



**Thesis**  
**By**  
**JOSEPH AZIA**  
**TAMUKONG**

**THE UNIVERSITY**  
**OF JOS**

**An analysis of local support in  
financing secondary school  
education in the north-West  
province of Cameroon**

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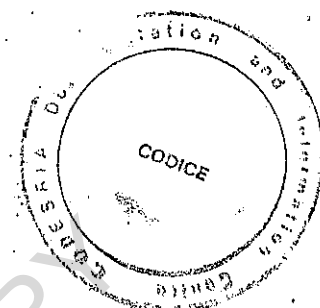
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**AN ANALYSIS OF LOCAL SUPPORT IN  
FINANCING SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION  
IN THE NORTH-WEST PROVINCE OF  
CAMEROON**

By



**JOSEPH AZIA TAMUKONG**

DSA (1980)

M.Ed (1987)

DIPES II (1989)

PGED/UJ/6577/91

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APRIL, 1995

**CERTIFICATION**

This is to certify that the research work for this thesis and the subsequent preparation of this thesis by **JOSEPH AZIA TAMUKONG** (PGED/UJ/6577/91) were carried out under my supervision.

 5/4/95

**J.D. Urwick, Ph.D.,**

Senior Lecturer.

**APPROVAL**

This is to certify that this thesis has been examined and approved for the award of the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY in Educational Administration and Planning.

\_\_\_\_\_  
**EXTERNAL EXAMINER**

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
**Dr. J.D. Urwick**  
SUPERVISOR

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
**Professor Ardo C. Ezeomah**  
DEAN OF EDUCATION

DATE: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
**INTERNAL EXAMINER**

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
**Professor S.U. Udoh**  
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
**Professor Z.S.C Okoye**  
DEAN OF POSTGRADUATE  
SCHOOL UNIVERSITY OF  
JOS.

DATE: \_\_\_\_\_

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## DEDICATION

*This work is dedicated to:  
My father, Pa Jamukong Tibui,  
My mother, Ma Lydia Awah Ngem,  
My wife, Lum Florence,  
All the budding intellectuals of Nsongua,  
All those who are educationally  
marginalised in Cameroon such as  
The nomadic tribes,  
The pygmies,  
The urban slum dwellers, and  
The rural poor.*



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***AN ANALYSIS OF LOCAL SUPPORT IN FINANCING  
SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION IN THE NORTH-WEST  
PROVINCE OF CAMEROON.***

**ABSTRACT**

*By*

**Joseph Azia Tamukong.**

Secondary school finance in Cameroon has been on the decline since 1985. This has caused inadequate provision of educational inputs. The literature indicates that in countries faced with similar problems additional finances have been tapped from local communities. Thus the need to analyse local support to secondary education, with a view to generating new strategies for mobilizing such support, was identified as a way of helping the secondary school system to improve or at least maintain itself.

Survey and case study approaches were involved in the study. A sample of 30 schools was selected from among the 55 grammar and technical schools in the North-West Province. The respondents were mainly school authorities and PTA representatives. The data, collected with a combination of four instruments was analysed to identify dormant and active local sources, and the relationship of local support to different categories of school in addition to verifying whether opinion was favourable or not to the new strategies for mobilizing local support.

The findings, among other things, indicate that in the North-West Province, parents constitute the main source of local community support through payment of fees and levies. Other sources exist, but these are either less active or completely dormant. A majority of the sources participate more frequently in grammar, rural and public schools than is the case in technical, urban and private schools. Local support is on the decline and general opinion

expressed in this research is in favour of diversifying avenues for mobilizing financial support from local communities.

Based on the findings and their implications, recommendations were made asking the government to improve the country's economic situation, introduce fees in public secondary schools and activate identified dormant or less active sources. PTAs on their part should use innovative strategies for generating income instead of simply relying on levies. Schools, in addition to relying on fees and PTAs, should use other methods, such as introducing or stepping up school production, to mobilize more financial contributions from their local communities.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

#### 1.1.1 Historical Perspectives

Formal education was introduced in Cameroon in 1844 by missionaries under the sponsorship of the Baptist Missionary Society (BMS) of London. Later on, other mission bodies came and opened schools in the country. The objective of these missionary schools was to evangelise though in addition to religion, they offered other subjects such as arithmetic and language (Tambo, 1989). The schools were entirely financed by the missions and the local communities. The parent missions in Europe and America sent teachers and money while local people provided land, materials and labour. Also, financial contributions could be solicited from the more influential of the local populations.

This method of financing education continued until the German colonial government held a conference in 1907 in Douala with all the missions present in Cameroon at the time. In this conference, the government promised to give grants-in-aid to the mission schools on condition that they became more academically orientated and followed a prescribed syllabus that laid emphasis on German. This therefore marked the beginning of cooperation between the government and the missions in the education sector in Cameroon. As a result of this conference, the missions created more schools and ran them efficiently with government grants.

When the British and the French replaced Germans at the end of the first world war, the system of grants-in-aid was maintained in differing degrees in the two sections of the

country. The French colonial government preferred opening state schools while financially supporting mission schools. In this way, there were 977 state schools and 1,453 mission schools on Francophone Cameroon at independence. On the other hand, the British gave greater grants but left the provision of primary education entirely in the hands of the missionaries who were reputed to offer cheap and quality services. Consequently, at independence, Anglophone Cameroon had 424 missionary schools and three native authority schools (Yufani, 1992, p.6).

By the end of the colonial period, secondary schools had been introduced in the country. In Francophone Cameroon, the majority were state owned while in Anglophone Cameroon, four out of the five were run by the missions. In both sides, the mission primary and secondary schools received grants from the state (Tambo, 1989). In British Cameroon, a grant usually covered recognised expenses (salaries and allowances) less an assumed local contribution which varied from region to region depending on its economic viability (Taiwo, 1985, p.88). Factors like percentage of qualified teachers and examination results influenced the amount of grant. The French subsidies were based mostly on the extent to which the school conformed to those of France in terms of structure, curriculum, examinations and certificates.

After independence, the government was convinced by the idea of investment in education as the best method of achieving national development in all aspects. Consequently, the state has invested heavily in education guided by the principles of equity, national unity and manpower development. As a result, each village has a primary school and each subdivision has at least one secondary school (Tambo, 1989, p.269). Also, University education, which was unknown in the colonial period, was introduced in 1962 with the opening of the

University of Yaoundé. Other Universities have been established in Buea, Dschang, Douala, Ngaoundéré and Soa.

Apart from the state and the missions, private individuals or groups have been encouraged to open schools. The majority of such schools are in the urban centres, where demand for education is high.

Since independence, tuition in all public institutions has been free. In such schools, the state bears responsibility for all expenditures. Government regulation allows private schools to charge fees, and to receive state subsidy.

The government used to meet up with its responsibility of building, equipping, staffing and maintaining public schools as well as providing sufficient grants to private institutions. But since 1985, the situation has changed. The Ministry of National Education has been creating new public schools without provision for classrooms and adequate staffing. Consequently, some schools, like GHS Kumbo created since 1975, have never been built. Students in such schools use temporary classrooms provided by the Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs). Referring to some rural areas, Nouck (1991) laments the fact that "some government schools are holding in market places and in the open air". People in such areas feel marginalised and cheated but often lack the sophistication and political power to negotiate and obtain public resources for their schools.

The above problem is well illustrated by the fact that the government has so far failed to accomplish building projects contained in the last Development Plan. According to the plan, 986 nursery schools, 897 primary schools and 166 secondary schools were to be built, equipped and staffed between 1986 and 1991 (Cameroon, 1986) but so far (1995) not up to 50% of these projects have been executed.

As far as grants-in-aid to private schools are concerned, the government has signed new orders and decrees from 1987 reducing its level of commitment. In the past, recognised private schools were entitled to subvention but law No 87/022 of 17/12/87 and Presidential Decree No 90/1161 of 9/11/90 declared that all private schools were profit-making and as such should be financed by the promoters. It was added that the state might if necessary grant subsidy to such institutions (Yufanyi, 1992).

After this law, the government has carried out yearly reductions in the amount of subsidy to the private schools. Surprisingly, the reduced sums are never made available. As a result, private school teachers receive very low salaries and go for months without being paid. This has led to demonstrations against the government; for example, teachers and pupils of mission schools boycotted the last National Youth Day celebrations on 11<sup>th</sup> February 1992, 1993, 1994 and 1995.

Further evidence of government inability to finance education is the fact that the Universities of Buea and Ngoundéré which were to open in the 1991/1992 academic year, finally started in March 1993 with very little infrastructure and few staff. Political and cultural pressures had to be exerted before these universities could start. Also, since 1992, a tuition fee of 50,000 francs CFA has been introduced into a hitherto "free" university system.

In the past, the various missions used to depend on religious bodies abroad to provide aid for the financing of schools. But since the churches passed under local leadership, such aid is no longer coming except in a few rare cases. Thus both the public and private schools are undergoing a financial squeeze at the moment.

As the above examples show, the government and the private agencies are becoming more and more incapable of funding the education of young people (Ndoping, 1992). Thus

the need for this study which the researcher hoped will identify effective ways of generating alternative resources for secondary education.

### 1.1.2 The Squeeze on Education Finance

Hinchliffe (1989b) and Wolfgang (1993) say schools are the most defenceless targets of austerity measures in most countries. This assertion applies to Cameroon where the state authorities claim that their inability to fund the educational system is due to the economic crisis into which the country has been plunged since 1985 as a result of several factors. Among the factors are servicing of external debt, the fall in the prices of Cameroon's major export commodities and the depreciation of the US dollar (which is the main currency in which Cameroon is paid for her exports). Between 1985 and 1987 the export price index in FCFA fall as follows: 65% for oil, 24% for cocoa, 20% for rubber and 11% for coffee. As a consequence, the balance of payments registered a deficit of 8.8% in 1986 - 1987 compared to a surplus of 3.9% in 1984 - 1985. Estimates presently claim that the balance of payments further fell by 9% in 1987 - 1988 and 6.5% in 1988 - 1989 (cameroon, 1990,p.1).

The above external factors, coupled with domestic problems such as capital flight, embezzlement, inflation and civil disobedience have contributed to the deep economic recession into which the country presently finds itself. As a result, the per capita income has dropped seriously. In 1983 - 1984 per capita income was 294,500 FCFA (Cameroon, 1986). Present estimates put it at 305,985 FCFA in 1985 - 1986; 279,058 FCFA in 1986 - 1987 and 212,084 FCFA in 1989 - 1990.

In view of this economic crisis, the government says that in order to redress the budget deficits, it was compelled to reduce "expenditures on services that are crucial for the provision

of the basic needs of the poor such as ... education" (Cameroon, 1990, p.2). Such reductions have produced many adverse results. Some public schools lack teachers, classrooms and teaching aids. The state owes education grants promised to the private agencies to such an extent that the Presbyterian Mission closed down some of its schools in the 1992 - 1993 academic year. This closure is contrary to government objective of having all 6-year-olds enrolled in school by the year 2000.

External agencies used to supply significant funds to the education system in Cameroon but with the economic crisis being world wide, such funds are becoming rare and greatly reduced. Most of the developed countries are so concerned with their domestic and regional socio-economic problems that they have reduced or even stopped the aid they used to give to Third World countries. In addition, the religious bodies abroad that used to finance mission schools in Cameroon no longer send sufficient aid since the churches passed under local leadership (Yufanyi, 1992). Thus the finances from the national and external sources that used to flow into the education system are becoming increasingly smaller.

### 1.1.3 The Cameroon Education System

At independence, the two states that made up the defunct Federal Republic of Cameroon inherited different education system from their former colonial masters. West Cameroon inherited a system with English as the medium of instruction with primary school lasting eight years, first cycle secondary five years and second cycle secondary two years.

This system which is presently called the Anglophone system was modified by the West Cameroon Education Policy of 1963 which reduced the length of the primary school to seven years. It is currently practised in the North West and South West Provinces as well as in the

capital towns of the eight Francophone provinces where there are some Anglophone communities.

East Cameroon on the other hand, inherited a system with French as the medium of instruction with the primary school lasting six years, first cycle secondary four years and second cycle secondary three years. This system is currently practised in the eight Francophone provinces as well as in the provincial headquarters of the two Anglophone provinces where there are some Francophone communities.

University education was introduced after independence and the first degree (licence) programme lasts three years for both linguistic groups. Thus the Anglophones have a 7-5-2-3 system while the Francophone have a 6-4-3-3 system.

At present, the Cameroon education system consists of nursery, primary, secondary and tertiary education components. The following section will focus on secondary education since it is the main concern of this study.

#### 1.1.4 Secondary Education in Cameroon

The secondary school system in Cameroon is composed of first and second cycle grammar, technical and normal schools. The first cycle is five years for anglophones and four years for francophones while the second cycle is two and three years for these groups respectively.

The grammar schools are the most widespread component. Each sub-division has at least one such school. Enrolments in grammar schools in the country have risen from 162, 298 in 1980 - 1981 to 443, 977 in 1990 - 1991.

The technical school network is less developed compared to grammar schools (Tambo,

1989, p.274). However, it is growing rapidly thanks to government and private effort. The government has signed bilateral agreements with the Canadian government which has built six technical high schools in the country. Business tycoons like S.P. Longla in Bamenda, Fotso Victor in Bandjoun and Mr. Siantou in Yaounde have built private technical schools. Technical school enrolments rose from 56,307 in 1980 - 1981 to 140,718 in 1990 - 1991.

Some schools are comprehensive i.e. offering both technical and general education curricula. In the North-west province, the majority of the private secondary schools opened as business ventures are of the comprehensive type.

The normal schools train primary school teachers. Apart from a few mission schools they have almost become extinct. The public normal schools were reopened briefly in 1992 - 1993 to train 500 teachers selected from among public servants wanting to become teachers. Normal schools in the country had 322 students in 1982 - 1983 and 465 in 1984 - 1985. In 1993/94, there were about 100 students in the Presbyterian, Baptist and Catholic Teacher Training Colleges, in Mbengwi, Ndop and Tatum respectively.

#### 1.1.5 Financing of Secondary Education

The public secondary schools are entirely financed by the government. Apart from a registration fee of 3,000frs, students pay no fees. The state raises funds to finance education from tax revenue (though there is no education tax) and from external loans and/or grants. Countries which have provided funds for secondary education in recent times include France, Britain, Canada, Germany, Egypt and the United States of America. Such aid has often been in the form of teachers, buildings, equipment, books and money.

In addition to the above sources, PTA levies are charged per student though the amount



varies from school to school depending on the projects to be carried out. In government High School (GHS) Wum, in 1991 - 1992, the PTA levy was 10,000 FCFA for new students and 5,000 FCFA for old ones. In Government Secondary School (GSS) Bamenda, the levy was 12,500 FCFA for all students. These levies used to be 1,500 FCFA on average but with the increasingly failure of government to meet up with its responsibilities, the parents are forced to raise them to ensure a better service to their children.

Private secondary schools collect fees within a narrow range from 32,500 to 72,500 FCFA depending on the location and type of school. Boarding where available involves a fee of 120,000 FCFA. PTA levies are fixed at 2,000 FCFA.

Government subsidy to private secondary schools keeps declining yearly while the sums due are not being paid. Thus the state owes large sums of money to the private agencies. For example the Minister of National Education in an interview on the National Television Network at 10pm on the 12/7/92 said that the State was owing 1,900 million FCFA to the Catholic Mission alone.

In a few secondary schools, the students generates income. In the 1991 - 1992 academic year, the students of Baptist Comprehensive College in Kom generated 479,243 FCFA from the sale of farm produce (Nyahkeh, 1992). However, such resources are rare and cannot be incorporated into the budget. Incomes produced by students are often negligible.

Some lucky mission schools still receive assistance from abroad despite the declining ties with the mother missions in Europe and America. For example, according to Ngong (1991), the Baptist High School in Buea was to receive substantial laboratory equipment from some undisclosed sources in Germany in the 1991 - 1992 academic year.

### 1.1.6 Other Problems in Secondary Education

In the last Economic, Social and Cultural Development Plan, it was estimated that there would be a maximum of 45 students per class in all secondary schools by 1991. At the moment, according to Yufanyi (1992) only the mission schools seem to have attained this objective. In 1991 - 1992, there were in Progress High School Bamenda, over 300 form five students who sat together in the same room for lectures. Then in Government High School Wum, all the form ones had over 85 students sitting in classrooms meant for 45. The Minister of Education in the same interview referred to earlier, said a good number of schools had 150 students per class and soon after that he signed a text imposing a maximum class size of 60 in all government secondary schools. All these facts show that there is a chronic shortage of classrooms in secondary schools resulting in over crowded classes that make teaching ineffective and wasteful.

Studies show that in 1986 (Cameroon, 1986), additional staffing needs for secondary education were estimated at 14,038. The recruitment of these was to be uniformly spread over a period of five years, but surprisingly the intake into the Ecole Normale Supérieure (ENS) which trains secondary school teachers was not increased. Thus the ENS was graduating only 500 - 600 teachers per year in the five years concerned i.e 1987 to 1991. Consequently, the staffing situation has not changed much in 1995.

In addition to the above, there are other major problems facing secondary education. These according to Tambo (1989) include lack of teaching aids, high crop-out rates and disparities in the distribution of schools and facilities between urban and rural zones.

## 1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

As the foregoing discussions show, the public and private sectors are unable to finance educational institutions adequately in Cameroon. The State authorities say the government's inability to fund the educational system is due to the economic crisis that the country has been experiencing since 1985. The private agencies on the other hand claim that their difficulty in financing education is due to the fact that government subsidy which used to be a major source of revenue is no longer forthcoming. In addition, government has set a ceiling to the fees that private schools can charge and external aid that used to flow easily to the mission schools is becoming very difficult if not impossible to obtain these days. All of these factors have resulted in a crisis in educational finance in the country.

To improve or even maintain the present level of development of the secondary school system, there is need to search for alternative sources of finance as has been recommended elsewhere (Yannakopoulos, 1980; Bray & Lillis, 1988; Orivel, 1990). Since external aid to education is very scarce and public expenditure on education is declining, policy-makers need to study the participation of PTAs in schools to see how it can be improved and identify other sources of education finance within the local communities. Educational planners and administrators have to find out which individuals or groups can be motivated to fund education and in what form such funding can easily be obtained. They also need to know which school projects can easily attract local interest and determine if the policy of "free education" in public secondary schools should be maintained or not.

Consequently, there is need to study local support to education in all the provinces of the country so as to come out with a comprehensive picture. The present project was a detailed study of local support to secondary education in the North West Province.

### 1.3 PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

The main thrust of this study was a search for means of generating education finances from within the local communities. It has already been documented by many authors that in the Third World countries in general educational resources are scarce and are becoming scarcer (see for example Eicher, 1984; Coombs, 1985; Commonwealth Secretariat, 1986). Consequently, to improve or even maintain the present level of educational development, alternative resources have to be sought. One way of doing so is by looking in the local community itself to see if direct household contributions (user charges) could be increased and if the populations could be motivated to fund education. Thus the study had nine main objectives as follows:-

1. To study the variety of methods employed by schools to attract local financing and at the same time look for ways of improving them. Elsewhere, strategies such as naming of halls or streets and maintenance of very cordial school - community links have worked well (Yannakopoulos, 1980). So the status quo situation in the North-West was critically studied to see how well or badly it worked with the objective of looking for ways of improving such strategies and/or introducing new ones.
2. To study the various financial activities of PTAs in the sampled schools. The government has signed texts appealing to PTAs to help fund schools. This research measured PTA participation, found out what they have done, how and why they do it, and at the same time searched for ways of giving them more motivation.
3. To identify other local sources of education finance. In so doing, an attempt

was made to see if source identified in the literature and pilot study as being active elsewhere could equally support secondary education in the North-West Province. Recommendations were then made suggesting that identified dormant sources be activated. This may involve a further sharing of power between the central authorities and local communities.

4. To find out the forms in which local support to secondary education is given. Depending on the economic status of the locality, support to education can take one or more forms including cash, labour, land, materials and equipment.
5. To identify the school projects that attract local support. The literature shows local communities elsewhere preferring certain projects over others. Some prefer building classrooms while others build staff houses. In some countries, community contributions are determined by legislation so that each locality asking for a secondary school knows beforehand what is expected of it (see Bray & Lillis, 1988). Such an arrangement usually entails some degree of decentralization since the communities that contribute also take some decisions about their schools. Should the government decide to ask certain groups to carry out specific financial tasks in secondary education, then it must be willing to share power with people. This will be in line with the aspirations of a majority of Cameroonians who are presently clamouring for a return of "Power to the people".
6. To make comparisons between types of secondary school in terms of local financial support received in the whole period of the study and for 1993 - 1994. Comparisons were made between technical/grammar, urban/rural and

public/private schools. This brought out the kind of school that is receiving more attention from the local communities.

7. To determine criteria for fees and costs. The central government determines fees and salaries in the education system of Cameroon without basing the amounts charged on any study. Unit cost norms were worked out for the various types of school depending on curriculum, location and ownership to give a rough estimate of what fees to charge. An important argument has recently come to light. Parents whose children attend private schools feel cheated. They pay fees for their children and pay tax whose revenue is used in financing the education of other people's children in public schools. This issue is both ethical and practical; however, this study examined mainly the practical side. All the school authorities and PTA representatives indicated their stand on this issue so that recommendations were then made on whether the policy of "free education" in public secondary schools should be maintained or not given the present economic situation in the country. Such recommendations were based on the opinions sought and the researcher's own experience.

8. To investigate alternative ways of generating secondary education finance. Normally local support is imposed as levies and fees. But there are other methods such as appeal to philanthropists, launching ceremonies, and fairs which the literature indicates have generated significant resources elsewhere. Could such methods and others work in the North-West Province? Opinions were sought on these to see how such strategies are acceptable. A combination

of various methods could be used by schools, PTAs and the government to mobilize more local resources.

9. To make recommendations to policy makers on the various issues covered above.

#### 1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

All over this world, there is a persistent cry for the allocation for more financial resources to education (Coombs, 1985; Nsingo 1994). This is so because educational administrators and planners are confronted with a geometric rise in educational costs. Consequently, they will be interested in new ways of generating additional resources for education.

In 1990 - 1991, the then Minister of National Education, Professor Joseph Mboui, during his end of year tour of the country, called on education authorities and people of several provinces to emulate the example of the North-West Province by helping the government to finance education. The findings of this study are likely to be of interest to people all over the national territory and will provide guidance to policy formulators in the public and private sectors of education.

The study identified various sources of local support to education so that principals and managers will know where to ask for financing. In soliciting aid, it is not proper to ask for it in a form not easily available in the locality. The various forms in which communities like to provide support to secondary education were identified in this study. In this way, decision makers could know beforehand in what form to ask for local support. The government, in decentralizing certain financial tasks could make use of the findings so as to avoid a mismatch

between responsibility and resources. It is hoped that the study will contribute to an improvement or at least a maintenance of the present level of educational development at the secondary level.

Certain school projects attract spontaneous participation of the local populations. A knowledge of such projects is important. In May 1990 the Minister of National Education signed a circular letter asking parent-teacher associations to help the government by building classrooms, buying equipment, building fences and installing water and electricity. This text, however, was not based on any research finding. The priorities as perceived by PTAs may not include building fences or installing electricity in schools. Before tasks are assigned to the local communities, it is necessary for the authorities to know the projects that stimulate their interest. Thus, this study identified those projects that local communities could contribute towards their financing.

The location and type of school was expected to have a bearing on the level of community support. Therefore, the study made comparisons between urban and rural schools, public and private schools, and technical and grammar schools. The results will help planners determine where to set up school plants and know for which type of school they can invite and expect local support.

The recent introduction (December, 1992) of school fees in tertiary education has caused much discontent in the country. Public opinion was not considered before the decision was taken. The researcher foresees that, in the near future, tuition fees will be introduced into a hitherto tuition free public secondary school system. The research sought the informed opinion of secondary school authorities and PTA representatives on the fee issue. Such an opinion will hopefully guide the government in deciding whether or not to maintain the status



quo or introduce tuition and other fees.

The research findings will not only serve as a tool to educational planners and administrators but it is hoped that they will contribute to the growing body of international knowledge on the problems of educational finance. In addition, research of this kind is very rare in Cameroon especially since none of the universities trains specialists in educational administration and planning. This research will perhaps encourage other students to carry out studies on one or more of the various aspects of educational finance in Cameroon.

