIC) have the mandate to monitor and supervised activities of the SFP in beneficiary schools. The finding in this study revealed that, there is no such SIC in beneficiary schools and communities. The basic monitoring role is done by the head teachers and School Health Coordinators. SFP officers also do not visit schools regularly to check on how the programme is implemented. The finding from the PTA/SMC representatives

and parents established that, they are not aware of any committee and the roles they have to play for effective accomplishment of the programme.

### **5.3.5 Community Participation and School Feeding Programme**

The beneficiary communities are incorporated in the GSFP through the SIC where PTA/SMC chairpersons or representatives, a traditional ruler from the community and Assembly member are to be members who will oversee the implementation of SFP in their respective beneficiary community. The finding of this research testified that, there is a very low involvement of the beneficiary communities in the success of the SFP in schools. The research portrayed that, there was no assistance from the beneficiary community members in either cash or kind to support the SFP. No meeting was ever held on how to support the SFP in their schools. The menu planning which should have been done by the SIC and DIC was according to the research finding, done by the DIC alone for caterers. The SIC has failed to live up to expectation. The finding in this research portrayed that, there is lack of information and education on the SFP in beneficiary communities. In terms of pupils' involvement in the implementation of the SFP, the study revealed that, pupils in the beneficiary schools supply water and firewood regularly for cooking of school meals for them.

### **5.3.6 Funding of School Feeding Programme**

The funding of the GSFP was a jointly sponsored by the Government of Ghana and donors such as Dutch Government, Netherlands Government, and WFP and other NGOs at the initial stage. From 2010, the GSFP is solely sponsored by the Government of Ghana. The finding of the study revealed that, all the respondents are aware that, the SFP is funded by the Government of Ghana.

The finding of this research indicated that, government delays payment for the caterers which according to them, affects the menu, quality and quantity of food served to pupils in return since their food supply is influence by the amount of funds they have. It was also found out in the literature review of this research study that, the income status of a country affects funding of social interventions including SFP (WFP, 2013).

### **5.3.7 Linkages of Farmers and the School Feeding Programme**

One of the goals of the GSFP is to improve local foodstuff productions which will at the longrun increase the income of the poor rural households. This study found out that, the highest percentage of food items for the SFP is always purchased from the urban market by the caterers. Caterers pointed out that, local farmers have small scaled farms and they are not in group to supply the quantity of supplies they want and in addition the study found out from the caterers that, foodstuffs from local farmers are high as compared to the urban markets. The study further portrayed that, local farmers do not farm in large scale due to lack of agricultural inputs such as fertilizers, financial assistance, lack of improved seeds and advance farm implements.

### **5.3.8 Challenges of School Feeding Programme**

The finding portrayed that, delayed payment is the most prevalent challenge to the SFP, since it affects supply, quantity and quality including the menu. Other challenges identified by this research are; burdening pupils for supply of water and firewood which may cause waste of instructional periods, there is also lack of safe drinking water in beneficiary schools, the study indicated that, caterers are not accommodative and sometimes favor some pupils when sharing foods. On challenges about infrastructure, the finding revealed that, stores and kitchens for the SFP

are small and not in good shape, there is no dining hall in any of the sampled schools. The study also found that, some beneficiary schools are overcrowded due to increase in enrolment. There is lack of School Implementation Committee (SIC) in all the schools which is the cause of low monitoring at the local level. In terms of linkage of local farmers to the GSFP, government is doing less to help local farmers expand their farms to have an efficient link with the programme (De Hauwere, 2008).

### **5.3.9 Solution to the Challenges of the SFP**

The finding of this research established solutions to the challenges of the SFP. This research based on its finding suggested that, a regular source of funding for SFP, provision of boreholes and water tanks in beneficiary schools, government and philanthropists should jointly provide kitchens, stores and dining halls, SIC should be formed for monitoring, necessary logistics should be provided by the government for supervisory officers from the municipal offices, government should assist farmers with agricultural inputs. Further suggestions by the respondents indicated that, more classrooms should be built by government for overcrowding schools.

### **5.4 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY**

Base on the finding and analysis of this study, the GSFP has indeed positive impacts on the beneficiary pupils in terms of increase in enrolment and retention as noted by Darko (2014), De Hauwere (2008) and there is a need to intense the implementation strategies in other to achieve the full realization of the objectives of the programme (Elmore, 1985).