### 1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the background information, the problem as stated and the purposes of the study, the following research questions which focus on the North-West province guided and directed the study:

1. What strategies do secondary schools presently employ to attract local financial support?
2. How active are PTAs in the sampled secondary schools?
3. What have been the other sources of local financial support to secondary education and how regular have they been.
4. What are the common forms of local support?
5. What school projects/activities attract local financing?
6. What has been the magnitude, trend and proportion of local support in the last five years?
7. Is there a significant relationship between the urban/rural location of a school and the frequency of local support it receive?

8. Is there a significant relationship between the curriculum of a school and the frequency of local support it receives?
9. Does ownership of a school relate significantly to the frequency of local support it receives?
10. What types of fees are realistic and justifiable in public secondary schools?
11. What alternative strategies can be employed to improve education finance at the secondary level?

#### 1.6 HYPOTHESES

Ashuntantang and others (1977) reported that in the South-West Province of Cameroon, rural primary schools received more local support than urban ones. The researcher assumes that this is true in the secondary level and has important implications for financing strategies.

Grammar schools are more widespread than technical schools. This could be indicative of the fact that local communities give more financial support to grammar schools possibly because technical schools are more costly and/or are considered to be less prestigious.

Considering the above statements and knowing that private schools depend more on local community sources, it was hypothesized for this study that:

1. Rural secondary schools receive more local support than urban ones.
2. Grammar schools receive more local support than technical schools; and
3. Private secondary schools receive more local support than public ones.

#### 1.7 TYPE OF STUDY AND SCOPE

This research was based on a mixture of survey and case study procedures and

involved 30 secondary schools in the North-West Province. The first phase was a survey of local finance in 25 of the sampled schools that gave a broad picture for the province. The second phase consisted of case studies of a carefully selected schools in an urban and a rural area. The case studies provided details that could not be derived in the survey.

The study was concerned with the generation of alternative resources for secondary education from within local communities. There is already enough evidence that public resources and external aid to education are on a steep decline and so the research did not focus on these (see Eicher, 1984; Orivel, 1990; Ogbu & Gallagher, 1991).

As far as level of education is concerned the research focused on secondary schools. The other levels are equally important but it would have been unrealistic to study the whole education system within the scope of this project.

The geographical setting of the study was the North-West Province of Cameroon. The province is of particular interest in illustrating patterns of local financing which may be applicable elsewhere. In view of the present political polarization of the country (1990 -1995), the researcher felt he could encounter difficulty gathering information in other provinces. Being a native of the North - West, he expected to inspire confidence and have easy access to information there. Working in the province removed a language barrier thereby easing communication. Most of Cameroon is French - speaking. Since the author's working language is English, he communicated easily in the North-West where English is the official language. More background information on the province is provided in Chapter Three.

## 1.8 DEFINITION OF TERMS

The key word in this study is "support". It can take several meanings, but for the

purpose of the present work, it means money or any other thing with monetary value contributed towards the development of secondary education. Consequently, money, land, labour, materials and equipment received from local communities or household are considered as support. This definition includes direct household contributions such as fees and community contributions such as PTA levies.

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## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

The smooth running of an educational system depends on several factors among which the major ones are management structure and the flow of resources it receives from public and private sectors. The management structure also influences the flow of funds to school system.

Many studies have been carried out on the management and financing of education in the developed world, whereas in developing countries relatively little literature exists on this theme. The few studies that have been carried out in the Third World, however, include countries in Latin America, Asia and Africa. Some of the studies, like those of Yannakopoulos (1980), and Bray & Lillis (1988), have focused mainly on community and private financing with little coverage of management. Others, such as those of Cruz & Colado (1975), Eicher (1984), Orivel (1990) and Kelly (1991), have considered public and private financing of education.

The first part of this chapter will review the literature on management in view of its importance in the flow of educational finance. The first section, general and historical consideration, surveys work on the nature of management systems in general. This is followed by studies on systems of educational management. Since most of the systems studied are described as decentralized, the advantages and disadvantages of decentralization are reviewed to clarify the implications of such a policy.

The second part of the chapter deals with the financing of education. The literature

reviewed shows how various sub-Saharan countries with different management structures have financed their education systems. The literature here concentrates on public expenditures on education and foreign aid.

The third and last part of the literature review focuses on local community support to education. It is concerned with sources of finances from within the community, forms of financial contributions, projects accomplished with local financing and the magnitude of local support. The final section reviews empirical studies on local financing from Nigeria.

## 2.2 MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS

Management structure is a factor that greatly influences the flow of resources to education. That is why Hinchcliffe (1989b, p.233) says "the diversification of the funding of education is closely linked to... administrative decentralisation". Cameroon can partly solve her financial crisis in education by copying and/or modifying management structures from other countries. Though there is no universal prototype for management structures, experience elsewhere indicates the advantages and disadvantages of each structure. A knowledge of these will greatly help in restructuring the management of education in Cameroon.

### 2.2.1 General and Historical Considerations

Education systems the world over exist in a continuum ranging from the very centralized to the extremely decentralized. Where the government exerts tight control and bears full responsibility for decision making as well as collection and disbursement of funds, the management system may be described as "centralized". Where there is a sharing of

authority between the central government and lower tiers of government or independent bodies the system is "mixed". In the case where the local governments and/or independent bodies are powerful and highly autonomous in decision making and revenue collection, the system may be described as "decentralized". In Africa, centralized systems are found mostly in Francophone countries such as Congo and Chad while decentralized or mixed systems are mainly in Anglophone countries like Nigeria, Tanzania and Kenya. The general tendency in the world at present is to decentralize education systems though with some opposition here and there (Bray, 1985). China appears to be an unusual case of a country that is currently recentralizing its education system (Robinson, 1988).

Decentralization can take one or more of three forms. It can mean deconcentration, delegation or devolution which all involve a transfer of central government tasks and functions to lower bodies (Jimenez & Tan, 1987). Deconcentration involves a transfer to lower levels within the central government such as regional directorates. Delegation means a transfer to organisations outside the structure of government such as voluntary agencies. In the first case, government remains the source of funding, while in the second it usually provides substantial subsidy to encourage the organisation to perform the tasks and functions delegated to it. Devolution on the other hand includes a transfer to partially autonomous sub-units of government such as provinces, cities and districts which are legally empowered to raise tax revenues and spend them. Devolution usually results in a school system managed and financed by local governments. In Australia, some of the states have recently undergone "radical devolution" since power has been devolved to individual schools which are soon to be able to "hire and fire" personnel (Watt, 1989).

Most countries with decentralized systems practise delegation and/or devolution. When

the missionaries brought formal education to Africa in the nineteenth century, its provision was decentralized. In most areas there was no central government to delegate or devolve power to the missionaries. Each mission usually assumed power, carved out its territories of influence, and organised and ran schools its own way with the cooperation of church communities who provided land, labour and some building materials (Cowan et al, 1965). In other areas, it was not only the church-goers but whole villages that were mobilized to support missionary effort in education (Bray & Lillis, 1988). Thus the missions organised and ran schools with local support and substantial aid from the parent mission in Europe and America. Such aid was often in the form of teachers, books and money.

The various colonial governments had very little to do with education for a long time. However, this attitude gradually changed as governments came to realise the importance of education as a tool for economic development. Apart from this, other factors contributed to the interest of colonial governments in educational activities. The various missions that were active in education in the colonies held a conference in Edinburgh in 1910 and called on governments to help in staffing and financing mission schools (Scanlon, 1966, p.15). The mandate system of the League of Nations forced colonial powers to participate more actively in education. In addition, African agricultural products began selling highly in the world market after World War I, thus making additional funds which could be invested in education available. Finally, the Phelps-Stokes report of 1922 strongly criticised the curricula, organisation and administration of African schools and called on colonial governments to play greater roles in education. The report jolted the colonial governments (especially Britain) out of their "serene tranquillity and indifference" to colonial education and served as the basis for formulation of education policy for the colonies. Because of the new interest in education,



colonial powers began to assume a greater share of the burden for education. Directors of education were appointed for the various colonies and commissions were created to formulate government policy on colonial education (Cowan et al, 1965; Scanlon, 1966; Taiwo, 1985).

The British colonial government appears to have been the first to change by showing an interest in education in 1870. Prior to 1870, the colonial government had been involved in education in Sierra Leone but in that year it proposed a grant of £300 for the missions in Lagos. This grant never materialised. However, in 1872, a grant of £30 was actually made "...to be equally divided..." among the three larger missions - the CMS, Wesleyan and Roman Catholic (Fujana, 1978, p.49). This sum though paltry, marked the beginning of British interest in the educational affairs of Nigeria. Such small grants interspersed with government ordinances slowly spread throughout the whole country and later British Cameroons where the colonial government made a grant of £60 to education in 1916 (Cameroon Province, 1916, p.51). In addition, soon after the Phelps-Stokes report, a permanent inspector of schools for Southern Cameroons was appointed and native administration schools were created in 1923 (Cameroon Province, 1923).

Britain's involvement in educational affairs of the colonies entered a new stage with the publication of the memoranda, Education Policy in British Tropical Africa in 1925. This policy among other provisions, established a system of grants-in-aid for the voluntary agency schools which conformed to prescribed regulations, met necessary standards and subjected themselves to government direction and supervision (Cowan et al, 1965, p.8). The missions who had been putting pressure on the government to help in financing the expanding school system welcomed this policy and educational provision which had been very hazardous became coordinated by the colonial government though remaining decentralized. Apart from the

missions, territorial, regional and local bodies were created to have controlling power over education (Fafunwa, 1982). The local bodies termed Native Authorities were encouraged and financially assisted to provide formal education as well.

French interest in the educational affairs of its colonies was awakened in 1922 when the metropolitan government started issuing a series of policy statements (Cowan et al, 1965, p.6). Other policy statements on education were issued in 1925, 1927 and 1930 (Tambo, 1989). All of these statements were meant to centralize education by bringing it under strict government control. By 1924, all mission schools that conformed to regulation were given assistance which was often more than what church schools received in metropolitan France (Scanlon, 1966, p.6). Among the African colonies of France, the mandated territories of Togo and French Cameroon received greater government attention in the field of education. As such, aid to the missions in these two territories was proportionately greater. However, for any mission school in the colonies to receive subsidy, it had to imitate the public schools in metropolitan France in terms of quality, structure, curriculum, examinations and certificates. Since the missions needed government assistance, they had to conform to the policy demands.

With the dawn of independence, the new African states inherited these systems from their colonial masters. The new nationalist governments, encouraged by the Ashby Report of Nigeria in 1960 and the Addis Ababa Conference in 1961, decided to play a more active role in education than the colonial master had done. New education policies were drawn up, school administration was reorganised and public expenditures on education were increased. In some countries, hundreds of new public schools were created and all native authority schools and some mission schools were taken over by government, supposedly, for efficiency

and equity reasons. Other governments, in addition to creating new public schools, increased grants-in-aid to the missions. All these activities resulted in a very rapid growth and expansion of education in Africa. Most of the universities in the continent were created during this period of post-independence boom in education (Thompson, 1983; Simmons, 1980).

The above situation was of limited duration however. According to Coombs (1985, p.139) it lasted for about two decades from 1960 to around 1980 in general, and then things began to change. Africa entered what has been described as the "lost decade" (Mkamdawire, 1993). The future jobs that had served as a basis for educational expansion and growth were not becoming available. The economic growth that education was supposed to generate was not forthcoming. The gap between the rich and the poor that education was to narrow had instead widened (Bowles, 1980). All of these experiences led to disillusion with education and to crown it all, the world economic recession had set in very unexpectedly in 1974 (Eicher, 1984, p.41) reducing the scarce resources that could fund education (Thompson, 1983; Psacharapoulus, 1986). Thus the zeal of the early years of independence for governments to invest in education is dying off because policy makers no longer see education as the "miracle cure" of all social and developmental ills (Thompson, 1983).

In some areas, especially because of the democratic wave presently sweeping through most of Africa, people want to have a say in educational matters. Local populations argue that in view of the falling standards and inefficiency in the management of resources, they want to shoulder some responsibility in the provision of education for their children.

Because of the preceding discussion, Third World countries all over the world including those of Africa, are presently looking for better ways of decentralizing their

education systems (Yannakopoulos, 1980; Bray, 1985). The governments want to share management and financial responsibilities with the local populations. The case of Cameroon appears to be rather pathetic. The government has not really legalised any method of sharing responsibility with the various administrative units and local communities but "hopes" they will provide managerial and financial support to education.

As African countries go about decentralizing their education systems, they should consider the past and the present. The history of colonial Africa shows that the system of grants-in-aid and "assumed local contributions" as practised in British territories was effective and cheap to the state. At present, there are systems of education which range from the very centralized to the radically decentralized. African governments should be able to learn from the continent's colonial experience and from other systems of education. The structure of an education system whether centralized, mixed or decentralized will greatly affect fiscal inputs into the system as well as its management. The next sub-section focuses on systems of educational management from both the developed world and less developed countries.

The examples in the following sub-sections have been chosen to represent different strata in the decentralization - centralization continuum. The United States and Brazil have decentralized education systems. The Netherlands has a mixed system while that of France is extremely centralized. These countries have been chosen to eventually expose Cameroonians to the advantages to be derived from each system. When Cameroon finally decides to decentralize its education system, these examples and others could provide guidelines for policy.

### 2.2.2 Decentralized Systems

The literature indicates that the majority of education systems in the world are decentralized with power and responsibilities being distributed at the federal, regional, local and institutional levels. This distribution is not uniform but varies from one decentralized system to the other. A typical example of such systems is that of the United States of America (USA).

The education system of the USA has been studied by a great number of researchers including Howe (1971), USIS (1986), Hans (1988) Ukeje (1988) and Alege (1990). Their findings are unanimous on the decentralized nature of the education system. All the studies indicate that the management and financing of American schools are well decentralized and tend to indicate that a majority of countries are copying the American model.

When colonists first arrived America from Europe, they had to decide what aspects of their cultural heritage to preserve, and which ones to discard. They also had to decide upon the means to preserve and build their legacy. The means finally settled on was the town school. By 1650, all towns were required to hire a schoolmaster to teach reading, writing, arithmetic and religion. In 1787, the continental congress required every new township to preserve one plot of land for public schools. In the early days, each state had constitutional powers over schools, determined its own curricula, standards and purposes. The local communities raised funds for buildings and teachers (USIS, 1989).

In 1834, Pennsylvania established the first completely free, publicly supported and controlled school system. Other states soon copied her example so that by 1865, education from primary school through university was becoming available to all. In this way, the public school became a vessel in which a distinctive American civilization was shaped. The school

thus became an Americanizing agent for the massive wave of new immigrants in the late 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries (USIS, 1986).

The present organisation and structure of the US system of education has been shaped by historical experience and a strong cultural heritage. It is very diversified, reflecting the different shades of culture and the various states.

An overview of the various studies indicates that the constitution of the USA excludes education from the purview of the Federal Government. Each State is thus to build its own educational system and though many state constitutions cover the provision of education, this obligation has been delegated to local authorities. Consequently, the provision of education used to rely mainly on state governments and local boards with sporadic unco-ordinated support from the Federal Government. However, after signing the National Defence Education Act in 1958 (in which Federal Government, claimed it had to intervene in education for national security reasons), the Federal Government has been increasing its involvement in education to the extent that in 1968 - 1969, it appropriated 37 billion dollars for education. Federal Government spending is linked to specific education programmes/projects such as libraries, scientific equipment, etc. It is interesting to note that, despite such heavy spending, the Federal Government does not exert any direct control over education. Thus its role is restricted to providing financial support, leadership and encouragement (USIS, 1986).

An important finding of these studies is the nature of control or amount of power of the local authorities. Presently, the provision of education is the concern of the Federal Government, the state governments and the school districts. The state governments have delegated educational functions and tasks to the school districts of the various counties. Each district is run by an elected Board of Education which has powers among other things to hire

and fire school employees, build and equip schools, determine the curriculum to reflect local needs and desires, levy taxes to finance schools and exercise control over students. The board is thus very powerful and autonomous. It formulates policy within a framework of laws and policies of the state, prepares the education budget and has autonomy in spending funds provided in the budget (Howe, 1971; Hans, 1988; Alege, 1990).

The chief executive officer of the school district is the superintendent. He advises the board, directs and co-ordinates activities in the districts' schools and is responsible for the execution of policy laid down by the board.

Where the school district is too large, as for example the Los Angeles Unified School District, the board of education is further decentralized by the creation of area offices which enjoy some autonomy but are subject to control and supervision from the main office. Ukeje (1988) points out that in the USA, decentralization in management goes hand in hand with decentralization in financing. The local authorities have much power and have to fund their schools. The Board of Education provides 52% of education expenditures while the state provides 40% and the Federal Government provides the rest. This last finding on financial contributions is very important. It shows how the financial burden for educational provision on the central and regional governments has been greatly relieved by local contributions. The implication of this is that in the less developed countries such as Cameroon, impoverished and overburdened central governments could try to raise more resources for education by creating powerful local authorities with managerial and financial tasks for education.

The American system of education is thus decentralized. The Federal government has no constitutional responsibility for education. The state governments have constitutional responsibility for education but have delegated most of it to the school districts. Broadly

similar patterns of management structure are found in Canada, Switzerland Ukeje, 1988); Brazil (Sobrinho, 1978; Marques & Lopez, 1978), India (Ukeje, 1988, Tilak, 1989); and Papua New Guinea (Bray, 1985).

The system in some Australian states (notably South Australia, Victoria and Western Australia) has gone a step beyond the above. Watt (1989) among other findings says power has been "radically" devolved to individual schools and the supervisory bodies at local and regional levels have been dismantled. As such, schools determine curriculum, pedagogy and certification; can raise and use resources and will soon have power to hire and fire personnel. In effect then, the new Australian school is supposed to be self-governing. Whereas in the USA power rests mainly with the school district, in South Australia, the individual school is powerful and autonomous.

The American system has been greatly influenced by the idea of participatory democracy and the principle of "no taxation without representation". The decentralized systems of the Third World have been brought about by a combination of historical, administrative, political and philosophical factors. However, the implementation of decentralization policies in the newly independent nations has faced some major problems. Some of these will be examined at the end of this first part of the review.

A decentralized system appears to be the answer for Cameroon. If financial and management responsibilities for education are devolved, additional resources for schools could be generated at community level to help reduce the fiscal strain on the government. The next sub-section examines another type of system to see its applicability to the Cameroonian situation.



### 2.2.3 Mixed Systems

A compromise in the centralization - decentralization polarity is the mixed system where there is a combination of central and local control on education. A good number of the systems that have been described as being at one extreme end of this polarity are in reality mixed. The Netherlands presents a good example of a mixed system where the central government, the municipalities and voluntary agencies have control of, and responsibility for education.

There are two main types of school in the Netherlands managed by the public authorities and by voluntary agencies (Idenberg, 1971). Public schools are run by the state and the municipalities. Voluntary agency schools are run by churches or school associations composed of parents. No school is run on a commercial basis. The Ministry of Education and Sciences bears construction and operating costs for all schools. It also supervises and regulates both types of school.

A recent study by James (1984) indicates that, since the turn of the century, while most countries have been increasing the proportion of public schools, the Dutch have been moving in the opposite direction by increasing the proportion of voluntary agency schools. In 1850, 77% of primary schools enrolments were in public school and 23% in voluntary agency schools while all the secondary school enrolments were in public schools. In 1879, only 31% and 28% of the enrolments were in public primary and secondary schools respectively. The rest were in private voluntary agency schools. In the same year (1879) the churches had 66% of the enrolments at both the primary and secondary levels while the school associations of parent groups had 3% and 4% respectively. This shows that the bulk of the responsibility for providing educational services was assumed by the churches.

The churches concerned are the Roman Catholic, Calvinists and the Dutch Reformed. These churches, school associations and municipalities bear managerial costs only, while the state finances all other expenditures. James estimates that public expenditures cover building costs and about 80 - 90% of the recurrent costs for every school (1984, p.611).

The government exerts strict control on the schools. Teacher number and salaries, curricula, fees and many other production factors are centrally determined. The churches have decision making authority over teaching methods, choice of textbooks, hiring (but not firing) of employees and training of teachers. The non-denominational schools (operated by parent groups) simply imitate the public schools.

Thus the Dutch system of education has been largely "delegated" in management but is centrally financed. The government has delegated authority to the churches, the municipalities and school associations. These bodies can create schools and run them but they neither have autonomy in raising and spending revenue nor in decision making. Since the bulk of education is provided by private organisations, the Dutch system is described as being "privatized". This is very different from the situation in the USA or Brazil where the organizations receiving delegation are sub-units of government mainly.

"Privatization" in the context used above is a form of decentralization that involves the delegation of power to non-governmental bodies. An explanation of the present Dutch system lies in religious differentiation that developed political momentum. The three main churches in Holland have different philosophies that they want to inculcate in young members. Since public schools cannot cater for the needs of each one of them adequately, they demanded and obtained nearly 100% funding for private schools from the government. A natural corollary of public funding is a loss of some autonomy by the voluntary agencies to the government.

Thus the present arrangement is private non-profit production of educational services with central government funding and regulations resulting in a mixed structure.

Among the literature reviewed, the above system is unique to the Netherlands. There is talk about privatizing education in the United States of America, but there is still much opposition to such a move. James seems to have done her study so as to expose Americans to the Dutch system as proof of the advantages of privatization.

A mixed system such as that of Holland may not be suitable for Cameroon which is currently suffering from lack of liquidity. The problem is how to diversify and increase resources for education so as to reduce the burden on the public purse. In the Dutch system, financial demands on local communities are very insignificant. What Cameroon needs is a system where power and financial responsibility are decentralized.

The next sub-section reviews centralized systems to see what they can offer for Cameroon.

#### 2.2.4 Centralized Systems

The literature indicates that centralized education systems are found in a number of countries including Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Yugoslavia (Lauglo & McLean, 1985) with France being regarded as the archetype of such systems (Broadfoot, 1985). On a comparative basis, there appears to be more decentralized systems in the world than centralized ones. The following discussion reviews the French system as an example of centralized systems.

The education system in France is structured in such a way that local populations have very little or no decision making authority on what kind of education their children receive.

According to Male (1971), Boursin (1980) and Broadfoot (1985) the system of education is centralized. Boursin indicates that the provision of formal education in the whole country is organised by the Ministry of Education in Paris. Non-formal education is organised and controlled by the ministries directly concerned; for example the Ministry of Agriculture is in charge of the various agricultural high schools.

The Ministry of Education is very powerful. Among other legal provisions, it supervises the academies, recruits teachers for all public schools, issues curricula along with details on teaching methods, and controls the allocation of funds to the different regions (academies). In addition, the Ministry controls and supervises private schools. To qualify for government grants, private schools must follow public school regulations and curricula. The grants usually cover teachers' salaries and other operating costs (Males, 1971; Boursin, 1980).

One of the main concerns of the Ministry is the school map ("carte scolaire"). As such there are two bureaus in the Ministry whose function is to determine places for the implantation of secondary schools. One office is concerned with first cycle secondary schools (CES) while the other is concerned with second cycle schools (Lycées). This centralized planning of the school map enhances equity by promoting a fair sharing of educational opportunities among the different regions of the country. The Ministry is assisted in school mapping by school map commissions (Commissions academiques de la carte scolaire) which are attached to the various academies (Boursin, 1981).

The Minister of Education is represented in the different academies (regions) by rectors who control and supervise all level of formal education in their areas. There are 23 rectors in France and their main function is to strictly execute directives from the Ministry. A rector

controls the use of human and financial resources allocated to the academy by the central government. He also organises all examinations and appoints members of juries. In addition, he indicates his opinion on every communication to the Minister.

The Local populations ("Communes") contribute very little to education and consequently, do not have decision making power over school matters. The communes provide heating and lighting to school buildings (Male, 1971).

In the past, the Catholic Church held a monopoly on education for several centuries. The French Revolution destroyed this monopoly but some of it was regained under Napoleon Bonaparte (Scanlon, 1966, p.9). The state formally decided to shoulder the burden for education in 1828 when a Minister of National Education was appointed. Since then, there was a continuous struggle between the state and the Roman Catholic Church over control of education. However, the state finally succeeded to centralize education and bring it under the control of the Ministry of National Education. Presently mission schools are fewer than public schools and state inspectors inspect mission schools that want to receive subsidy (Male, 1971; Boursin, 1981). Thus one can conclude that the French system was formerly decentralized with most of the provision in the hands of the catholics but during the late 19<sup>th</sup> Century and the first half of the twentieth, the government succeeded in centralizing the system.

The main arguments behind the French system of education is "equity" and "efficiency". It is claimed that the central government can ensure an equitable distribution of resources raised from tax revenues so that regional disparities do not develop. A central curriculum and pedagogy ensure quality which could deteriorate if localized.

It is only a very economically viable central government that can centralize its education system since financial demands on local communities are minimal in such systems.

In 1965, Congo nationalized and centralized all schools (Marcelus and Reid, 1990) because the government felt it could shoulder all educational expenditures. At present, with the advent of the world economic gloom, the Congolese government is finding it increasingly difficult to run its schools.

The two paragraphs above show clearly that a centralized system is not suitable for Cameroon. The "equity" argument may hold but "efficiency" does not since Cameroon is composed of Anglophones and Francophones whose educational systems and curricula are widely different. The economic situation of the country argues against centralization since the government is not able to assume financial responsibility for the large school network created mostly for political survival reasons. What Cameroon needs is a redistribution of financial and other responsibilities for education. The following sub-section examines the case of Cameroon in detail.

#### **2.2.5 The Case of Cameroon: Past and Present**

Of all the examples reviewed so far, the management structure of the education system in Cameroon appears to be very similar to that of France. Recent studies by Shu (1982), Ndongko (1989), Tambo (1989) and Yufanyi (1991) all indicate that the education system is very centralized.

In the days of the defunct Federal Republic of Cameroon, there were two distinct management structures in the country. The West Cameroon system were decentralized, since the state government gave heavy grants to the voluntary agencies who operated the majority of the schools. On the other hand, the East Cameroon system was centralized just as the French had left it. With the death of the Federation and the birth of the United Republic in

May 1972, the management structures were merged in such a way as to assert "... more of a Franchophone hegemony" (Yufanyi, 1991, p.610). In the process of merging, many of the aided schools in West Cameroon were converted into public schools. What came out of this exercise was a centralized system of management.

At present, the Ministry of National Education in Yaoundé controls the provision of nursery, primary and secondary education in the whole country. Most of non-formal education such as is provided in the craft centres also falls under national education. The Ministry is composed of seven departments one of which is the Department of Private Education (Shu, 1982). It controls private institutions in all aspects including finance, administration, pedagogy, buildings and facilities. Yufanyi (1992, p.20) is very bitter about this situation when he writes that the "...government insists on... its administrative, supervisory and pedagogic role over mission schools while holding that its financial responsibility for these schools is incidental".

The Ministry controls teacher qualifications, recruitment and salaries. It also controls curricula, textbooks, promotion examinations, graduation examinations, collection of fees and the appointment of administrative personnel such as education secretaries, headmasters or principals (Shu, 1982; Ndongko, 1989).

Each of the ten provinces has a provincial Delegate of National Education whose function is to implement decisions of the Minister to whom he is directly answerable (Shu, 1982). All his actions are controlled by texts signed either by the Minister or the President of the Republic. The delegate is thus an extension of central authority who ensures that the Ministry of Education in Yaoundé has effective control of provincial schools.

Where a division is too far or very large, it may have a sub-delegate whose functions

are similar to the delegate's. Sometimes, a sub-delegate can cover two divisions. In the normal situation a division (department) has an Inspector of Education who organizes and runs nursery and primary schools in a mechanical way, under the directives of both the Minister and the Delegate. The sub-division (Arrondissement) has a sub-inspector of Education who functions like the inspector. The inspectors do not have authority over secondary education. The secondary school principals deal directly with the Delegation or the Ministry (Shu, 1982; Ndongko, 1989).

The delegate, the sub-delegate, the inspector, the sub-inspector and the principals are all agents of implementation of central authority who execute decisions uniformly all over the country without considering local contexts. Each one has a file of signed texts to refer to for directives in case of a new situation. Once new orders or directives are received from above they are simply executed mechanically. Those with some initiative may give advice which may or may not be considered in policy articulation and adoption at the centre. They can afford to ignore local public interest or technical interest groups with impunity and be maintained or even promoted as long as they execute assigned duties from the top unflinchingly.

Local communities or municipalities have no say at all in educational matters except when the government wants land to set up a new school or expand an old one. In such instances, the traditional chiefs and municipal councils are requested to provide a suitable piece of land. The only local body that can have a say as to whether to add a classroom, buy new equipment, repair a fence, or install water or electricity is the PTA (as provided for in circular letter No. 23/JL/MINEDUC/SG/SAAPS/BAPE of 14/05/1990).

As concerns finances, the government is the major source of funds for the public



schools. The parents make little contributions in the form of PTA levies while the municipalities and village councils usually provide land though without a legal obligation. In private schools, there used to be a sharing between government and private sources but presently, only the private sources are active.

A consequence of this kind of centralization is corruption of public officials. The Minister appoints every official from the headmaster of the village school to the provincial delegate. When these people do anything wrong, they may not be questioned or even advised by the people. Should that happen, the official usually responds by saying that he is responsible only to the person who appointed him (Ndopping, 1992, p.8). Some of the corrupt practices include embezzlement of funds and abuse of power.

Another consequence of centralization is social and geographical inequality. The allocation of resources has been such that tertiary education is favoured (Ogbu & Gallagher, 1991) receiving a disproportionately higher amount of allocations. This practice benefits the children from affluent socio-economic backgrounds who are usually the ones who go on to tertiary institutions. Also the distribution of schools especially at secondary level is such that the majority of the well equipped and staffed ones are in urban centres leaving the rural areas with inadequate provision. These two phenomena have occurred with ease because the ruling elite who distribute resources (without accountability) do it in such a way as to favour their own children thereby forcing the powerless poor peasant farmers to pay for the education of children from rich families. The elites and the poor pay taxes whose revenue is used to finance education. If resources were controlled locally and democratically in a decentralized system, such inequalities could be prevented.

The current wave of political awareness that is sweeping through Cameroon ( and

elsewhere in Africa) has implications for education. The majority opinion seems to indicate a replacement of the present neo-colonial centralized system of government with a federation. The Social Democratic Front (SDF) whose demands are a complete devolution of power to the people has formed an alliance of "radical" parties called Union for Change whose main concern is the creation of a decentralized government to replace the present one. Also, Anglophone activists in the Cameroon Anglophone Movement (CAM) are threatening to secede if a federation is not granted. The anglophone area has significant petrol deposits. As experience in Nigeria, Papua New Guinea (Bray, 1985) and elsewhere indicates, a decentralized government will have to be created if Cameroon is to remain united.

Apart from political and economic reasons, explained above, there is a cultural factor. Anglophones have a different cultural heritage from the rest of the country. One of the most valuable facets of this culture is their education system which is presently being threatened by francophone encroachment especially in technical and tertiary education. Consequently, anglophones under the leadership of CAM, the Teachers' Association of Cameroon (TAC) and the Confederation of Anglophone PTAs in Cameroon (CAPTAC) want an autonomous system for their children. Two successes have been achieved in this direction. Firstly, an entirely Anglo-Saxon University has been created and secondly, an examination board for English medium secondary schools has been set up in Buea. The pressure is going to continue until the anglophone system becomes fully autonomous.

In the researcher's view, the Cameroon education system is facing imminent decentralization. Administrative patterns observed elsewhere can be replicated or modified to suit the Cameroonian context. The experience of other countries can help Cameroon in her decentralization to eliminate certain mistakes and disadvantages. Thus the need for the next

sub-sections which review decentralization in action in a number of countries to expose the problems that have been encountered.

### 2.2.6 Advantages of Decentralization

The literature thus far, has defined decentralization and described education systems as decentralized, mixed or centralized. Synonyms of decentralization found in the literature include regionalization, municipalization, localization and democratization (Bray & Lillis, 1988; Yannakopoulos, 1980; Lauglo & McLean, 1985). All of these words are modern and express a concept that has so much of an emotive appeal that Bray (1985) says decentralization is the "latest fashion" in educational administration since evidence shows that a majority of countries are restructuring their systems to give greater power and responsibility to lower tiers of government and local communities. Watt (1989) says words like "progressive" "democratic" and "egalitarian" are generally used to describe decentralization. For a nation to decide whether to centralize or decentralize its education system, it has to look at the implications of both policies critically instead of doing something simply to change the status quo or imitate another country (usually the neo-colonial master).

Studies on decentralization have been carried out by many researchers including Yannakopoulos (1980), Bray (1985), Watt (1989), Lauglo & McLean (1985), Bray & Lillis (1985) and Jimenex & Tan (1987). They use mostly the case study approach to point out the failings of decentralization and conversely the advantages of centralization. Since Hurst (1985) and other researchers warn that infatuation with decentralization could be a "red herring", it is imperative for any country before implementing such a policy to carefully look into the experience of other nations.

The rationales for decentralization are usually classed as political, administrative and ideological/philosophical. The administrative reasons and to some extent the political ones can easily be verified empirically.

A major administrative argument is that decentralization enhances the generation of more resources for education and ensures their efficient use. The individuals and communities will be motivated to contribute additional resources to education since they tend to see the school as belonging to the locality especially if such schools have well defined catchment areas. In this way, local populations will feel more attachment to their school and contribute towards its smooth running. Evidence in support of this argument has been found in India (Nayar & Virmani, 1987), Pakistan (Jimenez & Tan, 1987), Papua New Guinea (Bray, 1985) and Kenya with its large harambee school network (Lillis & Ayot, 1988). Efficiency in the management of resources will also improve since school authorities will be directly accountable to parents and students. As such, they will be more careful with resources and make sure they are put to maximum use (Jimenez & Tan, 1987). In addition, local authorities can determine the mix of production factors considering local market prices to further improve efficiency.

A corollary of the above argument is growth of the education system. Thus it is also argued that decentralization leads to an expansion of the system. Empirical evidence from Pakistan (Jimenez & Tan, 1987) and Kenya (Lillis & Ayot, 1988) supports this claim. Decentralization has promoted the creation of hundreds of private schools and community schools in these countries respectively.

The availability of more resources will greatly improve the quality of education since shortages in input factors will be remedied. If the additional resources raised are devoted

entirely to education, the problems of shortages in buildings, furniture, teachers and equipment will be solved (Yannakopoulos, 1980).

Another administrative rationale for local control is that decision making becomes faster and more appropriate. The local authorities have profound knowledge of their milieu and the problems facing education. Hence they are more capable of finding prompt and right solutions to educational challenges if they are given more autonomy (Yannakopoulos, 1980; Lauglo & McLean, 1985). They can thus determine relevant curricula to suit local needs and aspirations and fix the various proportions of production factors in view of resources and local prices.

A further argument is that decentralization gives room for local initiative to express itself so that there can be innovations and possible improvements in the system. In Papua New Guinea, some provinces have started vernacular schools (Bray, 1985), an innovation which other provinces are presently copying.

The main political reason for decentralization is the maintenance of national unity. Regions are more willing to pay allegiance to the centre if that centre does not interfere too much in regional affairs (Foster, 1975). Sometimes the central government breaks up regions into smaller units to prevent secession. Evidence for this claim is provided by experience in Spain, Yugoslavia, Belgium (Lauglo & McLean, 1985), Nigeria and Papua New Guinea (Bray, 1985).

In addition, decentralization relieves financial strain on the central government and gives it the prestigious position of criticising regional and local governments with righteous indignation for the fallings of the education system.

The philosophical arguments claim that decentralization is liberating and fulfilling for

the individual making him whole and complete in his relation to God through participation. Local autonomy is thus a way of "recreating the essential relationship between the individual and God" (Lauglo & McLean, 1985). Also, participation by individuals is seen to re-inforce self-confidence, self-reliance and social cohesion. These arguments have not been verified empirically in the literature but they are possibly in the minds of decision makers who articulate and adopt decentralization policies.

### 2.2.7 Disadvantages of Decentralization

The above reasons, though not exhaustive highlight the main arguments for decentralization. Advocates of centralized systems always point at the failures of decentralization. What problems are encountered in implementing decentralization? The next paragraphs concentrate on this question.

The main problem in the literature is the existence of social and geographical inequalities and inadequate provision in countries with decentralized systems. Evidence for these is found in nearly all the thirty cases studies reviewed (Orivel, 1990; Bray & Lillis, 1985; Lauglo & McLean, 1985; Watt, 1989; Jimenez & Tan, 1987; Yannakopoulos, 1980).

In Australia, Watt (1989) found out that there are inequalities in staffing, curricula, buildings and facilities with affluent areas having better schools and more demanding curricula than those of poor neighbourhoods. As such, graduates from schools in rich areas are in higher demand on the job market. Thus, he concludes that decentralization strongly benefits the rich and further handicaps the poor, and strongly argues for a centralized system. This pattern represents an inequality between rich and poor, and between urban and rural areas since the poor generally live in rural areas while the rich occupy the urban centres. Similar

inequalities have been found in Papua New Guinea (Bray, 1985) and Pakistan (Jimenez & Tan, 1987). Central control has prevented such inequalities in France, Sweden and Norway (Urwick, 1992; Sherman, 1980).

As concerns quantitative and qualitative inadequacy of provision, Sobrinho (1978) found out that in Brazil, decentralization has given responsibility to local authorities who were all ill prepared for their new roles. The municipalities which have to provide primary education are poor and lack managerial skills and as a consequence, the provision of this level of education is in very serious problems in that country. At present, the Federal Government is providing financial and technical assistance to the municipalities in an effort to resolve the inadequate provision. Thus the financial burden was too much for the local authorities and the managerial skills were simply beyond their scope.

In Nigeria, Udoh and others (1990, p.86) and Orivel (1990, p.31) report that a similar situation exists. The financial burden and planning responsibilities for the provision of primary education are beyond the capacities of the various local governments. Thus all over the country, there are calls on the central government to assume more financial and planning responsibilities in the education sector. Similar findings have been reported in Papua New Guinea (Bray, 1985) and China (Robinson, 1988).

Another failing of a decentralized system is the inability of central governments to impose innovations or control local initiative. It is necessary that once in a while the centre articulates all sub-national systems in a concerted manner to achieve national goals. In Papua New Guinea, the central government spent a lot of money to research and experiment into the Secondary Schools Community Extension Project but when it was ready for implementation, most provincial governments refused to comply. In a similar vein, the Federal Government

is unable to control the wasteful competitive creation of state universities in Nigeria (Bray, 1985, pp.191-192).

Other problems in decentralization include mismanagement of resources because of the absence of supervisory structures (Watt, 1989), incoherence of sub-national systems resulting in general low quality provision of services (Urwick, 1992; Lauglo & McLean, 1985), non-transferability of teachers and students and non-mobility of graduates in the job market because of localized curricula (Watt, 1989).

From the preceding discussion, and considering other factors, advocates of centralization say such a policy enhances equity by checking imbalances between regions and social strata. Also, because of the availability of managerial and supervisory personnel at the centre, efficient management of scarce resources is ensured and better quality education is provided (Urwick, 1992; Tilak, 1989; Watt, 1989).

The above paragraphs should enlighten Cameroon which is facing imminent decentralization and other countries wishing to decentralize so that they can evolve a structure that avoids the pitfalls as outlined above as well as others. Urwick (1992) proposes as ideal a mixture of decentralization and centralization depending on the country's socio-economic conditions, its traditions and aspirations, and on level of education, so that certain responsibilities are devolved or delegated while some remain centralized. He says that for "efficiency" of the system, planning and supervision should be centralized and for "equity" reasons the allocation of resources and opportunities should be centralized. Planning and supervision in Cameroon may need to be centralized at regional level only since there is no national curriculum and the possibility of developing one is simply not there. Also, safeguard devices may need to be created to prevent the powerful ruling elites at the centre from



allocating an unfair share of resources and opportunities to their children and political clients.

## 2.3 THE FINANCING OF EDUCATION

### 2.3.1 Introduction

Having examined management structures for a few countries in the preceding sections, studies on the flow of funds to education in the recent past will be reviewed for some sub-Saharan countries. When the Commonwealth education ministers met in Cyprus in 1984 they were unanimous on the point that the present squeeze on education finance is one of the most serious threats to education especially in Third World countries. At present, different nations around the world are battling with this threat in one way or the other but mostly by spending public resources on education.

This section reviews studies on public expenditures on education and shows that there is a common pattern of growth followed by decline or stagnation in sub-Saharan Africa. Also, studies on foreign aid are reviewed to see their impact on the financing of education in the receiving countries.

### 2.3.2 Public Expenditures on Education

All over the world, governments are heavily involved in financing education. Evidence from the literature (Kelly, 1990; Orivel, 1991) shows that governments are the greatest spenders on education in a majority of the countries. Public expenditures on education are usually measured in terms of national effort which is the percentage of GDP spent on education or fiscal effort which is the percentage of the education budget in the national budget (Eicher, 1984). Such indicators enable international comparisons to be made.

In sub-Saharan Africa, public expenditures grew very rapidly from independence from about the 1960s to around the 1980s and then started stagnating or declining (Eicher, 1984; Coombs, 1985; Ogbu & Gallagher, 1991; Orivel, 1990). Orivel (1990) says the average national effort for sub-Saharan Africa was 3.7% in 1975 and 4.8% in 1987. He distinguishes a grand period of growth, 1975 to 1980, when the increase in national effort and real resources was very rapid; and a period of decline, 1980 to 1987 when there was a critical fall. Per capita public expenditure averaged 13 US dollars in 1975 and only 15 in 1987 at current prices. This represents a decrease since the dollar in 1987 had a smaller value than in 1975.

The above pattern of growth up to 1980 and the decline or stagnation after that year have been documented in a number of countries. In Togo, Eicher (1984) and Dougna (1990) say national effort rose from 2% in 1965 to 5.2% in 1975 but dropped to 5.1% in 1985. In Zambia, Eicher (1984) and Kelly (1990,1991) found out that from 1970 to 1977, national effort averaged 5.6% per year. This dropped to 4.9% in 1978 to 1985 and 3.4% in 1985 - 1986. However, fiscal effort in Zambia rose slightly from 7.7% in 1980 to 8% in 1986. Similarly, Eicher (1984) and Mercellus & Reid (1990) reveal that in Congo, the percentage of GDP spent on education was 7.1% averagely in 1970 to 1980 but dropped to 5.3% in 1980 to 1986.

When Congo is compared with Togo and Zambia, certain points stand out clearly. Congo used to make a relatively higher national effort in education before 1980. Though the percentage of GDP allocated to education fell between 1980 and 1986, it still remained higher than for Togo and Zambia. This difference may be explained by the extreme centralization in Congo which does not require parents and communities to finance much of education. On the other hand, Togo and Zambia have systems where there is a sharing of managerial and

financial responsibilities among the central governments, communities and parents. Consequently, in these two countries the demands on the public purse have not been as high as has been the case in Congo. On the other hand, community and household contributions have been higher and more significant in Togo and Zambia than has been the case in Congo (Eicher, 1984; Dougna, 1990; Kelly, 1990; Marcellus & Reid, 1990).

A more recent study, Ogbu & Gallagher (1991), has worked out trends of public expenditures for five other sub-Saharan countries. The study shows clearly that in every case, there has been a drop. For example, Cameroon's education budget averaged 15.1% of the national budget in 1975 to 1979 but dropped to 12.3% in 1986 - 1987. Senegal had 18.9% and 16.9% for the same periods.

The various studies cited above try to explain this pattern. The economic recession set in around 1980 for most countries. Also, other social services, which had perhaps been ignored in the past, are now more pressing. These include health, housing and communications.

The various studies strongly recommend a search for alternative resources for education, an efficient management of resources and a restructuring of education systems in some cases.

As concerns Cameroon, the financial difficulties that the government is facing have been outlined in Chapter One. The possibility of the government increasing its spending on education does not exist and cannot be recommended at this stage. Thus the main recommendation in the literature, the search for alternative sources of education finance, applies strongly to the Cameroon situation.

### 2.3.3 Foreign Aid to Education

Apart from governments, other sources provide funds for educational services. Foreign aid has played a vital role in the development of the education sector in sub-Saharan Africa, but unfortunately this source is no longer so reliable (Coombs, 1985; Kelly, 1991).

In Zambia, Kelly (1990, 1991) reports that foreign aid has been contributing about 10% of educational expenditures yearly. It is often in the form of expatriate teachers, equipment and buildings. Some aid comes from private sources by way of donations or grants from non-governmental organisations. However, much of it flows in through official bilateral and multilateral arrangements. Recent sources of foreign aid include the World Bank, the African Development Bank, the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) and some individual countries in the West.

Dougna (1990) found that foreign aid to the education sector in Togo is very substantial. It usually covers about 16.7% of education expenditures. About 60% to 63% of such aid is for payment of salaries to expatriate teachers while 26% to 28% is used to sponsor Togolese students in universities in the donor countries.

The two studies cited indicate that foreign aid contributed significant sums to the funding of education in Sub-Saharan Africa. However, as earlier indicated, this source is becoming increasingly unreliable. In the search for alternative sources for financing, it may be unrealistic for Cameroon (and for any other country for that matter) to depend on foreign countries. The best way of generating resources readily is by tapping from within local communities themselves. The literature indicates that community financing of schools is very significant in many countries. Thus the next part of the review focuses on local support to education and looks at the phenomenon in some detail.

## 2.4 LOCAL SUPPORT TO EDUCATION

### 2.4.1 Introduction

The literature on financing of education indicates that resources are provided by the government, foreign countries and local communities. This last part of the review examines community funding in more detail to throw light on who in the community provides funds, the form of such funds, projects financed with them and the magnitude of local support. Lastly, empirical studies from Nigeria will be reviewed since no such literature exists in Cameroon. The two countries in addition to being neighbours have historical, tribal, cultural and economic similarities.

### 2.4.2 Sources of Local Support

Three collections of case studies on local community support to education, Yannakopoulos (1980), Bray & Lillis (1988) and Orivel (1990) were reviewed. Among other things, these studies have identified various sources of education finance from within the local communities in some Third World countries. In addition, to the above texts, studies mentioned earlier such as Dougna (1990), Kelly (1990,1991), Milongo & Rouag (1978) and Sobrinho (1978) have identified some local sources of education finances. From the above authors, a summary list of sources that have provided funds to finance education includes parents (though payment of fees and purchase of school requirements), local government bodies such as the "kgotla" of Botswana and the village councils in Nigeria, village development associations, religious bodies, political parties, age groups, business organisations, ethnic groups, alumni associations, parent-teacher associations, boards of governors, pupils/students and individual philanthropists. The extent of contributions from the

identified sources varies between and within countries. This is due to cultural, economic and political factors.

The place of education in a cultural set-up and the value placed on it tend to influence local financial effort for education. Generally, affluent areas are more capable and do make significant contributions to their schools. Poor people may attach a high value to education but lack the fiscal means with which to support their schools. Lastly, government policy on education, especially the degree of centralization or decentralization tend to inhibit or stimulate local support for education. In general, local participation in education is higher in countries with decentralized system.

#### **2.4.3 Monetary and Other Forms of Local Support**

The various studies cited earlier indicate that local financing can take several forms. Fees are usually charged in the form of money. Bray & Lillis (1998) say parent-teacher associations and alumni associations usually generate resources by imposing money levies on members. Also, some communities and religious bodies impose taxes on members. As such, the local support is in the form of money.

In some areas, local support can be in the form of land, building materials and services. Some community members can provide labour in school management and in construction and maintenance of school buildings. Other services include teaching, cooking school meals and lodging pupils/students on a free and voluntary basis.

Thus local financing can be in the form of money, materials or services. Normally, a mixture of these will be provided in a given community depending usually on its socioeconomic status.

#### 2.4.4 Locally Financed School Projects

The way communities perceive schooling differs from one locality to another. Consequently, certain projects will stir the interest of a given community while others will not. Sometimes a school project is initiated by a community leader because of a felt need or because of lack of interest and/or funds by the government.

The texts by Bray & Lillis (1988) and Yannakopoulos (1980) indicate projects that communities have willingly financed in their secondary schools. Some of these in a few African countries will be examined below.

Igwe (1988) reports that in Eastern Nigeria there is a division of responsibilities between the government and the local communities. The government takes care of staff salaries and other recurrent costs while the communities provide land, buildings and other capital investments at the secondary level. He reports that in the launching of the comprehensive secondary school at Okoko-Item, in August 1978, over N100,000 was collected along with promises from individual rich philanthropists to build dormitories, staff quarters and an assembly hall. Later on another rich individual built a technical workshop and a school bus was bought with money from donations.

In Kenya, Lillis & Ayot (1988) report that community contributions to secondary education are very substantial. In 1993, 33.3% of the secondary school places were in unaided Harambee schools catering for 164,627 students out of a total of 493,710. In such schools all expenditure, capital and recurrent, was financed by the local communities.