#### **5.4.1 Impacts on GSFP on pupils**

The study concluded that, the GSFP has great impacts on pupils in terms of retention, attendance and enrolment but there is more room for improvement in quantity and nutritional values of school meals.

#### **5.4.2 Monitoring and supervision**

The study also concluded that, monitoring and supervision is powerful to successful implementation of GSFP. The Municipal SFP officers and parents do not closely monitor the implementation of the SFP and majority of the supervisory roles are played by head teachers and the School Health Coordinators of the beneficiary schools.

#### **5.4.3 Community participation and SFP**

The study further concluded that, lack of community participation may influence successful implementation of SFP. The overall community participation for the success of the SFP in the selected schools is very minimal than expected due to lack of information and education about their roles and responsibilities in the implementation of the SFP in their communities. Moreover, there is high percentage of schools without School Implementation Committee (SIC) for monitoring and supervision of implementation of SFP in schools, so, the communities and parents do not involve in any activity of the SFP in beneficiary schools.

#### **5.4.4 Funding of SFP**

The study also established that, source of regular funding is significant in executing social policies and as it stands now, the GSFP is fully financed by Government of Ghana but there is delay of payments to caterers which affects their supply of foodstuff for the school meals.

#### **5.4.5 Pupils' involvement in SFP**

The researcher can conclude that, children's right and liberties are not considered in the implementation of the GSFP in schools. The study revealed that, pupils are burdened in schools to provide water and firewood for the cooking of school meals which sometimes affects their instructional periods.

#### **5.4.6 Linkage of local farmers to GSFP**

The study further established that, caterers do not buy raw foodstuffs for school meals from the local farmers rather from the urban markets. The researcher can conclude that, the government does not provide any assistance or inputs in any form to local farmers to increase their yields for effective linkage to the SFP.

### **5.5. RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Base on the outcomes and conclusions of this study, it is realized that, the implementation of the SFP needs to be improved by solving the challenges associated with its realization. The policy recommendations by the researcher to curb the challenges of implementing the SFP are presented in this section to ensure successful implementation of the GSFP in our communities. The recommendations are as follows:

To ensure regular funding and timely payment to caterers, the government should look for regular source of funding the GSFP by either increasing the existing VAT by a small percentage purposely for funding the GSFP or by sharing the cost of implementation with the MMDAs who will use their internal revenues to supplement government payments.

The GSFP National Directorate should ensure that SIC is set up and active in all the beneficiary communities. Availability of SIC in communities can be used as a mechanism to continue or halt the SFP in a beneficiary school for another.

To ensure proper and adequate monitoring and supervision, the necessary logistics and materials for monitoring should be provided by the government and also the Municipal SFP Secretariat should prepare a weekly timetable for monitoring and supervising all schools under the programme.

The government, communities and donors should collaborate to provide infrastructure and facilities such as kitchens, dining halls, store rooms, boreholes, utensils, and new classrooms for overcrowding schools, gardens and other important needs for beneficiary schools that are in need.

There is a need to provide thorough education and information to members of the communities on the objectives and goals of the SFP so that, parents, chiefs, teachers and other stakeholders will know what is expected of them for the successful implementation of the SFP in their communities.

The government should provide agricultural inputs such as loans with low interest, fertilizers, improved seeds, farm implements, education through agricultural extension officers to local farmers for large scale farming and high yields.

The government should develop a policy which will be backed by law to ensure that caterers of the GSFP purchase a given percentage or more foodstuffs from the local farmers for school meals.

## **5.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

The research considered only one municipality that is Ho municipality. This study can be replicated for other municipalities and districts in the Volta region or any part of the country with different sample sizes and additional variables that are significant to the topic.

The researcher suggested a research on the extent to which the school feeding programme achieved its core objectives of the programme.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX I

**Interview Guide for teachers, Head teachers, Pupils, School Health Coordinators, SFP Officer and Circuit Supervisor.**

#### **Interview Objective:**

This interview guide is designed to give information to the researcher on “factors affecting the implementation of school feeding programme in the Ho Municipal Assembly in the Volta region of Ghana. Information given here will be treated confidentially and for the academic purpose of this research only. Thank you.