Swartland & Taylor (1988) find that in Botswana, local financing of secondary education used to be 100% in the past for community secondary schools. However, since 1980, community involvement has gradually decreased. Nowadays, the local populations are

mainly concerned with providing staff houses and rendering management services as members of boards of governors.

Thus projects financed with local resources vary from country to country and possibly between regions. The level and amount of government commitment and the viability and interest of the community go to influence its participation in funding education.

#### 2.4.5 Magnitude of Local Support

The strongest argument in favour of decentralization is financial. A majority of governments around the world especially in less developed countries have been hard hit by the economic crisis and welcome local support as a way to spread financial burdens. Though in some cases such as Togo (Dougna, 1990), Congo (Marcellus & Reid 1990) and Sri-Lanka (Wijegoonasekera, 1977), local support has been insignificant, it has been very extensive in others. Thus local support varies from country to country and in some cases from region to region in the same country.

Significantly large local support has been reported in some Asian, African and Latin American countries. In Burma, Daw (1977) reports that in 1972-1973 the cost of buildings, furniture and equipment for all level of school was 3.25 million US dollars. The government provided only 28.92% of this while local support accounted for the rest (71.08%). Nayar & Virmani (1978) report that in India, all the primary schools in the state of Rajasthan built since independence have been constructed from local support only. They also indicate that in Tamil Nadu (another state in India) local support from 1958 to 1977 amounted to 18 million US dollars. Tilak (1989) has done a recent study on India. His findings among other things say that in general, local support accounts for about 15% of educational expenditure in all of India. As concerns Africa, Kenya stands out as a country the possibly with greatest effort



from local sources. Lillis & Ayot (1988) report that in 1983, 56% of secondary schools were unaided harambee schools where all costs are borne by the local communities. Significant local support has also been reported in Zambia (Kelly, 1990, 1991) and Nigeria (Igwe, 1988).

Schiefelbein (1986,p.26) examined the magnitude of local support in some Latin American countries. He found the ratio of private educational expenditure to public educational expenditure to be 1.11, 0.51, 0.32, 0.13, and 0.04 for Brazil, Colombia, Chile, Venezuela and Argentina respectively. Thus in Brazil, local support is more than government expenditure in education while in Argentina, it appears to be insignificant.

Wijegoonsekera (1977) says local support is a function of the local community and the administrative set up of the system. How a community perceives education and how economically viable the community is will affect the amount of support. Also, administrative structures that inhibit local initiative and the mobilization of local resources will greatly reduce local support. The nationalization of schools in Congo in 1965 (Marcellus & Reid, 1990) killed local initiative and this partly explains why local contributions to education in that country are insignificant. In Togo, the right of municipalities to collect tax was abrogated in 1974 and since then local contributions to education have been more and more insignificant (Dougna, 1990).

On the other hand, the countries where significant local support has been recorded have legal and administrative provisions that encourage local initiative and mobilization of community resources. For example in Kenya and Nigeria, central control has been relaxed to allow community self help schools to develop with governments exerting influence by setting conditions for making grants and takeover. Thus if a country such as Cameroon needs more support from local communities it has to set up legal and administrative frameworks that

encourage local initiative and stimulate local financial effort.

The following section examines some empirical studies in Nigeria to throw more light on local financing and to highlight regional differences within a country.

#### 2.4.6 Local Support to Education in Nigeria

Identified literature on this theme includes Ede (1981), Bassey (1987), Anjo (1989) and Kuwu (1989). All the studies except for Anjo's show local communities in Nigeria actively involved in supporting education either by directly giving money or rendering services on a voluntary basis without a profit motive.

Ede (1981) found out among other things that in Idomaland, the local population had built twelve community secondary schools. Identified sources of financing included individuals, families, age groups, parent-teacher associations and village development associations. Bassey (1987) and Kuwu (1989) went further than Ede and identified more projects that communities had carried out in local schools in Obubra and Akwanga respectively. Both show that communities had built classrooms, laboratories and staff houses in addition to providing land. Also, in both areas, local financing had paid for school equipment and furniture.

Anjo (1988) examined community involvement in secondary education in Sokoto state. His findings indicate that there was no community participation in funding secondary schools. The only resources generated locally were from PTA levies and school production activities like farming and poultry.

The above studies lead one to easily conclude that local support to education is more prevalent towards the south of Nigeria. This conclusion is consistent with Hinchcliffe's (1989, p.240) observation that direct private contributions to costs of primary education are

much higher in the southern states. It is possible that a similar pattern will be found in Cameroon where the muslim north is resistant to education (Martin, 1970; Tamukong,1987). Such a pattern may be explained by the authoritarian tradition of local government and the relative poverty of rural communities in the northern area. Also , the funding of koranic schools, reduces resources that could have been used on formal education.

## 2.5 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW

The review shows that national education systems vary from the very decentralized (such as the American) to the very centralized (such as that of France and Cameroon). In the Netherlands,decentralization has taken the form of voluntary agency provision of services with government funding.

Arguments exist for both decentralization and centralization. Advocates of decentralization claim that a decentralized system has many advantages among which are: availability of additional resources for education, prompt decision making and efficient management of resources. Supporters of centralization say such a system enhances equity, efficient management of resources and better quality education. In Nigeria and Brazil, which have decentralized or mixed systems, the provision of education is not enough mainly because the local governments lack the funds with which to finance education (Udoh et al, 1990,p.86; Sobrinho,1978). In Australia, Watt(1989) found out that decentralization has resulted in an uneven distribution of schools and school facilities with the affluent areas having better schools. The curricula are so localized that transferred students find it hard to cope in their new schools. In addition , since the supervisory structures have been dismantled, there is inefficiency in the management of resources at institutional level. A consequence of this situation is that graduates from schools in poor neighbourhoods cannot find employment on

the job market. So the rich get a better education and obtain the available jobs thereby widening the gap between the rich and the poor.

Thus whether to centralize or decentralize is a decision that each country must take in view of its particular circumstances. Both policies have advantages and disadvantages. Certain aspects of the provision of education could be centralized while others are decentralized.

The literature indicates that in most countries, especially Congo with a very centralized system, the provision of educational services rests very heavily on the central government. Public expenditure on education as measured by fiscal and national efforts differs in amounts from country to country but shows a steady growth pattern from independence to about 1980 (Coombs, 1985; Orivel 1990) when it started declining or stagnating. The decline, in some countries, such as Zambia (Kelly, 1990), has been very sharp. The declining rate in all the countries reviewed has been due to economic and demographic factors.

Another source of finance for education is foreign aid. In Togo, foreign aid usually covers about 16.6% of education expenditures while in Zambia it covers 10%. The various studies on Congo do not mention foreign aid.

The literature review, points to one main problem in educational finance which is the inadequacy of fiscal resources. The recommendations of researchers for the countries discussed focus on a search for alternative finances and efficiency in the management of available scarce resources.

The review shows that apart from public resources and foreign aid, communities and households make contributions which in some countries, such as Kenya, Burma and Brazil, are very significant. In other countries such as Argentina and Congo, such contributions have not been great. Such differences are probably due to the management structure of the system

and the economic strength of the central government. Congo nationalized all schools in 1965 (Marcellus & Reid, 1990) because the state felt it was viable enough to finance and control all education services and as a result, the demands on the local populations, who have no decision making power on education, have not been much.

The review has identified sources from within the community that could provide funding to education systems. They range from rich philanthropists through parent-teacher associations to political parties (Bray & Lillis, 1988). The extent of community involvement differs between and within countries due to cultural, political and economic reasons.

Local support to education can take several forms including money, materials, land and services. Communities appear to be mostly interested in capital investments like land, buildings and equipment though in a few cases they bear some recurrent expenditures as well. In the unaided Harambee secondary schools of Kenya, all expenditures (capital and recurrent) are borne by local populations (Lillis & Ayot, 1988). Individuals, village and development associations, parent teacher associations and age groups among others have been particularly active in financing education in Nigeria. Some of the projects accomplished include building of classrooms, workshops, dormitories, laboratories and staff quarters.

The search for and the review of literature leads to several conclusions. There is a stark lack of relevant literature in Cameroon. Apart from the studies of Eicher (1984) and Ogbu & Gallagher (1991) using aggregate statistics, nobody has ever cared to study education finance in the country. All over the world, education finances are declining usually accompanied by increases in enrolment and a search for alternative resources becomes imperative. Thus the need for this study which will possibly fill a literature vacuum and suggest few ways of generating resources to finance secondary education in Cameroon.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHOD OF ENQUIRY**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter is concerned with research methodology. It focuses on research design, objectives of observation, null hypotheses, methods of measurement, area of study, target population, sample size, the sample, instrumentation, methods of data analysis and the two pilot studies which constitute the sections below.

#### **3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURE**

The survey approach, supplemented by more detailed case studies, was used for this investigation. The research was designed to identify sources and forms of local financing, projects financed with local resources, and the magnitude and proportion of such resources in the sampled schools. It also sought out new strategies for generating local community resources to finance secondary schools.

The study was in two phases. In the first instance, a survey of 25 of the 30 sampled schools was carried out. The researcher visited each school in person and served a questionnaire called "Questionnaire on Local Support to Secondary Education" on the school authorities. The questionnaire sought information on ownership, location, enrolment, curriculum, sources of local support, forms of local support, magnitude of local support and projects financed with such funds. The instrument also sought the opinions of the principal or vice on new strategies for generating local finances such as the introduction of fees in public secondary schools and the mobilization of funds by means other than levies. From each

school, the PTA president or secretary was identified and served with a "Questionnaire on PTA Financing of Secondary Schools" to assess what his association had done and to seek his/her opinion on local finance issues. Whenever possible, the instruments were filled in the presence of the researcher who offered assistance and clarification when need arose and collected the completed questionnaires to avoid instrument mortality. In some cases, repeated visits had to be made before the instruments were collected.

In the second instance, 5 schools were investigated by case study approaches. These were selected from among the sample of 30 to represent urban, rural, public, private, grammar and technical schools. Schools suspected (from informal information) to have strong and low local participation were included so that a study of these would throw light on the dynamics of local support.

The case studies yielded details that could not be obtained in the survey. In addition to having the various questionnaires of the survey filled, it entailed interviewing key informants in the schools and in the local communities using interview schedules. These included principals, PTA presidents or secretaries, and representative of two other sources. Information was sought on strategies for mobilizing local support, school-community links, school production, information for cost norms, views on local financing issues and potential for developing local financing. In addition, the motivation of PTAs, the problems they encounter and ways of further motivating them were examined in detail. Apart from the interviews, the researcher gained a general familiarity with the local situation through various approaches wherever possible. He used direct observation, informal discussions, school records and other means depending on the situation of each case.

Prior to visiting any school, a letter introducing the researcher and soliciting

cooperation was obtained from the Provincial Delegate for National Education in Bamenda. The Catholic, Baptist and Presbyterian education secretaries indicated their approval by writing short comments on photocopies of the letter. These officials were shown the instruments beforehand so that they became convinced by the importance of the research.

### 3.3 OBJECTIVES OF OBSERVATION

In order to answer the research questions generated for this study, the following specific objectives guided the collection of data.

1. To analyse strategies employed by the case study schools to attract local financing.
2. To study the financial role of PTAs in all the sampled schools.
3. To identify other categories of individuals and groups that have supported secondary education in the North-West Province.
4. To measure the frequency of support from identified sources.
5. To measure the magnitude of local financing received by schools over the past five years.
6. To find out the major categories of forms in which local support is easily obtained.
7. To identify school projects that interest local population.
8. To compare rural/urban, private/public and technical/grammar schools in terms of local support received.
9. To calculate unit costs norms in the various types of secondary school.
10. To seek informed opinion on fees in public secondary schools.
11. To evolve new strategies for improving finance at the secondary level.
12. To make policy recommendations that could help generate more resources for



secondary education.

### 3.4 NULL HYPOTHESES

Considering the background information, the research questions and literature review, the following null hypothesis were set for the study:

1. There is no significant difference in unit local support between rural and urban secondary schools.
2. There is no significant difference in unit local support between public grammar and technical schools and
3. There is no significant difference in unit local support between public and private secondary schools.

Total local contributions in each school in 1993-94 were divided by total enrolment for that year to give unit local support. Then the means of unit local support for different categories of school were compared using the t test.

### 3.5 AREA OF STUDY

#### 3.5.1 The North-West Province

The North-West Province is one of the ten provinces of Cameroon. It is in turn divided into seven divisions which are: Mezam, Bui, Momo, Menchum, Donga-Mantung, Boyo and Ngoketunja. Each division contains two or more sub-divisions.

#### (a) Location:

The province occupies an area of 18,000 square kilometres on a volcanic mountain range that runs north-eastward from Mount Cameroon. It lies between latitudes 5° and 7°

North and within longitudes 9° and 10° East.

The topography is generally mountainous and undulating; characterised by escarpments, peaks, deep valleys and alluvial plains. Mount Oku is the highest point in the province with a height of 3,011 metres above sea level while the Mbembe plain around River Donga is the lowest part at a height of 211 metres. However, the average height is 1,200 metres.

(b) **Climate and Vegetation**

The climate is very cold on the mountain and very hot in the plains. The general rainfall ranges from 130mm to 4,000mm per year in different areas of the province.

The vegetation is mostly rain forest and savannah. The rain forests occupy most of Momo and Menchum divisions while in other areas, occasional forests can be noticed. The savannah occupies about three-fifth of the province (Anyi, 1991).

(c) **Socioeconomic Features:**

According to the 1987 census, the population of the province was over 1.2 million. Present projections say the figure is over 1.3 million with over 80% living in rural areas.

Given the rich volcanic soils, adequate rainfall and conducive temperatures, the North-West Province is self-sufficient in food production with a surplus which is marketed in other provinces. About 95% (Anyi, 1991) of the population is engaged in peasant farming and the main crops are maize, plantains, rice, coffee, cocoa, tea and oil palm.

Livestock production is considerable. Animal breeding is carried out by 1,800 farmers and a few government agencies such as SODEPA (Société de Développement des Produits Animaux). In 1986 - 1987 livestock population was 1.77.199 of which only 59.893 was consumed locally.

Cottage industries exist in the province. They are mostly concerned with the production

of items such as shoes, bags, baskets, dresses, furniture and carvings. Brass and metal works are carried out in some places as well.

(d) **Education**

All levels of education exist in the North-West Province. Each of the major towns has at least one nursery school while primary schools are spread in all villages. There are many secondary schools and their distribution is such that each sub-division has at least one.

For university studies, two institutions are available. The "Ecole Normale Supérieure Annexe" of Bambili grants first degrees in education while the major seminary at Bambui grants degrees in theology and philosophy.

3.5.2 **Case Study Towns**

Three secondary schools in Bamenda and two in Nkambe were studied by case study methods. These towns were selected to represent urban and rural environments respectively. Classification of settlements as urban or rural has been made by the central government using indices such as population density, economic activity, and availability of social services. Towns with high population densities, modern sector employments, schools, hospitals, good road network and telecommunication facilities are classed as urban. On the other hand, agrarian settlements, with scattered populations and low provision of social services are classed as rural. Background information on the two towns is presented below.

(a) **Bamenda**

Bamenda is the capital of the North-West Province. The governor of the province as well as the direct representatives of all the ministers (called provincial delegates) live and work in Bamenda. The town is the most urbanized in the province having the best social

amenities and a population of about two hundred and fifty thousand.

The population is very heterogenous having people from many different language groups including foreigners. The people are deeply religious. The main religions are Christianity and Islam, with Christianity having preeminence. However, a majority of the christians are still tenaciously attached to the faith of their fathers - the belief in the ability of long dead ancestors to influence the affairs of the living.

The main economic activity in Bamenda is trading. The Nigerian traders import goods from Nigeria which are then sold to neighbouring francophone towns like Mbouda, Bafoussam and Banganté. Other traders bring in goods from Douala which are then sold to towns in the province like Wum, Nkambe, Kumbo and Fundong. A popular group of market women called "Bayam-sellam" buy food from outlying villages and sell it in Bamenda. Other economic activities are subsistence farming in nearby villages and livestock rearing (goats, pigs, fowls). The wage-earning population are mainly civil servants, soldiers and gendarmes. A minority earns salaries by working in the private sector especially in banking and insurance.

Bamenda has many schools and hospitals as well as a good water supply and telecommunication system. In addition, it is the only town in the province with some kilometres of tarred roads.

The people of Bamenda have a particular characteristics that makes them stand apart in the whole country. They have a very high degree of intolerance of the ruling party (Cameroon People's Democratic Movement) and its supporters. In fact Bamenda gave birth to political pluralism in Cameroon in 1990 when some of its citizens got together and launched the first opposition party in Cameroon, the Social Democratic Front (SDF), which is today the strongest opposition party in the country. Since then Bamenda has always been at the

forefront of political activism to the extent that it is often referred to as the "political capital" of Cameroon.

(b) **Nkambe**

Nkambe is a small rural settlement situated some 180 km to the north-west of Bamenda. It serves as the headquarters of Donga-Mantung Division and has a population of about 22,000.

The population is nearly homogenous since most of them belong to the Wimbun tribe and speak one language. However, non-natives are also found in Nkambe, with the majority being civil servants and business men. The people are mostly animists with Christian and Muslim minorities.

As concerns social services, Nkambe has a hospital, a preventive medicine centre, four secondary schools, 6 primary schools and a post office. The water supply is very inadequate and the road network is lamentable. Access to other towns is very difficult especially in the rainy season.

The people generate income mainly by farming, cattle grazing, brewing of corn beer and trading. About 200 people work in the civil service with most of them coming from outside Nkambe.

### 3.7 **SAMPLE SIZE**

From the pilot study in Wum, an average standard deviation of the Likert scale items was obtained to be 1.01. The researcher assumed that the population standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) was thus equal to 1.01 and used this value to determine sample size ( $n$ ) in the formula:

Max  $\sigma_x$  is the maximum standard error.

$$n = \left( \frac{\sigma}{\text{Max } \sigma \times} \right)^2 \quad (\text{Urwick, 1993, p.6}), \quad \text{where}$$

Max  $\sigma \times$  is the maximum standard error.

The researcher adopted a maximum standard error of 0.15 and obtained:

$$n = \left( \frac{1.01}{0.15} \right)^2$$

$$= 46 \text{ (rounded up)}$$

Since the study is a survey and not a census, the finite population adjustment was used to obtain an adjusted sample size ( $n_a$ ) given by the formula:

$$n_a = \frac{n}{1 + n/N} \quad (\text{Urwick, 1993, p.8})$$

$$= \frac{46}{1 + \frac{46}{55}}$$

$$= 26 \text{ (rounded up)}$$

Thus 26 schools were required, but the researcher increased this to 30 to allow for non-response. A census would have been ideal for the 55 schools but for reasons explained in 3.8. below, only a sample of 30 was selected.

### 3.8 THE SAMPLE

A list of the 55 secondary schools that make up the population was obtained from the Provincial Delegation of National Education and is attached as Appendix H. From these, a

sample of thirty was selected by proportional stratified sampling techniques to represent rural, urban, public, private, technical and grammar schools. The sample size was limited to 30 because of data collection strategy (see 3.2), costs and accessibility constraints. The list from the delegation gave information on ownership, curriculum and location. The classification of settlements into rural or urban has been made by the central government using criteria such as availability of social services and population density. A town must have a population of 60,000 to be classed as urban.

The selection was carried out as follows: Firstly, a percentage of the required sample over the population was worked out to be 55. Then the population was divided into eight strata and about 55% of each was selected randomly so that public/private, urban/rural and technical/grammar schools are proportionately represented in the sample. The sample secondary schools are in Table 1 below.

**Table 1: Schools sampled for the study.**

No	Name of School	Curriculum	Proprietorship	Type of location
1.	Government Technical College (GTC) Mbengwi	Technical	Government	Rural
2.	Government Technical High School (GTHS) Wum	Technical	Government	Rural
3.	St. Rita's Techn. College (SRTC) Nkambe	Technical	Private	Rural
4.	Government Technical High School (GTHS) Bamenda	Technical	Government	Urban
5.	Government Techn. College, (GTC) Kumbo	Technical	Government	Urban
6.	Government Secondary School (GSS) Wum	Grammar	Government	Rural
7.	Cameroon Protestant College (CPC) Bali	Grammar	Private	Rural
8.	Government High School, (GHS) Jakiri	Grammar	Government	Rural
9.	Government Secondary School (GSS) Tatum	Grammar	Government	Rural
10.	Government High School (GHS) Ndop	Grammar	Government	Rural
11.	Government High School (GHS) Nkambe	Grammar	Government	Rural
12.	Government High School (GHS) Bali	Grammar	Government	Rural
13.	Government High School (GHS) Mbengwi	Grammar	Government	Rural
14.	Government High School (GHS) Santa	Grammar	Government	Rural
15.	Government High School (GHS) Batibo	Grammar	Government	Rural



16.	Government High School (GHS) Fundong	Grammar	Government	Rural
17.	Government Secondary School (GSS) Bafut	Grammar	Government	Rural
18.	Government secondary School (GSS) Ndu	Grammar	Government	Rural
19.	Baptist Sec. School (BSS) Ndop	Grammar	Private	Rural
20.	Kom Grammar High School (KGHS) Kom	Grammar	private	Rural
21.	Joseph Merrick Baptist College (JMBC) Ndu	Grammar	private	Rural
22.	Presb. Secondary School (PSS) Nkambe	Grammar	Private	Rural
23.	St. Bede's College (SBC) Ashing	Grammar	Private	Rural
24.	Presbyterian Secondary School (PSS) Mankon	Grammar	Private	Rural
25.	Sacred Heart College, (SHC) Mankon	Grammar	Private	Urban
26.	St. Augustine's College, (SAC) Nso	Grammar	Private	Urban
27.	Starlight College (SLC) Nkwen	Grammar	Private	Urban
28.	Government High School, (GHS) Kumbo	Grammar	Government	Urban
29.	Government Bilingual High Sch. (GBHS) Bamenda	Grammar	Government	Urban
30.	Government Secondary School (GSS) Bamenda	Grammar	Government	Urban

From Table 1, the following schools were selected for case study:

1. Sacred Heart College, Mankon - Bamenda

2. Government Technical High School, Bamenda
3. Government Bilingual High School, Bamenda
4. Government High School, Nkambe
5. Presbyterian Secondary School, Nkambe.

### 3.9 DATA COLLECTION AND MEASUREMENT.

The following approaches to measurement were used for indicators and variables.

#### 3.9.1 Data to be Collected in the Survey.

##### (A) Level of participation of PTA.

Each school head indicated the number of years out of the last five in which the PTA had actively supported the school. The number was converted to a decimal by dividing it by five to give a measure of participation in such a way that 0.5 = 50% and 1 = 100% participation. For any school that was not up to 5 years old, the number of active years was divided by the age of the school in 1994 to obtain the same of decimals.

##### (B) Activities of PTAs.

The PTA presidents or secretaries provided information on methods so far employed to raise finances and disclosed the projects that the PTA had so far accomplished in their schools. These were reported qualitatively with the aid of frequency tables.

##### (C) Other Sources of Local Support

A list of sources identified in the literature and pilot studies as being active elsewhere was presented to each school and the authorities indicated the number of years in which these had been active in the school in the past five years. The number of years for each source was

then converted into a decimal by dividing it over five to indicate level of participation. For younger schools, the decimal was calculated based on age in 1994.

(D) **Forms of Local Support**

Each school head looked at a list of forms of support prepared by the researcher with inspiration from the literature review and pilot studies. He then indicated for how many years the school had received support in a particular form in the past five years. The number of years was converted to a decimal by dividing it over 5 to obtain a frequency of each form. Younger schools were treated as earlier indicated.

(F) **Projects that Attract Local Financing**

A list of possible school projects was already prepared. The school head indicated for how many years his school had received support for each project and from whom in the last five years. For each project, the number of years was converted to decimal to serve as an indicator of attraction. The list was based on the researcher's experience, the literature and the pilot studies.

(F) **Magnitude of Local Support**

The schools provided totals of local support as well as total expenditures and actual enrolments in the last five years. A trend in the growth of local support as well as its proportion in total expenditures was constructed to see the kind of pattern that emerged. Also, unit local expenditure was calculated by dividing total local contributions by enrolments for the year so as to construct a time series of this indicator.

(G) **Opinions on new strategies for generating resources**

A Likert-type scale was constructed for these opinions. The respondents i.e. school authorities and PTA representatives (presidents or secretaries) took positions ranging from

strongly agree to strongly disagree on each issue. The responses had scale values ranging from one for strongly disagree to five for strongly agree. The analysis was by finding arithmetic means of the scale values for each question. Such means were tested for significance using the t test. The various opinions centred around the following issues:

(a) **Should local communities support their secondary schools?**

Under this question, a list of dormant or less active sources identified in the pilot study was placed. For each source, the respondent agreed or disagreed as to whether the source should finance secondary education or not.

(b) **What is the best form of local support?**

A list of various forms identified in the literature and pilot studies was prepared. For each form, respondents agreed or disagreed as to its desirability.

(c) **Which school projects should local communities support?**

A list of projects was presented for the respondents who agreed or disagreed as to the desirability of each.

(d) **How should PTAs raise money?**

Different methods of raising money were presented to the respondents and they decided as to how desirable each method was.

(e) **Should fees be introduced in public secondary schools?**

A list of fees was prepared and each respondent took a stand as to how much he/she wanted each type introduced in the public secondary school. The respondents also expressed their opinions as to whether the fees should be uniform or discriminatory depending on socio-economic backgrounds of students.

(f) **Which type of school should local communities support?**

There are two main types of secondary school depending on curriculum. These are technical and grammar schools. Respondents took stands as to how much they agreed or disagreed that local communities should support them.

(g) **Should secondary schools engage in production activities?**

Respondents agreed or disagreed with the statement that "All secondary schools should engage in production activities".

(h) **Which strategies should secondary schools use to mobilize local resources?**

A list of strategies identified as useful elsewhere was presented to respondents as methods that schools should use to generate local resources. For each strategy, respondents agreed or disagreed as to whether schools can employ it or not.

3.9.2 **Data from the case studies**(a) **School production**

The production activities of the schools were identified. These were reported qualitatively and contextually.

(b) **Unit cost norms**

The salaries of teachers, costs of equipment and costs of buildings and furniture were used to work out unit cost norms for each of the case study schools based on its enrolment in 1994-95. This measure may serve as an indicator of how much fees to charge and possibly how to share financial responsibilities.

(c) **Strategies for mobilizing local support**

The different methods that schools have employed to raise finances from local communities were examined to see the success or failure of each. These were reported qualitatively. The key informants were the principals and the bursar who discussed each strategy, its target and effectiveness or failure.

(d) **School-Community relationship**

The way the school relates with the community was measured qualitatively. This involved direct observation and interviewing of key informants in the community and in the school.

(e) **Potential for developing local financing**

The principals or vices and the PTA presidents or secretaries indicated how they think local financing can be improved. These were reported qualitatively.

In particular, the PTA representatives discussed the reasons for supporting schools as well as the problems they had faced or are facing. Ways of further motivating the PTA and solving their difficulties were also sought.

(f) **Opinions on local financial issues**

The views covered in the survey were examined in greater detail during the case studies. The respondent not only took a stand, but had to back it up with some practical or philosophical argument. All such opinions on sources that should support schools, forms of local support, projects to be financed, ways for PTAs to generate money, introduction of fees in public secondary schools, type of secondary school that should be supported, school production,

and strategies for schools to mobilize local resources were analysed contextually and reported qualitatively. However, their scores joined those of the survey to form the basis of generating new strategies.

### 3.10 INSTRUMENTATION

A combination of four instruments was used in this investigation. A "Questionnaire on Local Support to Secondary Education" (QLSSE) was served directly on school authorities in the survey. This instrument is divided into two parts. The first part seeks factual information on local support received while the second part seeks opinions on local finance issues. The PTA representatives (presidents or secretaries) were served directly with a "Questionnaire on PTA Financing of Secondary Schools" (QPFSS). The first part of the QPFSS seeks information on what the PTA has done and problems encountered while the second part seeks the opinions of the PTA representative on local finance issues.

For the case studies, the questionnaires above plus two interview schedules were used. The school heads were interviewed using an "Interview Schedule on Local Support to Secondary Education" (ILSSE) (which sought details on local support and had room for recording the researcher's comments). The PTA representatives were interviewed using an "Interview Schedule on PTA Financing of Secondary Schools" (IPFSS). The two representatives of other sources were interviewed informally.

All the above instruments were constructed by the author and content validation was done by the project supervisor. The instruments were tried in two separate pilot studies. The first of these was in the South-West Province. It showed faults in the initial research design which have now been corrected and provided answers to seven research questions. The second pilot

study was carried out in Wum with the objective of testing the stability of the instruments over time, establishing a good case study procedure and answering new research questions formulated as a result of the second presentation.

### 3.11 METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

Inspiration for the various statistical tools used in data analysis was obtained from the two illuminating pilot studies carried out in the South-West Province and in Wum. In this final study, the data were treated and analysed as follows:

1. For sources and forms of local support, and projects financed by PTAs and other sources, frequencies in number of years were obtained and converted into the decimals such that 1 = 100%. For example, if a source had supported a school for three years out of five its frequency was given by  $\frac{3}{5} = 0.6$ . For projects that PTAs claimed they had accomplished, the frequencies were established by counting the number of PTAs for each project. In answering Question 3,4 and 5, the arithmetic means of the frequencies were obtained and ranked for comparison.
2. In working out the trend and proportion of local support, percentages were used. Growth in local support was measured as the percentage difference from its magnitude in 1989 - 90. The proportion of local support in total expenditure was calculated as the percentage contribution to total expenditure made by local support.
3. The comparison of schools to see if local support relates to category of school involved the use of chi-square tests. The frequencies of the various forms of



support in years were added up for each source and used to construct contingency tables for opposing categories of school showing years of support and years of non-support.

Using this method, the researcher interpreted every calculated  $X^2$  value higher than the critical value at the relevant degree of freedom to mean that there is a relationship between local support and category of school.

4. Likert-scale items were analysed using the t test. The items had scale values ranging from 1 to 5 and the researcher was interested in finding out if mean scores different from the mid-point were significantly different. The formula used is given by:

$$t = \frac{x - \mu_o}{\sqrt{(S^2/n)(1 - \frac{n}{N})}}$$

from Bhattacharyya & Johnson (1977, p.262) and Urwick (1993, p.9). In the formula:

x	=	Mean score
$\mu_o$	=	mid-point (3)
S	=	Standard deviation
n	=	sample size
N	=	Population Size

Using the above test, if the absolute value of calculated t is more than or equal

significantly different from the mid-point.

5. In testing the null hypotheses, t tests were used. In the analysis, the researcher, used t tests to find out if the means of opposing categories of school were significantly different. The formula is:

$$t = \frac{x_1 - x_2}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{S_1^2}{n_1}\right)\left(1 - \frac{n_1}{N_1}\right) + \left(\frac{S_2^2}{n_2}\right)\left(1 - \frac{n_2}{N_2}\right)}}$$

$$df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$$

from Best & Kahn (1988) & Urwick (1993)

6. Qualitative insights into local financing phenomena and dynamics were sought in the case studies and reported contextually and non-quantitatively. Such insights were used to explain statistical relationships established through the above methods. Consequently, all the questions have quantitative and qualitative answers and the null hypotheses are explained to make analysis more complete.

The analysis follows a pattern. First of all the question or null hypothesis is stated. Then evidence for the answer or test is provided, followed by explanations.

### 3.12 PILOT STUDIES

Two pilot studies were carried out as preparation for this research. One was in the South-West Province and the other was in Wum.

### 3.12.1 The South-West Pilot Study

This study was carried out in Buea and Limbe sub-Divisions in the South-West Province of Cameroon. Data were obtained from Government High School (GHS), Limbe, Government Bilingual High School (GBHS), Limbe, St. Paul's Technical College (SPTC), Bonjongo, Saker Baptist College (SBC), Limbe, Mountain View College (MVC), Buea and Government Bilingual Secondary School (GBSS), Muea-Buea. The first four schools are in Limbe sub-division while the last two are in Buea sub-division.

The researcher felt that a pilot study was necessary because it would help him achieve the certain objectives. These are discussed in the paragraphs below.

It has initially been planned that questionnaires for the survey were to be delivered and received by post. However, when this method was tried in the pilot study, the instrument mortality rate was extremely high. As a consequence, direct delivery and collection of instrument was adopted as a better data collection strategy.

Though content validation had been done by the project supervisor, there was still need to determine whether data gathered by use of the instruments could answer the research questions and serve as a basis for testing the null hypotheses. Data from the pilot study provided answers to seven research questions. The remaining questions and null hypotheses required making comparisons between different categories of secondary school, which could not be carried out due to a small sample size. Since the data had means that could be compared, the researcher felt that when a large sample is used in the major study, such comparisons could be made without problems.

In answering the research questions some of the planned methods of data analysis were

tried and found to be suitable. The tests for significance of means and difference of means were not tried because of small sample size. However, the researcher remained convinced that such tests would be useful in analysing means when a larger sample is used in the major study.

It was necessary to find out whether the language of the instruments could be understood by respondents and at the same time determine whether the instruments were complete or had left out certain items. This study showed that respondents understood the questionnaires well thereby pre-empting the need to try to simplify language. The respondents were asked to make additions to prepared lists of sources and forms of local community support, and school projects financed from such sources. Their responses showed that the lists were comprehensive enough since only one item, the paving of roads in schools, was added to the list of school projects.

In conclusion, the South-West pilot study shows that in Buea and Limbe the main sources of local community support are registration fees and PTAs. Most of this support comes in the form of money and has been used principally in financing school buildings, installation of water and purchase of text books. Opinion of the school heads is in favour of introducing fees into the public secondary school system.

### 3.12.2 The Wum Pilot Study

After completion of the South-West study, there was need to tackle the question of alternative strategies to raise school finance more comprehensively and to establish a good case study procedure. Additionally, reliabilities of some items of the instruments had to be

calculated. Thus a second pilot study was carried out in Wum to resolve the above problems.

Wum is the headquarters of Menchum Division in the North-West Province of Cameroon. It has been classified by the government as a rural environment though it is referred to as "town". Two schools, Government High School (GHS) and Menchum Community High School (MCHS), representing public and private schools respectively, were investigated by case study approach. These schools were excluded from the population for the major investigation. The informants consulted were principals, PTA presidents, teachers, bursars and a church minister.

Concerning reliability of instruments, the researcher used 25 teachers qualified to be principals and/or PTA presidents. These were graduate teachers in GHS with at least three years experience who had children attending the school. The test-retest method was used since concern was with stability over time. The second administration took place three weeks after the first and correlations for the Likert-scale items, were worked out using the Pearson's Product-moment method which gave the following reliabilities:

Sources of local support:	0.81
Forms of Local Support:	0.76
Projects to finance in schools:	0.90
Strategies for PTAs to raise money:	0.78
Fees in public schools:	0.87
Type of school to support	0.84
School Production:	0.62
Strategies for schools to raise money:	0.83

The reliabilities so obtained ranged from 0.62 to 0.90 with an average of 0.8 showing an adequate stability of responses.

The second part of the study was focused on answering research questions. Eight questions were answered while the ones requiring comparisons as well as null hypotheses were not attempted because of the small sample size of only two.

The study shows that in Wum the main source of local community support to secondary education has been the parents, who have paid various types of fees and PTA levies. The PTA is more active in GHS than in MCHS which is a private profit-making school. The churches come next as a source of support since clergymen have been teaching religion and morals in both schools in all the period under study. Philanthropists have donated prizes on two occasions in GHS alone. School production is weak in MCHS but has generated reasonable sums in GHS.

Local support has been mainly in the form of money which has been used for buying library books in MCHS and for construction, rehabilitation, purchase of a computer and payment of temporary staff in GHS.

Opinion of the informants agrees that fees for registration, examination and boarding be introduced in public schools to generate more resources. Also, dormant local sources such as town/village council and business organisation should be activated and made to contribute to secondary education. Means other than levies and fees should be employed by PTAs and schools to raise revenue.

The Wum study served various useful purposes. It gave the researcher confidence that the research design as well as the instruments and envisaged methods of data analysis were appropriate. In general, the experience gained in this pilot study went a long way to facilitate the major research.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

#### 4.1. INTRODUCTION

The concern of this chapter is the presentation and analysis of data gathered in the field using instruments and methods described in the Chapter Three. The data have been organised to focus on the research questions and null hypothesis.

The question or hypothesis is stated and then data for its evidence is presented and explained. In this way, the nine research questions and three null hypotheses formulated for the study are answered and tested respectively.

The data presented in this chapter were obtained from the 30 schools in the sample and their PTAs. Many school authorities did not show a liking for part A of the QLSSE and in many cases, it was collected only after repeated visits by the researchers. Despite the various authorizations and the researcher's assurances of confidentiality, some schools held that information on money is "classified" and could not be released. In some private schools, the fear was expressed that knowledge of their income could convince the government not to provide promised grants. In a majority of the public schools where part A of the QLSSE was not filled, the investigator suspects a lack of transparency in the management of finances and a consequent fear of exposure.

On the other hand, the opinion section of the QLSSE was found to be very attractive since every respondent was happy and quick to express his/her opinion. Twenty-nine instead of thirty copies of the QPFSS were administered because on the field it was realised that KGHS had no PTA. These were filled without problems. Also, the interview schedules posed

no problems.

In conclusion, all 30 schools and 29 PTAs responded, though in varying degrees. Incomplete questionnaires were included in the analysis because though incomplete, they still contained vital information.

**4.2 Research Question 1: What strategies do secondary schools presently employ to attract local financial support?**

At present, local financial support to secondary schools is obtained mainly through fees, PTA levies, donations, village/tribal development effort and evangelization. Each of the above forms has its own strategy and dynamics.

Fees have been determined by the Ministry of National Education in Yaounde. The registration fee in all schools (public and private) is 3000 FCFA while the tuition fee in private schools ranges from 30,000 to 70,000 FCFA, depending on location and curriculum, arranged in such a way that urban technical schools pay highest. The main strategy is to allow access only to students who have paid fees. At the beginning of the school year, a deadline is set and communicated to the students. Upon its expiration, those who have not paid fees are sent away from school. This practice is common to all the schools especially in the rural areas where money is very scarce. This strategy is very effective according to school authorities. However, it should be noted that it could have negative effects on the academic evolution of students and result in wastage.

PTA levies on the other hand are determined locally in the annual general assembly which takes place towards the end of the academic year. In such an assembly, projects and budgets are adopted. Then considering the PTA financial reserves and projected enrolment in



the next year, levies are determined per student. The school bursar collects the levy and hands it over to the PTA treasurer. In 1994-95, the PTA levy ranges from 2,000 FCFA for old students in Government Bilingual High School Bamenda to 24,000 FCFA for new students in GHS Santa. In a majority of the sample, new students pay higher than old ones. Upon expiration of a communicated deadline, students owing PTA levies are chased away from school.

The practice of denying access to students owing fees or levies is the norm though there is no legal provision for such actions in the country. Apart from the above methods, an overall strategy is to maintain good relations with the local community. The case study schools do this by serving people who visit the school promptly and politely. Also, students carry out clean up campaigns in their localities once in a while to make their impact felt. In SHC Mankon and PSS Nkambe, the students move into town once in a while to evangelize. This tends to enhance school-community links. In some cases, local women are allowed to farm on school grounds. This is particularly important in GBHS Bamenda and SHC Mankon since farmland is very scarce in the town. During the field work, GTHS Bamenda was planning to hold an open-day as a strategy of attracting local interest in the school.

Though the case study schools describe school-community links as "good", "cordial", "very good" or very cordial", there are some problems in mobilizing local financial resources. Some of the local bodies bring a lot of pressure to bear on school authorities. In some cases, powerful PTAs in public schools and influential ex-students' associations in private mission schools tend to intimidate the principals. There may be need to come out with legal texts defining the roles of these two bodies since they make very significant contributions to the

secondary schools. Late payment of levies and fees, and withdrawals from school make it difficult to meet planned deadlines for budgets and projects. Another important difficulty is land encroachment. This is particularly serious in Bamenda where SHC and GTHS claim to be victims. It is time the schools wake up to the fact that they need to have land certificates with well defined maps. In this way people who farm on school land will be unable to claim such land as theirs.

How can the mobilization of local resources be increased? The case study schools proposed various ways which all centre on educating the community on the importance of education. The heads believe that when local communities appreciate the important role of education, they will early be convinced to make financial contributions to support educational institutions. Other proposals were made, but these are discussed under Research Question 11.

#### 4.3 Research Question 2: How active are PTAs in the sampled schools?

This question seeks to measure level of participation of PTAs in the sampled schools as well as mobilization of financial resources and projects accomplished. In each school, the number of years in which the PTA has been active out of the last five was divided by five to give a decimal (where  $1 = 100\% = 5$  years). For younger schools, the number of years in which the PTA has been active was divided by the school's age in 1993-94 to obtain a similar decimal. In addition, the various methods of mobilizing financial resources and the projects accomplished with them were identified for each PTA.

Twenty-six schools provided information on PTA participation. Of the 26 concerned, 23 had 1 as a measure of PTA participation while KSGS has 0, BSS 0.66 and SHC 0.80. This

shows that PTA participation is nearly 100% in the sampled schools. The particular case of KSGS is probably due to the fact that it is a private profit-making institution and such schools in general attract little community attachment. Starlight College on the other hand has a PTA participation of 1, though it is equally a private profit-making institution. This could be explained by the fact that the principal, who is a major proprietor, is a man who commands a lot of respect and is an activist for the Anglophone cause. In addition, Starlight is better staffed and generally imitates the mission schools in its provision of services. BSS and SHC did not solicit PTA aid in some of the years under study, hence their scores of less than 1. Though public and mission schools have high levels of PTA participation, differences exist in magnitude of expenditures. The PTAs of government schools have invested more in their schools than mission school PTAs. This is due to the fact that public schools only charge a registration fee of 3,000 FCFA leaving the parents still capable of making more contributions in the form of high PTA levies.

PTAs raise money mainly by charging levies. In the annual general meeting (AGM) attended by parents, guardians, teachers and in some cases interested local elite, the amount of levy per student is determined. The school bursar collects this money and pays it over to the PTA treasurer. Though this AGM is very important, attendance in the sample ranges only from 10 to 30%. This is because all the secondary schools (public and private) have the national territory as their catchment areas and many parents fail to attend because of distance. However, such parents are bound to respect all decisions of the AGM even with its small attendance. In some schools food and drinks are provided as a means of attracting parents to attend. From informal discussions in the schools, the researcher learned that teachers hardly

participate in PTAs to the extent that in most schools they are regarded mainly as a meeting of a few parents and the principal. All the PTA representatives claim that the method of determining a levy in the AGM and having the school bursar to collect from students has so far been very successful.

Apart from levies, a few PTAs have tried other innovative approaches which they claim have been reasonably successful. The PTAs of PSS Nkambe, GSS Ndu and GHS Mbengwi have appealed to individuals and groups within the last five years and have often had positive responses. The PTA of GHS Mbengwi alone has tried and sold material from demolished buildings and this has fetched some significant sums of money.

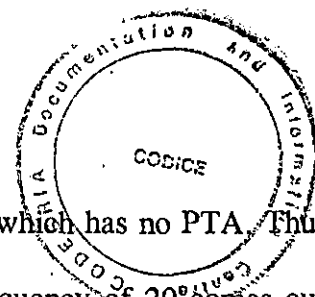
With financial resources raised as indicated above, the PTAs have carried out various projects in their schools within the period 1989 to 1994.

The projects were mostly capital in nature but with a few recurrent ones. The following table summarizes such projects and shows their frequency (where frequency = number of PTAs accomplishing each project at least once in the last five years).

**Table 2: Projects accomplished by PTAs and their frequency (frequency = number of PTAs.)**

S/NO	PROJECT	FREQUENCY (NUMBER OF PTAs)
1.	Building of Office	1
2.	Construction of Fence	4
3.	Purchase of Medicines	3
4.	Purchase Furniture	12
5.	Purchase of equipment	17
6.	Maintenance of buildings	8
7.	Construction of classrooms	20
8.	Employment & payment of temporary staff	13
9.	Installation of water	6
10.	Construction of laboratory/workshop	9
11.	Construction of sporting facilities	5
12.	Installation of electricity	3
13.	Construction of toilets/latrines	4
14.	Repair of computer & other office equipment	1
15.	Purchase of photocopying machine	1
16.	Purchase of school bus	2
17.	Provision of stationery	6
18.	Construction of Library	2
19.	Construction of Refectory	1
20.	Purchase of Library books	1
21.	Purchase of typing machine	1
22.	Construction of staffroom	1
23.	Construction of dormitory	2
24.	Construction of Staff house	1
25.	Purchase of Computer	1
26.	Construction of assembly hall	1
27.	Paving of road	1
28.	Purchase of Safe	1

Source: Compiled from fieldwork from PTA representatives



Information for the table above does not include KGHS which has no PTA. Thus the analysis concerns 29 PTAs. Classroom construction with a frequency of 20% comes out top among the projects accomplished. Had this study gone backwards for 10 years, the frequency would have been much higher. In fact in the field work, the researcher realised that there is no school in the sample (Apart from KGHS) without a PTA classroom except that those built before 1989 were not considered in the study. In GBHS, the PTA has 49 classrooms while the government has only 15. In GHS Batibo, the PTA has 11 classrooms while the government has only 3. Also, in a majority of the schools, the researcher learnt that the PTA classrooms are cheaper but more solid than government classrooms. In some cases, after the government contractor hands over the buildings, they start going bad almost immediately. In GHS Batibo, the PTA had to provide a new roof for the 3 government classrooms a few months after they were handed over because wind carried away and destroyed the old roof.

The above discussion strengthened with informal discussions on the field leads one to suggest at this point that it may be better for the government to channel building grants through PTAs. This will eliminate contractors who bribe their way through and end up providing low quality and dangerous buildings. Most PTAs have a works supervisor who is usually elected democratically because he is an informed, concerned and upright parent.

From the table, other capital projects that appear to be a concern of PTAs are purchase of equipment (17), provision of furniture (12), construction of laboratory/workshop (9) and maintenance of building (8).

The PTA representatives say they carry out these projects to ensure a better delivery of service to their children. They do not carry out the projects according to their preferences

but according to need and urgency as determined by school authorities. When many needs are presented, then a choice is made during the annual general assembly selecting projects according to priority and financial viability.

The top recurrent expenditure is employment and payment of temporary staff with a frequency of 13. In government schools especially, there is always a shortage of teachers in one discipline or the other. In such cases, PTAs, ever anxious to enhance delivery to their children, recruit teachers on a temporary basis to solve the problem. In the period under study, GHS Santa has employed 5 teachers, GHS Batibo 8 and GHS Bali 9. However, in the majority of schools, the temporary staff employed by PTAs are typists, nurses, security guards and laboratory assistants. These people are usually on a lower salary than their government employed counterparts.

The provision of stationery with a frequency of 6 is important. In a majority of the public schools, treasury allocations for paper cannot be obtained because of lack of liquidity. Regular class tests and examinations use up paper. In such schools, PTAs provide paper to ensure that the work of children is assessed regularly.

PTAs provide their financial support in many forms. Some of them are money, buildings, furniture, equipment and services. Of the above list, money is handed to the school only in a few rare cases possibly for fear of embezzlement. The other forms above are very common.

Generally, PTAs are motivated to carry out projects because they want to ensure that quality education is provided to their children. As such they are concerned with buildings, furniture, equipment and teachers. Other conditions could hamper the assimilation of quality

education. Thus some PTAs concern themselves with health and truancy. This explains why some of them provide sports facilities medicine (drugs) and pipe-borne water as well as a school fence to prevent students from dodging.

All the PTA representatives (presidents or secretaries) say the association relation with its school is "good", "cordial", "very good" "very cordial" "excellent". It is remarkable that no representative talked of a bad relationship because for both the PTA and the school to ensure a good provision of education to children, they must work harmoniously. However, through general insight, the researcher could discern that there were tensions in this relationship in some schools though the respondents failed to point them out. Money issues and power struggles seem to be the cause of these tensions.

In achieving its objectives, the PTA encounters some problems. The main one is late payment of levies or at times non-payment. In such cases budgets and projects cannot be met on time and this may lead to one-year projects being carried over into the next.

Finally, PTA representatives in the case studies were asked to identify ways of maintaining or increasing PTA commitments. The major ways suggested include: Involving PTAs in project planning, supervision and evaluation, school authorities and PTA executives should mutually respect each other and principals should not try to dominate PTA meetings and finally, PTA meetings should be more frequent so as to discuss controversial issues.



4.4 **Research Question 3:**      **What have been other sources of local financial support to secondary education and how regular have they been?**

This question looks at non-PTA sources and measures their level of participation in the various schools of the sample. For each source, the number of years out of the last five for which it has actively supported a particular school is worked out as a decimal with 5 as the denominator ( so that  $1 = 100\% = 5$  years). For younger schools, the number of active years is placed over the age of the school in 1993-94 to give a decimal. To obtain the required information, the school authorities were provided with a list of susceptible sources inspired from the literature review and pilot studies. The authority in each school then indicated the number of years out of the last five in which each source had provided the school with support.