#### **Section A: Demographic Information.**

Gender: Male

Age:

Highest Educational level:

Number of years teaching/working in this school:

#### **Section B: Impact of school feeding on pupils.**

1. What influence does school feeding programme has on pupils?
2. Is the school feeding programme helpful to pupils?  
If yes, explain.
3. Comment on the nutritious nature and quantity of school meals your pupils take?

### **Section C: Supportive infrastructure and school feeding programme**

4. What are the facilities or infrastructure you have that helps you to store, cook and serve food to school children?
5. What are some of the things you think is needed in your school for effective implementation of the school feeding programme.

### **Section D: Monitoring and evaluation of school feeding programme.**

6. Do you have School Implementation Committee (SIC) in your school  
If yes, is it effective?
7. How do parents monitor what their children eat as school meals?
8. What are some of the challenges associated with school meals and instructional periods?

### **Section E: Community participation and school feeding programme.**

9. What do pupils provide for the preparation of school meals
10. What assistance does the school get from parent or community members for the school feeding programme?
11. How is menu of the school meals planned?

### **Section F: Funding of school feeding programme.**

12. Who fund the school feeding programme? How is it done?

### **Section G: Challenges and Solutions of SFP.**

13. What are some challenges and ways to improve the school feeding programme?

## APPENDIX II

### Interview Guide for Caterers

#### Interview Objective:

This interview guide is designed to give information to the researcher on “factors affecting the implementation of school feeding programme in the Ho Municipal Assembly in the Volta region of Ghana. Information given here will be treated confidentially and for the academic purpose of this research only. Thank you.

#### Section A: Demographic Information.

Gender: Male

Age:

Highest Educational level:

Number of years teaching/working in this school:

#### Section D: Monitoring and evaluation of school feeding programme.

1. Do you have School Implementation Committee (SIC) in your school

If yes, is it effective?

2. How do parents monitor what their children eat as school meals?

3. What are some of the challenges associated with school meals and instructional periods?

**Section E: Community participation and school feeding programme.**

4. What do pupils provide for the preparation of school meals
5. What assistance does the school get from parent or community members for the school feeding programme?
6. How do parents and SIC involved in planning the menu for school meals?

**Section E: Funding and payment of caterers.**

7. Where do you purchase foodstuff for cooking school meals? Why?
8. How often do they pay you? How regular is it?
9. What does delay in your payments influence in the SFP?

**Section F: Challenges and Solutions of SFP**

10. What are some of the challenges and ways to improve the school feeding programme?

Thank you.

**APPENDIX III**

## Interview Guide for Parents, PTA/SMC Representatives.

### . Interview Objective:

This interview guide is designed to give information to the researcher on “factors affecting the implementation of school feeding programme in the Ho Municipal Assembly in the Volta region of Ghana. Information given here will be treated confidentially and for the academic purpose of this research only. Thank you.

### Section A: Demographic Information.

Gender: Male

Age:

Educational level:

Number of years teaching/working in this school:

Occupation:

### Section B: Impact of school feeding on pupils.

1. What influence does school feeding programme has on pupils?
2. Is the school feeding programme helpful to pupils?  
If yes, explain.
3. Comment on the nutritious nature and quantity of school meals your pupils take?

### **Section C: Supportive infrastructure and school feeding programme**

4. What are the facilities or infrastructure you have that helps you to store, cook and serve food to school children?
5. What are some of the things you think is needed in your school for effective implementation of the school feeding programme.

### **Section D: Monitoring and evaluation of school feeding programme.**

6. Do you have School Implementation Committee (SIC) in your school  
If yes, is it effective?
7. How do parents monitor what their children eat as school meals?
8. What are some of the challenges associated with school meals and instructional periods?

### **Section E: Community participation and school feeding programme.**

9. What do pupils provide for the preparation of school meals
10. What assistance does the school get from parent or community members for the school feeding programme?
11. How do parents and SIC involved in planning the menu for school meals?

### **Section F: Linkages of farmers and the school feeding programme.**

12. Do farmers in this community supply greater portion of foodstuff the caterer wants?  
Explain your answer.
13. What are some of the challenges and ways to improve the school feeding programme?

Thank you.