The information obtained as explained above is contained in table 3 below.

The table below shows that registration fee with a mean participation of 0.97 is the first non-PTA source. It is the most common source since all the schools, both public and private, charge registration fees. It would have scored 1 (100%) but for SHC which started charging students for registration only in 1993 -94. This source, though with the highest participation, may not have contributed any large sums since, generally, it used to be only 2000 FCFA in the period under study.

**Table 3: Sources of local support and their level of participation.**

SOURCE	MEAN PARTICIPATION	RANK
Tuition fees	0.35	5
Registration fees	0.97	1
Laboratory fees	0.11	9
Examination fee	0.74	3
Religious body	0.78	2
Political party	0	13
Old students	0.08	10
Students association	0	13
Cultural & development association	0.12	8
Town/Village council	0.18	7
Business Organisation	0.04	11
School Production	0.41	4
Individuals	0.29	6
Rents	0.04	11

Sources: Compiled from Fieldwork.

The second important source is religious body. In most of the schools, religion is taught in each class at least once per week. School authorities usually invite clergymen of the various denominations of the locality to offer such courses and the response is generally positive. The technical schools which come under a lot of francophone influence generally, do not teach religion since in the francophone system of education religion is not considered to be important. One observation on the field was that the muslim religious leaders do not

cater for the interest of their young members during religious lessons and such students when free could be a source of disturbance. Muslim children before going to secondary school have usually graduated from Koranic school. Those who have not graduated attend evening school to complete the course. This may explain why the muslim religious leaders do not go to the secondary schools to teach their faith.

The contributions of the clergymen are in the form of service which when translated into monetary terms may not give much. In the schools where religion is offered, about 2 to 4 clergy teach combined classes for one hour per week. Taking the average school term to have 9 weeks of courses and rating each hour at 2000 FCFA, this gives an approximate sum of 72,000 FCFA per school per term. However, the researcher foresees that the demands on the clergy will soon be increased since the Cameroon GCE Board in 1994 introduced religion as a branch of knowledge to be tested in the GCE. Apart from the clergy, there are no trained teachers of religion in the country.

Examination fee ranks third as a source of non-PTA finance to secondary education. There are two types of examination, namely internal promotion examinations and external graduation examinations. Very few schools charge anything for the internal examinations. All the schools, including those which failed to indicate on the questionnaire, collect examination fees for external examinations which in the past used to be paid over the Ministry of National Education in Yaounde. Presently, such fees are paid to the Cameroon GCE Board in Buea which takes care of certificate examinations for all English-medium secondary schools in the country. The official examination fee used to be 3,500FCFA per candidate but since the GCE board took over. They have risen to at least 10,000 FCFA per

candidate with some paying as much as 30,000 FCFA (for science subjects).

School production ranked fourth is an important source of income especially in rural schools. Amounts generated ranged from 70,000 FCFA in 1993-94 in GSS Bamenda to 3,400,000 FCFA in SBC Ashing. Production activities are focused mainly on farming and livestock breeding. In the 5 case studies, an attempt was made to identify various school production activities. The only such activity in the grammar schools is farming while the technical school (GTHS Bamenda) investigated by case study approaches indicated that students have produced and marketed furniture and one parabolic antenna. The cases did not reveal any reliable pattern as the schools talked of farming with fluctuating incomes. In PSS Nkambe, animals keep on destroying crops in the school farm so that its real worth cannot be assessed. It is worthy to note that SBC, which produced 3,400,000 FCFA is a neighbour of Baptists Comprehensive College, Kom, which had generated 479, 243, FCFA in 1991- 92 (Nyakoh, 1992). Their common locality may have patterns of school production that will prove interesting to study in more detail.

Participation of each source per school was measured in all the schools involved and combined in table 3 above. The level of participation for each source in each of the 5 case study schools is contained in table 4 below.

**Table 4: Participation of different sources in the case study schools.**

SOURCE	PARTICIPATION LEVEL PER SCHOOL				
	1	2	3	4	5
PTA Levy	0.8	1	1	1	1
Tuition Fee	1	0	0	0	1
Registration Fee	0.2	1	1	1	1
Laboratory Fee	0.2	1	1	0	0
Examination Fee	1	1	1	1	0.25
Religions Body	1	0	1	1	1
Political Party	0	0	0	0	0
Old Student's Association	0.2	0	0	0	0.00
Students' Union	0	0	0	0	0.00
Cult. & Dev. Association	0	0	0	0	0.25
Town/Village Council	0	0.2	0	0	0.25
Business Organisation	0	0	0	0	0
School Production	0	0	0	0	0
Individuals	0	0	0.2	0	0.25
Rents	0	0	0	0	0

Source: Compiled from fieldwork.

## Key

1. SHC Mankon
2. GTHS Bamenda
3. GBHS Bamenda
4. GHS Nkambe
5. PSS Nkambe.

Table 4 above exhibits the same kind of pattern contained in the foregoing discussions. However, it reveals one aspect not already covered. It was found out in SHC that PTA levies are only charged when these are projects to be carried out. The same practice holds in CPC. This leads to a possible conclusion that mission schools only charge PTA levies when projects are planned. On the other hand, in the public schools, levies are collected every year whether there are planned projects or not.

Also, Table 4 shows that among the cases, GTHS Bamenda stands out as the lone exception where clergy men do not offer their services. As explained earlier, this could be due to the heavy francophone influence exerted on the school. In general, anglophone Cameroon has very few teachers of technical education and the majority of teachers in the school as well as its examinations have been francophone. In the francophone system, religion is not taught in public schools since it is not considered to be a branch of knowledge and in place of moral education, pupils are taught civic education.

The rest of the salient points in Table 4 have been covered in the discussion under Table 3.

#### 4.5 Research Question 4: What are the common forms of local support?

A list of possible forms of local financial support was presented to the schools and the authorities indicated the number of years out of the last five in which the school received support in each form. The number of years was then worked out as a decimal with 5 as the denominator so that  $1 = 100\% = 5 \text{ years}$ . For younger schools, the number of years for each form was divided by the school's age in 1994. Then the decimals were added and divided

by total number of schools to give the mean frequency for each source. Tables 5 and 6 below summarizes the data that answer question 4.

**Table 5: Forms of local support and their frequency.**

FORM	MEAN FREQUENCY (1=100%)	RANK	SOURCE
Buildings	0.62	3	PTA, Religious body, Old students Town/village council, cultural and Development Association
Money	0.76	1	Old students, religious body, PTA cult. Development Association, Fees. Town/village council
Labour/Services	0.71	2	PTA, Religious body, cultural and Development Association
Furniture	0.52	4	Old students, PTA, Cultural and Development Association
Equipment	0.48	5	PTA, Cultural and Development
Building Materials	0.13	6	PTA, Business Organisation

Source: Compiled from fieldwork.

Table 5 above shows that money with a mean frequency of 0.76 and ranked first is the most common form of local financial support. Though many respondents say money is easily mismanaged or diverted into private use, certain types of local support must be provided in the form of money. Firstly, all fees are paid in the form of money. Secondly, certain purchases require technical knowledge available only in the school. In this case, the local body providing the support gives money to the school to do the purchasing. Local sources that have provided support in the form of money include students (through fees), PTAs, old

student, religious body, town/village council, and cultural and development association.

Labour/service with a frequency of 0.71 is the second form in which local financial support is provided. The religious bodies are mainly concerned with the teaching of religion in schools and contribute heavily to the high frequency of this form of support. Also, the PTAs, ever concerned with the academic evolution of children, are in the habit of hiring teachers in most public schools on a temporary basis. In addition, clerks, security guards and laboratory assistants are maintained by most PTAs on a permanent basis. Once in a while, a cultural and development association mobilizes the whole village to do manual labour on school buildings especially in the early years of the school. Such labour includes fetching water, carrying sand and stones, and moulding bricks or blocks. Thus labour and services have been provided in the period under study by religious bodies, PTAs, and cultural and development associations.

Buildings with a mean frequency of 0.62 is the third common form of local financial support. Prior to 1993-94 enrolments in most schools were on the rise (Tangu, 1993) and the need for more classrooms was ever present. Even presently, in a good number of public schools, the need is still alive since classrooms are overcrowded. Consequently, many local sources concentrated their energies on providing buildings in their schools. Though buildings occur as the third form, it appears to be the most popular considering that it has the largest number of sources among all the forms. School buildings have been provided by PTAs, Religious Bodies, Old Students' Association, Town/Village Council and cultural and Development Association. The PTAs who are the heaviest investors in buildings say they



have been providing buildings mainly to decongest classrooms as a way of improving the school's internal efficiency.

From Table 5, furniture (0.52) and equipment (0.48) ranked fourth and fifth are less common forms of local support. However, the mean for furniture nearly equals that of buildings because as more classrooms are built, they have to be furnished. Old students, PTAs and Cultural and Development Associations have provided furniture in the past five years. Equipment is less common because not all the students offer sciences. In fact, the majority of the students offer arts course instead. Consequently, wear and tear on science equipment is greatly reduced and the provision of equipment is therefore less frequent. In additions, some foreign aid to schools comes in the form of equipment thereby reducing the burden on local sources.

Building materials are not common having a mean of 0.13 and ranked sixth and last. Most of the local bodies carry their projects from start to finish by providing their building materials and putting up the buildings.

Table 6 shows the frequency of forms of support in the five case study schools. The table shows that GBHS Bamenda got nearly all the forms of support on a regular basis in the period 1989 to 1994 while GTHS Bamenda received fewer forms and less regularly. GBHS Bamenda has been constructed and equipped mainly by the parents and so the school has been in constant need of buildings, furniture and equipment. On the other hand, GTHS Bamenda which was constructed and equipped by the Canadian government has not had need for much capital inputs from its local community. Also, while enrolment in GBHS has been on the rise, that of GTHS has been fairly constant especially since technical education does not appear to

be popular among either parents or students. Thus the two schools have been exerting different levels of demand on their joint local community.

Still from Table 6, GHS Nkambe has received support at a lower level than GBHS. The explanation lies in the fact that when GHS Nkambe was created in 1975, the government was not very poor and hired a contractor who put up most of the existing buildings in the school. Thus its demand are mainly for maintenance and replacement.

The two mission schools SHC and PSS appear to have received support less frequently than the public schools. SHC on the other hand has had more forms of support than PSS possibly because it is older and has built an appealing ethos around itself. The main source of local support for the two schools is fees and these have been paid regularly in the form of money. The parents of students in these schools pay tuition fees and often are not capable of making further financial contributions.

#### 4.6 **Research Question 5: What School projects/activities attract local financing?**

To answer this question a list of projects/activities was presented to the school authorities. They then indicated the number of years in the last five (or for their age in 1994 for younger schools) in which each had received support from the local community as well as the sources of such support. The number of years is was then converted into a decimal for each project/activity to indicate the frequency with which it received local support. Data for the question are found in the table below:

**Table 7: School projects/activities and their frequency of support.**

PROJECT/ACTIVITY	MEAN FREQUENCY	RANK	SOURCES
Land acquisition	0.09	13	Village Council, Cult & Dev. Ass
Classroom construction	0.56	4	PTA, Old Students, Town/Village Council, Rel. body; Cult & Dev. Ass.
Laboratory	0.08	14	PTA
Construction of fence/gate	0.07	15	PTA, Old Students
Installation of water	0.16	11	PTA
Installation of electricity	0.06	16	PTA
Installation of telephone	0.01	20	PTA
Purchase of equipment	0.47	6	PTA, cult. & Dev. Assistant
Purchase of furniture	0.57	3	PTA, cult & Dev. Assistant
Purchase of school bus	0.03	18	PTA, Religions body, Old Students
Purchase of books	0.28	10	PTA, Individuals, Old Students
Purchase of stationery	0.46	7	PTA, Old Student
Payment of salaries	0.58	2	PTA, Cult. & Development Association
Award of prizes	0.33	9	PTA, Individuals
Teaching	0.14	12	PTA, Religions Body
School Administration	0.59	1	PTA, Board of Governors, Religions body
Sports	0.14	12	PTA, Old Student
Maintenance of Buildings	0.51	5	PTA, religious body, Old Students
Construction of Library	0.2	19	PTA
Construction of Dormitory	0.06	16	PTA, Old Students, Religious Body, Cult & Development Association.

Source: Compiled from field work

**Table 8: Projects/activities and their frequency of support in the case study schools**

PROJECT/ACTIVITY	FREQUENCY PER SCHOOL				
	1	2	3	4	5
Land acquisition	0	0.2	0	0	0
Classroom construction	0	0.2	1	1	0
Laboratory construction	0.2	0.2	0.2	0	0
Construction of fence/gate	0.2	0.2	0.2	0	0
Construction of staff house	0	0	0	0	0
Installation of waters	0.2	0	0	0.2	0
Installation of electricity	0	0	0	0	0
Installation of telephone	0	0	0	0	0
Purchase of equipment	0.2	0	1	1	0
Purchase of furniture	0.2	0	1	1	0
Purchase of bus	0	0	0	0	0
Purchase of books	0	0.2	0.4	0	0.25
Purchase stationery	0.2	1	1	1	0
Payment of salaries	0	1	1	1	0.75
Awards of prizes	0	0	0	0	0
Teaching	0	0	0	1	0
School administration	0	1	1	1	0.25
Sports	0	1	0.2	0	0
Maintenance of buildings	0	0	0	0	0
Construction of library	0	0	0	0	0
Construction of dormitory	0	0	0	0	0

Source: Compiled from the field work

Key: 1 = SHC Mankon  
 2 = GTHS Bamenda  
 3 = GBHS Bamenda  
 4 = GHS Nkambe  
 5 = PSS Nkambe.

From Table 7, school administration with a mean frequency of 0.59 ranks first among all the projects/activities that have received local support in the secondary schools. Local communities do not administer schools however. Boards of governors and religious bodies set directives in some of the schools for the authorities to execute. In a majority of the public secondary schools, PTAs provide clerks, typists, wardens and security guards to help the school administration. Student indiscipline also attracts PTA participation. Legal texts on the running of schools require that whenever the disciplinary council is sitting to examine cases of student indiscipline, a PTA representative should be present.

Payment of salary is a recurrent project in most schools. Usually, no public school is ever completely staffed. There are always shortages in teaching and non-teaching staff and these are supplied by local community bodies concerned with the smooth running of the school. Such staff normally earn less than the government employed ones. However, they are usually qualified but are employed on a temporary or part-time basis. This explains why salaries have a mean frequency of 0.58 and are ranked second. In the period under study, the salaries component has received contributions from the PTA's and Cultural and Development Associations. However, PTA contributions are more frequent.

Purchase of furniture (0.57) and construction of classrooms (0.56) go hand in hand. As school enrolments increase, there is need for more classroom space and consequently, for more furniture. In most of the schools where furniture was provided, this was done by the PTA mainly and the cultural and development associations. Construction of classrooms is more popular and attracts contributions from the PTA, old students, town/village council, religious body, and cultural and development association. The data show that enrolments in

a majority of the schools covered is declining perhaps because of the declining incomes of families and the recent increase in the number of secondary schools. If the decline continues, the need for more classrooms and furniture will disappear. The trend as it appears indicates that some schools may have to do a lot of marketing to attract enough students to fill up existing space.

Maintenance of buildings (0.51) ranks fifth. Three groups namely: PTA, old students and religious body carry out maintenance on school buildings. This item figures very prominently in activities of a majority of the PTA's surveyed

Purchase of equipment (0.47), purchase of stationery (0.46), teaching (0.41), award of prizes (0.33) and purchase of books (0.28) are other projects that attract reasonable local participation. The books here are for the library only. Parents provide the required text books for their children. However, experience shows that less than 25% of students ever have up to 20% of the recommended books.

Sport with a mean of 0.14 and ranked twelfth is a recurrent activity but attracts little support from the local community. The people are mainly concerned with ways of helping the students to acquire certificates and according to the present mentality, sports do not help in that direction. This explains why the local support to sports has been less frequent. This is also one of the main differences between the francophone and anglophone education systems. The francophones have integrated sports in their school curricula but are indifferent to religion. The anglophones teach religion in their schools and want it to be completely integrated into curricula but are indifferent to sports.

Capital projects like installation of water (0.16), land acquisition (0.09) laboratory

### III

construction (0.08), construction of fence/gate construction of dormitory (0.06), purchase of school bus (0.03) construction of library (0.02), installation of telephone (0.01) and construction of staff houses (0.01) are not supposed to be carried out on a yearly basis. This partially explains their low frequencies. Some of the projects like construction of staff houses and purchase of school bus were found to be of no importance by some respondents.

Table 8, above reveals the situation in the case study schools. Comparatively, the two public grammar schools, GBHS Bamenda and GHS Nkambe have had support for more projects on a more regular basis. GBHS, whose capital investments have been mainly from local community effort, has had slightly more support than GHS Nkambe which was constructed and furnished by the government. GHS Bamenda is a recent creation which was built and furnished by the Canadian government and consequently does not exert much demand on its local community. It is the best built and equipped school in the North-West Province and the authorities indicate that its resources are greatly under-utilized.

The two mission schools in Table 8 show a slightly different pattern. SHC is older and has had support in more projects but on a less frequent basis. PSS Nkambe is a only four years old and has had fewer projects but on a more regular basis.

When the three public schools are compared with the two private schools, Table 8 shows that on the average the public schools receive support in more projects and on a more regular basis than the private schools. Later on in this report, the above pattern will be tested statistically.

4.7 **Research Question 6:** What has been the magnitude, trend and proportion of local support in the last five years?

Only 16 schools provided information relevant to this question. The data are summarised in Table 9 below which shows total amount of local contributions on a yearly basis, the percentage growth, the proportion of local contribution in total expenditure and the unit local expenditure in each year.

**Table 9: Magnitude, trend and proportion of local contribution from 1989-90 to 1993-94.**

YEAR	LOCAL CONTRIBUTIONS IN FCFA	PERCENTAGE GROWTH	PROPORTION IN TOTAL EXPENDITURE (%)	UNIT LOCAL EXPENDITURE IN FCFA
1989-90	417,449,185	-	41.29	60,298
1990-91	421,858,695	1.05	38.13	57,124
1992-92	424,827,530	1.76	36.36	51,955
1993-93	418,5449,535	0.26	33.85	45,763
1993-94	395,269,560	-5.31	45.64	53,465

Source: Compiled from the fieldwork

The above table shows that the magnitude of local contributions ranges from a low of 395,269,560 FCFA in 1993-94 to a high of 424,827,530 FCFA in 1991-92. In 1991-92, enrolment in the 16 schools passed from 7385 to 8172, an increase of nearly 1000. These new students brought in more direct household contributions in the form of fees and levies. Generally, new students contribute more than old ones especially in public schools. The general drop in salaries of about 60% in 1993 caused many parents and interested groups to decrease their contributions. In addition, the enrolment in 1993-94 witnessed a slight drop from 9146 to 8862.



The growth of local contributions from 1989-90 to 1993-94 is - 5.31 giving an average annual growth rate of - 1.33%. This trend reflects the macroeconomic situation of the country where all economic indicators have been on the decline since 1985 (Cameroon, 1990, p.1 ; Tangu, 1993, p.4). Though GDP per capita has been dropping at the greater rate of -10% (Tangu, 1993, p.4), the local contributions have had a better rate of -1.33%. This shows that despite declining incomes, families and other groups sacrifice in order to make financial contributions to their secondary schools.

Local contributions as a proportion of total expenditures made up 41.29% in 1989-90 which slowly declined to 33.85% in 1992-93. This may be explained by the fact that the general local effort per student was declining as evidenced by unit local expenditures (which have been calculated by dividing total local contributions over total enrolment). However, in 1993-94, government credits to most public schools could not be obtained from the treasuries in general and such schools became increasingly dependent on their local communities to the extent that unit local expenditure went up. This raised the proportion of local contributions in total expenditure from a low of the 33.85% in 1992-93 to a peak of 45.64% in 1993-94. Ironically, this was the same year in which, in absolute terms, local contributions had declined the most.

In working out the proportion of local contribution in total expenditure, a lot of problems were faced in the public schools. In these schools, the government expenditures available were only for travel and stationery. Salaries were thus estimated by the bursars of such schools working with the assistance of the researcher. Again, the data on local support in some of them were estimates. In the private schools the data were easily found in well kept

records in a majority of cases.

Unit local expenditure was obtained by dividing total local contributions by total enrolment in the 16 schools that provided such information. This indicator declines slowly from 60,299 FCFA in 1989-90 to 45,763 in 1992-93 but climbed to 53,465 FCFA in 1994-94. As incomes got smaller, local contributions followed the same pattern. But in 1993 when the government non-salary recurrent expenditures almost ceased completely, the local communities stepped up their effort despite their worsening financial situation.

4.8. **Research Question 7:** Is there a significant relationship between the urban/rural location of a school and the frequency of local support it receives?

The number of sources and their frequency of participation greatly influences the amount of local support that a school receives. To answer the question, a chi-square test was used to find out if the various sources participate differently between urban and rural schools. For each source, its frequency was taken to be total number of years so that there was a total for urban schools and another for rural schools. The number of years that a source supported each school was added up for all the schools in a category to give the total for that category. Also, the total years of non-support for each source were added up.

Data for this question are found in Table 10 below.

**Table 10: Testing if frequency of support relates significantly to location of school using number of years.**

SOURCE	SCHOOLS	SUPPORT YEARS	NON-SUPPORT YEARS	TOTAL	X <sup>2</sup>
PTA	URBAN(8)	34	1	35	0.89
	Rural (18)	75	6	81	
	Total	109	7	116	
Tuition fee	U	15	20	35	2.87
	R	22	59	81	
	T	37	79	116	
Registration fee	U	31	4	35	9.56
	R	81	0	81	
	T	112	4	116	
Examination fee	N	26	9	35	0.31
	R	56	25	81	
	T	82	34	116	
Religious body	U	20	15	35	13.48
	R	71	10	81	
	T	91	25	116	
Old students	U	1	34	35	2.12
	R	9	72	81	
	T	10	106	116	
Dev./Cult. Association	U	0	35	35	7.46
	R	15	66	81	
	T	15	101	116	
Town/large Council	U	11	24	35	4.25
	R	12	69	81	
	T	23	93	116	
Business Organisation	U	0	35	35	16.70
	R	5	76	81	
	T	5	111	116	
School production	U	8	27	35	15.97
	R	51	30	81	
	T	59	57	116	
Individuals	U	1	34	35	16.94
	R	33	48	81	
	T	34	82	116	
Rents	U	5	30	35	12.08
	R	0	81	81	
	T	5	111	116	
Lab fee	U	11	24	35	17.73
	R	3	78	81	
	T	14	102	116	

Source: Compiled from the Field Work.

Rural Schools (n) = 19

Urban Schools (n) = 7

df = 1

 $\alpha$  = 0.5Tabulated X<sup>2</sup> = 3.84

From table 10, the answer to question 7 is yes. There is a significant relationship between the urban/rural location of a school and the local support it receives. The rural schools have slightly more sources of support and these have participated with more frequency than has been the case in urban schools. School production, cultural and development associations, religious bodies and individuals town/village council, business organisation and registration fee have been more active in the rural areas than in urban centres. The traditional and social cohesion in the rural areas due to language and tribal homogeneity and the strong ties of elites to their villages may explain this difference. As concerns school production, the rural schools have more farmland than urban schools and consequently do more farming. In addition, in most urban centres, school production is generally frowned upon by rich and powerful parents.

The above relationship was found to be approximately the same for primary schools in the South-West province by Ashuntantang and others (1977). Their study revealed that it was easier to mobilize local support in rural primary schools than urban ones and explained their observation with the existence of strong traditions in the rural areas.

4.9 **Research Question 8:** Is there a significant relationship between the curriculum of a school and the frequency of local support it receives?

This question was formulated to test whether there are systematic differences in the pattern of support between grammar and technical and is summarized in Table 11 below.

**Table 11: Testing if curriculum of a school relates significantly to the frequency (in years) of local support.**

SOURCE	SCHOOLS	SUPPORT YEARS	NON-SUPPORT YEARS	TOTAL	X <sup>2</sup>
PTA Levy	Technical ( )	13	0	13	1.03
	Grammar ( )	96	7	103	
	Total	109	7	116	
Tuition fee	Technical	0	13	13	7.74
	Grammar	37	66	103	
	Total	37	79	116	
Registration fee	Technical	13	0	13	0.53
	Grammar	99	4	103	
	Total	112	4	116	
Lab. fee	Technical	5	8	13	9.60
	Grammar	9	94	103	
	Total	14	102	116	
Exam. fee	Technical	10	3	13	0.27
	Grammar	72	31	103	
	Total	82	34	116	
Religious body	Technical	5	8	13	9.72
	Grammar	81	22	103	
	Total	86	30	116	
Old Students	Technical	0	13	13	1.38
	Grammar	10	93	103	
	Total	10	106	116	
Cult. & Dev Assoc.	Technical	0	13	13	2.17
	Grammar	15	88	103	
	Total	15	101	116	
Town/Village Council	Technical	1	12	13	0.69
	Grammar	17	86	103	
	Total	18	98	116	
Business Organisation	Technical	0	13	13	0.66
	Grammar	5	98	103	
	Total	5	111	116	
School Production	Technical	3	10	13	4.52
	Grammar	56	47	103	
	Total	59	57	116	
Individuals	Technical	2	11	13	1.37
	Grammar	32	71	103	
	Total	34	82	116	
Rents	Technical	0	13	13	0.66
	Grammar	5	98	103	
	Total	5	111	116	

Source: Compiled from the Field Work.

Technical Schools (n) = 3

Grammar Schools (n) = 23

df = 1

 $\alpha$  = 0.5Tabulated X<sup>2</sup> = 3.84

From Table 11, there is a significant relationship between the curriculum of a school and the local support it receives. Some of the sources provide support to the grammar schools on a more frequent basis. These include tuition fee, laboratory fee, religious body and school production. The local groups supporting secondary schools seem to show more preference for the grammar schools. In general, technical schools are not popular and are considered to be less prestigious. According to Tangu (1993), it is the rejects of grammar schools who go to technical schools. This means that Cameroonians (or Anglophones in particular) are yet to build an attachment to technical education and accord it the special value and place it deserves especially in these economic hard times.

Tangu explains the antipathy towards technical schools by saying they are more recent and generally, are ill equipped and poorly staffed (1993,p.10). In addition, the traditional preference for white collar jobs makes students and their families shy away from technical education. Consequently, non of the sources shows an attachment to technical schools.

4.10 **Research Question 9:** **Does Ownership of a School Relate Significantly to the Frequency of Local Support It Receives?**

This question is concerned with finding out whether there are differences in patterns of support between public and private schools. The data for this question was treated in same manner as for Question 7 and are found in table 12 below.

**Table 12: Testing if ownership of a school relates significantly to the frequency (in years) of local support.**

SOURCE	SCHOOLS	SUPPORT YEARS	NON-SUPPORT YEARS	TOTAL	X <sup>2</sup>
PTA Levy	Public ( )	79	0	79	15.93
	Private ( )	30	7	37	
	Total	109	7	116	
Tuition fee	Public	0	79	79	116.02
	Private	37	0	37	
	Total	37	79	116	
Registration fee	Public	79	0	79	8.81
	Private	33	4	37	
	Total	112	4	116	
Lab. fee	Public	13	66	79	4.49
	Private	1	36	37	
	Total	14	102	116	
Exam. fee	Public	56	23	79	0.005
	Private	26	11	37	
	Total	82	34	116	
Religious body	Public	61	18	79	0.22
	Private	30	7	37	
	Total	91	25	116	
Old Students	Public	1	78	79	17.01
	Private	9	28	37	
	Total	10	106	116	
Cult. & Dev Assoc.	Public	9	70	79	0.53
	Private	6	31	37	
	Total	15	101	116	
Town/Village Council	Public	3	76	79	40.00
	Private	30	17	37	
	Total	23	93	116	
Business Organisation	Public	5	74	79	2.43
	Private	0	37	37	
	Total	5	111	116	
School Production	Public	38	41	79	4.61
	Private	20	17	37	
	Total	58	68	116	
Individuals	Public	23	56	79	0.005
	Private	11	26	37	
	Total	34	82	116	
Rents	Public	0	79	79	11.20
	Private	5	32	37	
	Total	5	111	116	

Source: Compiled from the Field Work.

Public Schools (n)

= 8

Private Schools (n)

= 18

df

= 1

 $\alpha$ 

= 0.5

Tabulated X<sup>2</sup>

= 3.84

4.11 **Research Question 10:** What type of fees are realistic and justifiable in public secondary schools?

This question was approached in two steps. The first step involved calculating unit cost norms in the case study schools to give a rough measure of what it will normally cost to educate a child in a year in different categories of school. The second part was a sample of the opinion school authorities and PTA representatives on how much they liked the idea of introducing fees in public secondary schools.

In working out unit cost norms, certain assumptions were made. They are:

1. Class size in secondary school should not exceed 40. International trends support this assumption (See Unesco, 1989; Orivel, 1990). It appears that with a size beyond 40, efficiency is greatly compromised. Presently, there are schools in the country with as many as 300 students per class.
2. The average load per teacher should be 18 hours per week. This is the practice in public schools already. In some private schools, loads of up to 30 hours per week are common especially in the profit-making institutions. The researcher, based on his experience and informal discussions with colleagues, believes that 18 hours is adequate enough, allowing teachers time to prepare notes and correct exercises.
3. The life span of cement block classrooms that are maintained regularly is at least 20 years. This is based on experience in a variety of schools and informal discussions with some building engineers. It was also assumed that the cost of maintenance is usually recovered upon demolition.



4. The life span of furniture is assumed to be five years since most of what the investigator saw in the fieldwork is mostly white wood.
5. Scientific and technical equipment have a life span of 10 years. The fact that equipment is not a very common project in many schools leads to the conclusion that they have long life. The authorities in the case study schools indicated that equipment last for about 5 to 10 years but the researcher choose 10.
6. Teacher salaries should be raised to an average of 300,000 FCFA.. The researcher informally sounded the opinion of some teachers during the fieldwork and none of them is contented with what they earn. The heavy salary cuts in recent times, couple with a 350% inflation have left many teachers frustrated. Their personal morale, prestige and credibility in society are suffering a lot of damage due to the poverty to which they are discriminatorily subjected. A little illustration is called for here. A teacher with a postgraduate qualification has a starting salary of 80,000 FCFA while a gendarme with a primary school certificate has a starting salary of 125,000 FCFA in addition to the bribes he takes. The gendarme with two 'A' levels starts on 345,000 after three years of military school.

Thus, based on the above assumptions and spreading the costs of capital items over their life spans, unit cost norms were worked out by dividing the totals of the items in each school by its present (1994-95) enrolment. The unit cost norms calculated only include costs of teachers, classrooms furniture and equipment. They are meant to give a rough indication

of what it will cost to educate a child in ideal conditions in each of the case study schools. Costs of other inputs are equally important, but the researcher focused on the above because they are the most expensive. The unit cost norms are found in the table below.

**Table 13: Unit cost norms in the case study schools.**

NAME OF SCHOOL	CURRICULUM	LOCATION	OWNERSHIP	UNIT COST NORM (FCFA)
SHC Mankon	Grammar	Urban	Private	170,140
GTHS Bamenda	Technical	Urban	Public	207,529
GBHS Bamenda	Grammar	Urban	Public	184,446
GHS Nkambe	Grammar	Rural	Public	184,717
PSS Nkambe	Grammar	Rural	Private	182,420

Source: Compiled from the field work.

In obtaining data for unit cost norms, some technical inefficiencies were noticed. GBHS presently has 240 teachers instead of the 185 calculated while SHC employs 18 instead of the calculated 15. GTHS has technical and scientific equipment in excess of its needs. According to the vice principal, some of the equipment has never been touched since the school opened. In most cases this has been because the equipment is in excess but in a few remarkable cases because the teachers do not even understand the equipment. This last statement may be a pointer to donors from the West to plan aid packages well so that when they export technology to Africa, they should equally develop the local capacity to exploit it.

From Table 13, unit cost norm ranges from 170,140 FCFA in SHC to 207,529 in GTHS Bamenda. This is not surprising since it is a common fact that technical education is more expensive than general or grammar education. The general education schools have

nearly the same amounts with rural schools having slightly higher costs than their urban counterparts.

To tackle the second part of the question, school authorities and PTA representatives were asked to take a stand on the possible introduction of fees in public schools in view of the present economic situation of the country. Fifty-nine respondents from a population of 109 were involved in this exercise. The various types of fees were listed and respondents agreed or disagreed as to their introduction in public secondary schools by awarding points on a Likert scale with values ranging from 1 for strongly disagree through 3 for undecided to 5 for strongly agree. The analysis involved testing the arithmetic means different from the mid-point (3) to see if such difference was significant using the t test. The results are found in Tables 14 and 15 below which show opinions from 30 school authorities and 29 PTA representatives respectively.

**Table 14:** Opinion of school authorities on the introduction of fees in public secondary schools.

TYPE OF FEE	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
Tuition fee	3.27	1.47	1.50	Undecided
Laboratory fee	3.83	1	6.79	Agree
Examination fee	4.0	0.96	8.52	Agree
Boarding fee	3.76	1.12	5.55	Agree
Registration fee	4.48	0.51	10.80	Agree

Source: Compiled from fieldwork

N = 55

n = 30

$\alpha$  = 0.5

df = 29

Tabulated t = 1.70

**Table 15: Opinion of PTA representatives on the introduction of fees in public secondary schools.**

TYPE OF FEE	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
Tuition fee	3.28	1.38	1.61	Undecided
Laboratory fee	3.23	1.45	1.25	Undecided
Examination fee	3.48	1.31	2.90	Agree
Boarding fee	3.63	1.28	3.90	Agree
Registration fee	4.17	0.72	10.30	Agree

Source: Compiled from fieldwork

N	=	54
n	=	29
$\alpha$	=	0.5
df	=	28
Tabulated t	=	1.70

The above tables shows that respondents are undecided about tuition fees since the calculated t values are less than the expected. This shows that the mean values of 3.28 and 3.27 are not different from 3 (in the scale) which stands for undecided. Despite this apparently neutral stand of the respondents, the researcher strongly holds the opinion that tuition fees should be introduced into public schools. First of all, this will generate resources to offset the current inadequacies in the provision of many inputs. Secondly, it could lead to an improvement in the salaries of teachers as a way of boosting their morale and increasing their efficiency. Finally, tuition fees, in the researcher's opinion will help reduce wastage in public schools since some of the literature, for example Thobani (1984) and Bray & Lillis (1988), indicate that people came to value what they pay for more than what is dished out apparently "for free". Thus when parents pay, they will attach values to education and insist

and encourage their children to stay on in school and complete the courses.

The overall opinion of school authorities agrees that laboratory fee should be introduced in public schools while the PTA representatives are undecided. The practice in most schools has been that the PTA collects levies from all the students and uses a significant part of such resources to provide laboratory equipment for the science students. If science students pay a laboratory fee, then the burden of laboratory equipment on the PTA will be reduced or even removed. Since sciences cost more than the arts, there is no reason why students offering these courses in high school should not pay more for them. The universities of the West charge more for sciences than arts. Though the Cameroon secondary schools are not universities, there is no harm in introducing a laboratory fee. The introduction of such fees will be much equitable as levies from arts students will no longer pay for laboratory equipment for science students.

There is also general agreement on the introduction of examination fees in public schools. The practice at the moment is to collect fees only for graduation examinations which are externally controlled. Many of the respondents agree that this practice should be maintained. However, some respondents claim that in view of the rising costs of paper students could pay a small fee for internal examinations especially since government allocations for paper never materialize.

Boarding costs are very high. In the past, the government used to take care of all its boarding students. But since 1987, parents of such students have had to pay some boarding costs according to local arrangements made by the school and its PTA. In some schools, the boarding facilities have just been abandoned. This proves beyond doubt that the state is no

longer capable of providing "free" tuition and lodging to students. Thus the respondents agree that such facilities, wherever they exist and are exploited, should be paid for in the form of boarding fees. The registration fee, which earned the most consistent opinion with low standard deviations scored highest in the t test. Opinion is in favour of maintaining registration fee as has been the practice. This money is supposed to be used to insure students against accident in the school grounds and provide funds for sports and school canteen. It is not a large sum though it has risen from 2000 FCFA in the past to 3000 FCFA in 1994-95.

The issue of equal access of the rich and the poor within a fee paying public secondary school system was tackled. The respondents had to decide whether fees should be uniform when introduced or based on family incomes. Uniform fees scored a mean of 4.19 with a standard deviation of 0.9 and a t value 10.48 among school authorities. For the PTAs, the values were 4.07, 1.08 and 8.10 respectively. The means of discriminatory fees were far short of 3 and were significantly different. These results show that opinion though varied, generally favours uniform fees. Some respondents opted for uniform fees because they said there was no way of assessing family incomes in Cameroon and further argued that the collection of discriminatory fees would be impracticable. These results confirm what the researcher found in the pilot studies in the South West Province and Wum. In the South-west, the respondents had argued that discriminatory fees could create psychological tensions among students and could lead to indiscipline, with students paying higher fees demanding more and better services.

Despite the above evidence, the researcher strongly holds the opinion that when and if the government introduces fees in public secondary schools, such fees should be

discriminatory. A few respondents agreed that fees should be discriminatory but on an urban/rural basis with rural areas paying less. A minority holds the researcher's opinion that this should be practised within schools. The government could determine flat rates for all students and then establish a system of selective award of scholarships based on need and academic performance. Care should be taken in running such a scholarship scheme so that awards do not end up going to children from affluent backgrounds instead. The award of scholarships to Western universities has been run in such a way that ministers and other top civil servants are usually the ones who lobby and obtain these awards for their children, who often have mediocre academic qualifications. If such a scholarship scheme is organised and targeted only at the poor children so that their access to secondary schools is enhanced then equity would have been achieved to some extent.

In view of the present economic crisis and the empty public treasuries, the introduction of fees in public secondary schools is imminent. When education experts in the North-West Province met together in December 1994, in what was termed the Provincial Forum on Education, they called on the government to make primary school education free so as to increase access of children especially in rural areas. On the other hand, they called on the government to introduce tuition and other fees in public secondary schools.

**4.12 Research Question 11: What alternative strategies can be employed to improve education finance at the secondary level?**

This question was investigated in two steps. The first step was an inductive approach inviting school authorities and PTA representatives in the case study schools to suggest new

strategies. In the second step, the researcher derived new strategies and subjected them to the opinion of all the school authorities and PTA representatives involved.

The suggested strategies from the case studies are:

1. Introduction of an education tax. This was suggested by the principal of SHC. He thinks the government can establish an education tax which the local councils will collect and disburse to the schools in their area.
2. School production should be introduced where it does not exist and stepped up where it already exists. Farming is the activity commonly mentioned by all the respondents involved. The principal of the SHC pointed out that many parents may oppose the idea of school production by claiming it will hamper the academic progress of their children. In addition to farming, the principal of GTHS Bamenda said that home economics students in all schools could run restaurants and produce dresses, while the technical school students could produce furniture and carry out computer servicing.
3. Schools could organise bazaars, lotteries and thanks-giving services as ways of generating income.
4. Appeal to individuals and groups for donations. This was suggested by the principal of GHS Nkambe who strongly believes that such a method will work if the appeals are targeted at the rich. The PTA president of PSS Nkambe gave the same suggestion and identified groups that could be appealed to. These are local councils, corporations and credit unions. From SHC, the list was



expanded to include youth organisation and women's co-operatives.

The researcher's strategies were designed for three levels: The government, the PTA and the school. The analysis will thus be divided into three parts according to the level.

#### A. THE GOVERNMENT

At this level, the researcher was addressing the question: What should the government do to improve secondary school finance?

Question 10 above addressed this question to some extent. The state can partially solve the problem of secondary school finance by introducing fees. This will mean increasing the burden on parents, but it is inevitable if education is considered as an investment especially considering that the private economic benefits of secondary education are higher than the social benefits. Even when fees are introduced, the government should still maintain its present budgetary allocation to education, and must not use increased direct household contribution as an excuse to shake off responsibility for education.

Apart from parents other community sources can be tapped for additional resources. The researcher presented a list of potential sources to 59 respondents (school authorities and PTA representatives) and they agreed or disagreed as to the desirability of each financing secondary schools. A Likert scale with scores ranging from 1 for strongly disagree through 3 for undecided to 5 for strongly agree was used. For each source its arithmetic mean was computed and tested for significant difference from the mid point (3). These results are arranged for the two groups of respondents in table 16 and 17 below:

**Table 16: Opinion of school authorities on sources that ought to finance secondary schools.**

SOURCE	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
Religious Organisation	4.2	.85	11.55	Agree
Political Parties	2.67	1.54	-1.75	Disagree
Old Students	4.37	0.56	20.00	Agree
Students' Union	3.83	0.79	8.59	Agree
Cult./Dev. Association	4.2	0.61	10.09	Agree
Town Village Council	4.4	0.62	18.47	Agree
Business Organisations	4.6	0.75	17.45	Strongly Agree
Rich Individuals	4.0	0.83	9.85	Agree

Source: Compiled from field work

N = 55

n = 30

 $\alpha$  = 0.5

df = 29

tabulated t = 1.70

**Table 17: Opinion of PTA Representatives on sources that ought to finance secondary schools.**

SOURCE	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
Religious Organisation	3.48	1.38	2.76	Agree
Political Parties	2.48	1.40	-2.95	Disagree
Old Students	4.48	0.69	17.0	Agree
Students' Union	3.97	0.94	8.16	Agree
Cult./Dev. Association	4.20	0.99	9.59	Agree
Town Village Council	3.97	1.18	5.95	Agree
Business Organisations	3.90	0.94	7.59	Agree
Rich Individuals	4.17	0.76	12.20	Agree

Source: Compiled from field work

N = 54

n = 29

 $\alpha$  = 0.5

df = 28

tabulated t = 1.70

Tables 16 & 17 show that at 0.05 level of significance, all the means are different from the mid point (3). Opinion from the respondents disagrees generally with the statement that political parties should provide financial support to secondary schools. The scores varied a lot with a high standard deviations of 1.4 and 1.54. However, it should be pointed out here that in some countries, as evidenced by a few case studies in Bray & Lillis (1988) and Yannakopoulos (1980), political parties make significant financial contributions to their local secondary schools. The majority of the respondents in this study feel that if political parties finance schools, they may want to impose certain ideologies on the schools and this could create social tensions in the school community.

Opinion generally agrees that religious organisations, old students, students' unions, cultural and development organisations and rich individuals ought to finance secondary schools. Some respondents emphasised that the contributions of religious bodies should remain in the form of service mostly. In other words they should continue teaching religion as they have done in the past and possibly step up their effort by teaching in those schools where they presently do not.

It is up to government to look for ways of motivating or activating the sources identified in the last paragraph. Two ways are possible. The "carrot" approach could be used if the government comes up with some stimulating incentives that will spur them to contribute spontaneously. On the other hand, the "stick" approach could be employed by coming up with some legislation compelling these sources to contribute. However, a combination of both approaches may be used. According to Bray & Lillis (1988), Yannakopoulos (1980) and Orivel (1990) the above sources have been contributing to education in a large number of

countries including Kenya, Zambia, Nigeria, Tanzania, Brazil, Mexico, India, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea and Togo. Some of these countries have legislation making it compulsory on certain local groups to make contributions to education.

Having identified the above sources, the next issue was the form in which their financial contributions should be made. Various forms were listed and the 59 respondents scored them on a Likert scale.

The means were treated as for sources. The results are in Tables 18 and 19 below.

**TABLE 18: Opinion of school authorities on forms of local support**

FORM OF SUPPORT	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
Money	3.11	1.31	0.69	Undecided
Buildings	4.45	0.51	23.25	Agree
Labour/Services	3.86	0.93	7.56	Agree
Furniture	4.25	0.65	15.73	Agree
Equipment	4.36	0.69	16.12	Agree
Building Materials	3.86	0.93	2.56	Agree

Source: Compiled from Field work

N	=	55
n	=	30
df	=	29
$\alpha$	=	0.5
tabulated t	=	1.70

**TABLE 19: Opinion of PTA representatives on forms of local support**

FORM OF SUPPORT	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
Money	3.16	1.30	0.98	Undecided
Buildings	4.33	0.55	19.16	Agree
Labour/Services	3.96	0.79	8.88	Agree
Furniture	4.41	0.69	16.2	Agree
Equipment	4.50	0.51	23.31	Strongly Agree
Building Materials	3.93	1.14	4.68	Agree

Source: Compiled from Field work

N	=	54	df	=	28
n	=	29	$\alpha$	=	0.5
			tabulated t	=	1.70

The tables show that general opinion, though greatly dispersed with standard deviations of 1.31 and 1.30 is undecided about money as a form of local support at 0.05 level of significance. This finding is not surprising since money is a risky commodity to handle. It is easily diverted or embezzled as was pointed out by the respondents who strongly disagree with it. Though the opinion is neutral, the researcher wants to advise that it should be avoided as much as possible. Cases of officials stealing school forms contributed from local or government sources are common. Some of these ended up in court and appeared in newspapers across the country. Apart from the above discussion, money is becoming scarcer due to the general shortage of fiscal liquidity and declining incomes. So money should be contributed only when the other forms cannot replace it.

Acceptable forms of local support agreed upon with a lot of consistency as indicated by their small values of standard deviations are buildings, labour/services, furniture and equipment. Building materials, though accepted as a form of local support, shows a lot of variability in the responses. The respondents who strongly disagreed with building materials argued that if local groups take up projects in the schools, these should be carried through to completion. However, there is nothing wrong in shared projects for some groups to supply building materials.

If the government decides to make legislation or take other steps to seek contributions from the sources identified earlier, it is advisable to ask for it in one or more of the forms discussed in the above paragraph.

Some projects attract spontaneous interest and participation of local community sources. With funds raised from the identified sources, in the various forms indicated, school

projects/activities can be accomplished. In this research, 59 respondents decided as to the desirability or not of local communities financing certain projects in their schools. They took stands on a Likert scale containing a list of susceptible projects and their responses were treated in the same manner as for sources and are summarized in the tables below.

**TABLE 20: Opinion on projects/activities that local communities should support in their secondary schools.**

PROJECT/ACTIVITY	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
Land Acquisition	4.61	0.50	23.24	Strongly Agree
Building of Classrooms	4.23	0.50	20.12	Agree
Building of Laboratory	4.39	0.57	19.95	Agree
Building of Dormitories	4.14	0.59	15.80	Agree
Building of School Fence	4.07	0.72	11.81	Agree
Building of Staff Houses	3.46	1	3.76	Agree
Installation of Water	4.30	0.72	14.77	Agree
Installation of Electricity	4.04	0.92	9.25	Agree
Installation of Telephone	3.86	1.38	5.10	Agree
Purchase of Equipment	4.5	0.51	24.06	Strongly Agree
Purchase of Furniture	4.23	0.82	13.17	Agree
Purchase of School Bus	3.96	0.97	9.94	Agree
Purchase of Books	4.25	0.84	12.17	Agree
Purchase of Stationery	4.25	0.84	8.72	Agree
Award of Prizes	4.72	1.62	8.68	Strongly Agree
Teaching	3.58	1.21	3.95	Agree
School Administration	2.92	1.44	-0.45	Undecided
Sports	3.72	1.34	4.45	Agree
Maintenance of Buildings	4.38	0.56	20.16	Agree

**TABLE 21: Opinion of PTA representatives on project/activities that local communities should support in their secondary schools.**

PROJECT/ACTIVITY	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
Land Acquisition	4.28	0.94	10.79	Agree
Building of Classrooms	4.11	1.21	7.26	Agree
Building of Laboratory	3.96	1.09	6.03	Agree
Building of Dormitories	3.33	1.21	2.16	Agree
Building of School Fence	3.96	1.04	7.31	Agree
Building of Staff Houses	2.81	1.27	-1.19	Undecided
Installation of Water	4.33	0.78	9.76	Agree
Installation of Electricity	3.81	1.02	6.30	Agree
Installation of Telephone	3.37	1.24	2.36	Agree
Purchase of Equipment	4.04	1.15	7.16	Agree
Purchase of Furniture	4.15	0.82	11.11	Agree
Purchase of School Bus	3.70	1.13	4.91	Agree
Purchase of Books	3.93	1.33	5.54	Agree
Purchase of Stationery	3.56	1.25	3.55	Strongly Agree
Award of Prizes	4.57	0.50	19.91	Strongly Agree
Teaching	3.85	1.26	5.35	Agree
School Administration	3	1.36	0	Undecided
Sports	3.88	1.07	6.51	Agree
Maintenance of Buildings	3.85	1.33	5.03	Agree

Source: Compiled from field work

N = 55  
n = 29  
df = 28  
 $\alpha$  = 0.5  
tabulated t = 1.70

At the .05 level of significance, all the mean scores in Tables 20 and 21 are different from 3 (which is the mid point of the Likert scale used to sample opinion) except for school administration. While school authorities agree with staff houses, PTAs are undecided. Thus a conclusion can be drawn that in varying degrees all the projects except staff houses and school administration are acceptable to local communities. The mean scores and standard deviations reflect the degree of agreement. As regards PTAs, if one compares telephone (3.37, 1.24) with school bus (3.70, 1.13) it becomes clear that agreement is more consistent for bus than telephone and that if it came to priority due to limited means, bus will be chosen over telephone.

School administration is a project in which general opinion is undecided but it constitutes a point of controversy with the highest standard deviation of 1.41. While some respondents strongly agree, others strongly disagreed. The investigator takes the stand that if local communities are called upon to make financial contribution to schools, they should have power as well and should participate in some decision making. There is a saying that "he who pays the piper calls the tune". As pointed out in the literature review, decentralization in financing goes with decentralization in management in most of the countries covered. So if the Cameroon government is decentralizing its financial burdens, certain management tasks should be decentralized as well.

The respondents were next faced with the problem of determining the type of school, depending on curriculum, that local communities should support. On the same Likert scale, support for both grammar and technical schools scored a mean of 4.59 for school authorities and 4.66 for PTA which were interpreted as "strongly agree". Thus the respondents with very



little variability strongly agree that local communities should supply financial contributions to both technical and grammar schools.

The above paragraphs show that a new strategy for the government to raise additional resources for secondary schools is by introducing fees in public secondary schools. Another strategy is to activate the dormant resources identified above and make them contribute towards both grammar and technical schools. Such contributions should be in the forms identified above and for the projects agreed upon in Table 16.

#### B. P.T.A.

The main objective of the strategy that the researcher designed for the PTA was to explore means of raising money other than levies. A list of new methods was given to the 59 respondents on a Likert scale and they agreed or disagreed on each method by awarding points ranging from 1 for strongly disagree to 5 for strongly agree. The results were treated as for the previous Likert scale items and summarised in Tables 22 and 23.

**Table 22: Opinion of school authorities on new strategies for PTAs to mobilize local support.**

STRATEGY	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
Launching Ceremony	4.07	0.84	10.42	Agree
Fund Raising Dance	3.45	1.18	3.12	Agree
Fair	3.57	1.01	4.61	Agree
Appeal to Individuals	3.82	1.04	6.45	Agree

Source: Compiled from fieldwork

N = 55

n = 30

df = 29

$\alpha$  = 0.5

tabulated t = 1.70

**Table 23: Opinion of PTA representatives on new strategies for PTAs to mobilize local support.**

STRATEGY	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
Launching Ceremony	3.70	1.10	5.05	Agree
Fund Raising Dance	3.48	1.34	3.88	Agree
Fair	3.67	1.18	4.50	Agree
Appeal to Individuals	4.03	0.85	9.60	Agree

Source: Compiled from fieldwork

N	=	54
n	=	29
df	=	28
$\alpha$	=	0.5
tabulated t	=	1.70

At the 0.05 level of significance, all the mean scores are different from 3 which is the mid point of the Likert scale used. The two groups of respondents show general agreement with all the four new strategies. Thus PTAs could try out the new strategies contained in Tables 22 and 23 in addition to their usual method of charging levies. The new methods will surely go a long way to increase the finance of PTAs.

### C. THE SCHOOL

A list of strategies was subjected to rating by 59 respondents on a Likert scale. Their score treated as for the other scale items are found in the table below.

**Table 24:** Opinion of school authorities on income generating strategies for secondary schools

STRATEGY	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
School Production	4.14	0.65	14.34	Agree
Appeal to individual and groups	4.03	0.64	13.16	Agree
Launching Ceremonies	4.10	0.86	10.46	Agree
Naming streets/Halls after donors	3.89	1.01	7.21	Agree
Selling Services/Labour	3.59	0.91	5.30	Agree
Organising Old Students Unions	3.62	0.94	5.39	Agree
Organising Fairs	4.35	0.56	19.72	Agree
Rental of School Premises	2.25	1.27	-2.45	Disagree

Source: Compiled from field work

N = 55

n = 30

df = 29

$\alpha$  = 0.05

tabulated t = 1.70

**Table 25:** Opinion of PTA representatives on income generating strategies for secondary schools

STRATEGY	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	t	REMARK
School Production	3.57	1.26	2.87	Agree
Appeal to individual and groups	3.72	1.19	4.80	Agree
Launching Ceremonies	3.75	0.93	6.39	Agree
Naming streets/Halls after donors	3.48	1.19	3.20	Agree
Selling Services/Labour	3.44	1.25	6.82	Agree
Organising Old Students Unions	3.58	1.17	3.93	Agree
Organising Fairs	4.06	0.69	12.18	Agree
Rental of School Premises	2.7	1.51	-1.58	Undecided

Source: Compiled from field work

N = 54

n = 29

df = 28

$\alpha$  = 0.5

tabulated t = 1.70

The mean scores of the different strategies are all different from 3 at the 0.05 level of significance except for rental of school premises. Thus the respondents agree to all the strategies but are undecided on rental of premises.

School production is already an important activity in some schools notably St. Bede's College. From the suggestions in the case study schools and this opinion survey, it can be

concluded that schools should introduce production activities or increase their scope where they already exist. This may not be easy since as the principal of Sacred Heart College pointed out there could be antagonism on the part of parents. However, such parents may be educated through channels such as PTA meetings to accept school production as part of the training that their children require in these economically hard times. The experience in St. Bede's lends itself to the interpretation that school production will generate very significant income if well managed.

Appeal to individual groups has been tried by some schools such as PSS Nkambe with reasonable success. The method should generate resources in other schools as well if the right individuals/group are targeted.

Launching ceremonies have recently become popular in Cameroon though none of the schools covered has ever tried it yet. Books are launched and the authors and publishers raise a lot of money during such ceremonies. The launching of the endowment fund for the University of Buea towards the close of 1994 fetched over 100 million FCFA while the launching of the support fund for the national team playing in the 1994 World Cup raised over 450 million FCFA. Secondary schools could try launching ceremonies as well since many respondents feel this will generate significant sums for the schools. Experience in neighbouring Nigeria is very illuminating. Launching ceremonies are common in the secondary schools in Iboland and normally generate large sums of money (Igwe, 1988).

The naming of streets/halls after donors is a strategy that respondents agreed will generate income for the schools. Among the schools studied, only one GHS Bali has tried it and succeeded very well. The science laboratory in that school is named after the Bali ruler.

This motivated him to donate more in addition to getting all Bali people to contribute in one way or the other to the school. In the literature, naming of streets/halls/buildings has been found to be an effective strategy in India, Pakistan and Burma (Bray & Lillis, 1988; Yannakopoulos, 1980). Thus, the secondary schools of the North-West Province could experiment with the method.

**4.13 Null Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference in unit local support between Rural and Urban Secondary Schools.**

The answer to question 7 shows that local support is related to location of school with a clear pattern indicating that more of the sources participate more frequently in the rural schools. But does more sources with regular frequencies mean more support? Thus the need for this hypothesis which compares rural and urban schools to see if unit amounts of local support received in 1993-94 are significantly different between the two categories of school. For each school, the unit amount was obtained by dividing total local support in 1993-94 by enrolment in that year. Among the schools that provided this information, there are 12 rural schools and 4 urban schools. Table 26 below, using information extracted from Appendix I, summarizes the t-test for Null Hypothesis 1.

**Table 26:** Testing for significant difference of means between urban and rural schools.

VARIABLE	URBAN SCHOOLS	RURAL SCHOOLS
n	4	12
$\Sigma x$	310374	469515
$\bar{x}$	77,593.5	39,126
$S^2$	4107657284	1906987639

Calculated t = 1.317

Level of Significance ( $\alpha$ ) = 0.05

df = 14

Tabulated t<sub>0.025, 14</sub> = 2.145

The calculated t value is less than the expected and consequently Null Hypothesis 1 is not rejected. Thus it is concluded that there is no significant difference in unit amount of local support between urban and rural schools. It should be noted that since boarding schools are found in both rural and urban areas, the unit local support used to test the hypothesis includes boarding costs wherever these are indicated by the schools.

The fact that unit local support does not differ between rural and urban schools will seem at first sight to contradict with Question 7 which shows that rural schools receive support from more sources and more frequently. These two seemingly contradictory findings are explained by the fact that rural communities are poorer and in such areas, it takes many more sources contributing on a regular basis to come up with amounts that a few urban sources contribute on a less frequent basis. In other words the few urban sources, contributing sporadically, generally provide larger sums of money than is the case in rural environments.

Also one should bear in mind that while Question 7 covers 5 years, Null Hypothesis 1 only concerns 1 year.

4.14: **Null Hypothesis 2:** There is no significant difference in unit local support between public grammar and technical schools.

This Null Hypothesis is closely related to Question 8 which showed that grammar schools receive support from more sources more regularly than technical schools. But does this mean that there is a difference in amounts? The analysis for question 8 covered both public and private schools (which charge various types of fees). To test this hypothesis, the researcher focused only on public schools so as to control for fees which would surely have tilted the answer in favour of grammar schools since the technical schools in sample are public and tuition-free. Unit local support was extracted from Appendix I and used to test Null Hypothesis 2. The summary of the test is in Table 27 below.

**TABLE 27:** Testing for significant difference of means between public technical and grammar schools.

VARIABLE	TECHNICAL SCHOOLS	GRAMMAR SCHOOLS
n	3	6
$\Sigma x$	32420	76367
$\bar{x}$	10806.66	12727.83
$S^2$	68,214,222.29	83,343,17.998

Calculated t	=	-0.541
Level of Significance ( $\alpha$ )	=	0.05
df	=	7
Tabulated t	=	2.365



Since the calculated t value is smaller than the tabulated value of 2.365, Null Hypothesis 2 is not rejected. Thus evidence indicates that the means of unit local support do not differ significantly between public technical and grammar schools.

The analysis for Question 8 which shows that local financial support is tilted towards grammar schools could have been due to the heavy presence of private schools. Also, the answer of Question 8 could be interpreted to mean that more sources contribute more frequently to grammar schools without necessarily contributing large sums. On the other hand, the few times that sources contribute to technical schools, they provide larger sums knowing perhaps about the expensive nature of technical education.

Thus one can conclude that public schools, whether grammar or technical, attract the same amount of effort from local communities. In the grammar schools this effort is shared among many sources while in technical schools, the burden is on a few dedicated sources.

4.15 **Null Hypothesis 3:** There is no significant difference in unit local support between public and private schools.

This null hypothesis is a follow up of Research Question 9 which showed that local support is related to ownership of school with the public schools having a better stand than the private. Both categories of school have slightly different sources but in equal numbers. The pattern that evolved showed that the sources in public schools were generally more frequent than in private schools. Does more frequency necessarily mean more money from local sources? This null hypothesis attempts to clarify the point.

In testing this hypothesis, data were extracted from Appendix I. Since the lodging and feeding of day students was not obtained in this study, boarding costs were not included in the amounts used for testing this null hypothesis. The table below is a summary of the test.

**TABLE 28:** Testing for significant difference of means between private and public schools

VARIABLE	PRIVATE SCHOOLS	PUBLIC SCHOOLS
n	7	9
$\Sigma x$	248230	108787
$\bar{x}$	35461.42	12087.44
$S^2$	9,008,867.279	8,650,215.218

Calculated t	=	18.62
df	=	14
Level of Significance( $\alpha$ )	=	0.05
Tabulated t	=	2.145

From the above table, the calculated t value of 18.62 is far higher than the tabulated t value of 2.145. Thus the null hypothesis is rejected at the 0.05 level of significance (and even at 0.01). This means that there is significant difference between the means of private schools and public schools. The payment of tuition fees allowed only in private schools is the explanation of this finding. Though the analysis of Question 9 showed public schools being preferred over private schools the charging of tuition gives them very significant financial resources causing unit local support in such schools to be much higher.

of participation in the sampled schools. It was found out that many local sources which benefit directly or indirectly from education do not care to contribute financially towards the financing of secondary schools. Some of the dormant or less active sources identified include political parties, students' associations, cultural and development associations, business organisation, town/village council and individuals.

All of the above dormant or less active sources benefit from education but do not feel they could contribute. Politics in the modern world goes with a lot of written literature which has to be read and understood. In voting, people use their education to make the right choices. How do political parties hope to advance the democratization process in Cameroon if they cannot donate towards the financing of schools? The memoranda of the more than 100 parties in Cameroon contain utopic ideas on education but they do not commit themselves financially. Students' associations could become extinct if new generations of students are not produced. Education is considered by many authorities as the key catalyst of development and so tribes and villages wanting to develop must provide education to their members. Education unlocks potential, expands horizons and enables individuals and societies to adapt to a changing world. Business organisations, town/village councils and individuals benefit in one way or the other from education.

In light of the above discussion, the identified groups should know that education will advance their cause or well-being and as such should contribute. Individuals may want to argue that the education of other people's children is of no benefit to them. They should know that education facilitates communication and enhances healthy habits. If one's neighbour is uneducated for example, one could find it difficult to communicate with him and he could

have habits which are dangerous healthwise to the community. With benefits deriving from education it is only normal for beneficiaries to contribute financially towards the sector.

#### 5.2.4. Frequency of Various Forms of Support

The objective of Question 4 was the identification and measurement of frequency of various forms in which local financial support has been coming to the sampled schools. The analysis shows money coming out top with a frequency of 100% in most schools. This is closely followed by labour/services and buildings.

There is no implication immediately apparent from the analysis. However, people, especially contributors, should know that money is a very risky commodity to handle as it can very easily be diverted or stolen. Cases of school funds being embezzled abound in the country. Also, in rural areas, money is very scarce and so in soliciting contributions in such localities alternative forms could be demanded.

#### 5.2.5. Projects/Activities that have received Local Support

The fifth Question investigated the various school projects/activities financed with local community resources as identified by school authorities. The analysis shows that local communities have participated in school administration more than any other project/activity. This may mean a strong concern for the smooth running of the school or a big desire to have power/control over the schools. The latter reason seems to be the cause of local interest groups intimidating school authorities as was indirectly inferred in two cases during the fieldwork. However, it would be necessary to give local communities some power if they are

## CHAPTER FIVE

### **MAJOR FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### 5.1 . INTRODUCTION

This is the concluding chapter of the report. It highlights the major findings and discusses the implication of each. It also contains sections on recommendations, limitations, suggestion for further study, and summary and conclusion.

#### 5.2 MAJOR FINDINGS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS

The major findings are organised around the various research questions and null hypotheses. The major findings are exposed first and then their implications are presented. The findings and implications have general significance for all those concerned with the provision of secondary education such as the government, the community at large with its various sub-units, the PTAs and the school.

##### 5.2.1 Current Strategies for Mobilizing Local Support

Question 1 had as objective, the exploration of strategies currently employed by schools to raise local community resources. The analysis shows that schools mainly charge fees as permitted by legal texts and collect PTA levies. These are enforced by denying access to students who have not paid fees and/or levies - a practice which tends to have negative effects on students' academic progress and may enhance wastage. Other strategies involve relying on the desire by villages and/or tribes to develop generally and the enthusiasm of clergymen to evangelise.

The above findings imply that the schools are using a rather narrow range of strategies which could be expanded to generate more resources. The literature is very illuminating as it indicates many other methods that have been tried elsewhere with high degrees of success.

### 5.2.2. Participation of PTAs in the Sample

The second question examined the participation of PTAs in the schools focusing on the projects they have achieved and the strategies they use for generating resources. In the main, PTAs are active in all the schools with the exception of one private profit-making institution. They have accomplished various projects ranging from buildings through purchase of books to installation of telephone. They raise money mainly by charging levies determined in annual general assemblies,

The PTAs are greatly concerned with the provision of adequate services to students and will carry out any project deemed important enough to contribute to the success of the children. The list of projects that they have carried out is comprehensive enough but their strategies of generating money are of a narrow scope. In these hard times if PTAs want more money to accomplish more projects in their schools, they must try out innovative strategies, especially ones which have been tested elsewhere and found successful. The literature has a tested array of such strategies which the researcher subjected to an opinion survey in this study.

### 5.2.3 Participation of non - PTA Sources

Question 3 was concerned with identifying non-PTA sources and measuring their level

expected to maintain or step up their contributions. People generally want to ensure that the money they contribute is well spent.

The second project/activity that attracted a lot of community involvement was identified to be payment of salaries. In most cases, this was done by PTAs in public schools who employed on a temporal basis to make up for teacher shortages in certain subject areas. In some schools, security guards, laboratory assistants and typists are on a permanent contract with the PTA. In employing technical staff, care must be taken to ensure that they have the required competence and are of sound moral backgrounds.

Classroom construction and purchase of furniture were other popular projects attracting the highest number of local sources. It was remarkable that in a majority of the public schools, PTA buildings were better and cheaper than government buildings. This finding lends itself to the suggestion that it may be far better for the government to channel building grants through PTAs instead of using contractors who corrupt public officials and end up producing very poor and dangerous buildings.

Other projects identified include land acquisition, maintenance, purchase of books etc. The wide scope of the projects implies that communities are willing to carry out any type of project in their local school as long as they are convinced of its importance in enhancing the education process and are financially able.

#### 5.2.6. Magnitude and recent Trend of Local Financial Contributions

The objective of Question 6 was to measure the magnitude, trend and proportion of local financial contributions. Unfortunately, only 16 schools provided data for the question.

The analysis shows local support in the 16 schools ranging from 395, 265, 560 FCFA in 1993-94 to 421, 858, 695 in 1990-91. The decline in recent years is explained by declining family incomes due to the adverse macroeconomic environment of Cameroon. The proportion of local contributions in total expenditures in all the 16 schools ranges from 33.85% in 1992-93 to 45.64% in 1993-1994. It is ironical that the lowest amount of local contributions constituted the highest proportion. In that year the government suddenly and unexpectedly cut down the salary component of its education budget by over 60% and this explains why the lowest local contributions ended up being the highest proportion.

The analysis further shows that despite a negative growth rate of local contributions, the unit effort per student is showing signs of an increase. This is evidenced by the fact that unit local expenditure which had been on a steady decline, climbed from 45, 763 FCFA in 1992-93 to 53,465 in 1993-1994. But does this trend mean that local contributions are on the rise? There is no clear evidence from which to conclude. A cautious position will be to assume a future decline and step up the effort to obtain resources from more and varied sources.

If the decline in local contributions is to be stopped, alternative sources have to be identified and activated (made to contribute). The few source presently contributing will not be able to continue increasing their effort indefinitely. If the avenues for local community financing are broadened, then more income will be made available and the declining growth in magnitude of local contributions could be stopped or reversed. Thus those concerned with the delivery of service especially the government, the PTAs and the schools have to diversify local community sources of support.



#### 5.2.10 Attitudes to the Introduction of Fees in Public Schools

In answering Question 10, the researcher sought the informed opinion of school authorities and PTA representatives on the introduction of a variety of fees into public secondary schools. A Likert scale with values ranging from 1 to 5 was used and for each type of fee, the mean score was tested for significant difference from 3 before being interpreted to mean opinion.

The general opinion of the respondents was neutral on the introduction of tuition fees. But the researcher has the opinion that if alternative resources are not sought quickly enough, the secondary school system will further deteriorate and therefore holds that the government could still adopt the policy of charging tuition in public schools. Such charges if well managed and controlled could be used in eliminating the many inadequacies in the provision of production inputs such as teachers. In addition such fees will be more equitable in the sense that parents of children in private schools will no longer feel cheated as they have been feeling in the past. However, there may be need for a further study which analyses income distribution so as to come out with an acceptable fee structure for public schools.

The other types of fees: examination, boarding fee and registration fee gained general consensus of opinion on their introduction and/or maintenance in public schools. As concerns laboratory fees, school authorities agreed while the PTA representatives remained undecided. So one major avenue for the state to generate secondary school finance is to charge fees. But this should be done bearing in mind the difficult situation of children from poor homes. Selective scholarships based on demonstrated need coupled with academic performance could be the basis for award of such scholarships.

### 5.2.11 Opinion on New Strategies for Mobilizing Local Supports

Question 11 was formulated with the objective of exploring new ways of generating secondary school finance. Respondents when invited to suggest new strategies in the case studies came out with a variety of strategies including a local education tax, increased school production and appeal to individuals and groups.

Also, when the school authorities and PTA representatives were confronted with an opinionnaire on new strategies designed by the researcher, they took various stands as to the desirability and fitness of each method. On the whole, they agreed that local sources identified under Question 2 as less active or dormant should be activated so that they can contribute financially towards secondary education. The inclusion of political parties among such sources was rejected mainly on the grounds that political ideology may diffuse into the school campus and polarize the school community. The respondents agreed that support from these sources should come generally in the form of labour/services, buildings, equipment and furniture but were undecided about the suitability of money.

The above paragraph shows new avenues for the government to generate educational finance apart from the method of charging fees. The various sources could be activated through a combination of approaches. In some countries legislation is used as a means of compelling sources to finance schools.

New strategies for the PTA were also examined. The general opinion agrees that apart from levies, PTAs could use launching ceremonies, fairs, fund raising dances and appeal to individuals to raise money. Fees and levies are direct household contributions only. If the other methods are employed, the whole local community will be participating in funding the

### 5.2.7 Comparison of Urban and Rural Schools in terms of Frequency of Support

In answering Question 7, chi-square test was applied to verify whether there are differences in local support patterns between urban and rural schools. The analysis shows that differences do exist, with rural schools having more sources with consistently high frequencies of support. Traditional and social cohesion of village communities was advanced to explain the finding. In such societies, the traditional political set up is very strong and powerful and the village head is often considered to have divine rights. Such a ruler, if convinced by the idea of education can mobilize a lot of contributions through the village council and in some cases through the elites and development associations. In addition, the various cultural and development associations existing in the towns are not concerned with developing the town, but rather their villages of origin which could be hundreds of kilometres away.

The above findings should illuminate the PTAs, the government and the schools on how to solicit support in rural communities. If the traditional authorities, village councils, elites and executives of development associations are involved, especially during the planning phase of projects, a lot of success is likely to be achieved.

### 5.2.8. Comparison of Public Technical and Grammar Schools in Terms of Frequency of Support

Question 8 sought to compare patterns of support between technical and grammar schools. The chi-square test used, proved that the grammar schools receive support more frequently and from more sources. This is indicative of the fact that the traditional preference for white-collar jobs and general apathy towards technical education still persist.

There is need to educate the communities on the importance of technical education and on the role it has to play in alleviating the heavy economic malaise that Cameroon is presently experiencing. On the other hand, if local communities still prove impervious to the idea of technical education, its financing could be retained by the government while that of grammar schools is decentralized. In this way communities wanting grammar schools will be called upon to contribute more than before to support their grammar schools while the government concentrates a major part of its secondary school budget on technical schools.

#### 5.2.9 Comparison of Frequency of Support between Private and Public Schools

In answering Question 9, the researcher used chi-square tests to determine that differences in frequency of local support exist between public and private schools with the public schools being slightly better off. The sources that support public schools are more regular than for private schools.

The explanation of the above funding lies in the fact that local communities seem to have a stronger attachment to public schools especially since they are tuition free. In general however, graduates of public schools do not seem to have any strong attachment to their former schools as evidenced by the fact that the majority of active old students are associated to the private mission schools.

The implication of the above results lies in the fact that local communities are willing to support the government in its education effort. What the government needs to do is to look for ways of further mobilizing and rationalising local contributions while at the same time maintaining its budgetary allocations to the education sector.

schools. The burden should not be only on the parents alone since society as a whole benefits from the education of its members.

As for the schools themselves, the respondents agreed that they could try new methods such as increasing or introducing school production, appeal to individuals/groups, launching ceremonies, naming of streets/buildings after donors, fairs, organising old students' unions and selling of services/labour. Rental of school premises gained a neutral response with some informants claiming that people who rent school premises may cause damage or steal school property. Thus school authorities have new avenues for mobilizing local support in the list above.

The above findings imply that if schools, their PTAs and the government are interested in mobilizing more local community resources, they should increase their stock of strategies. They could at their particular level exploit a combination of the new methods identified in the foregoing paragraphs.

#### 5.2.12 Unit Local Expenditure for 1993/94 in Urban and Rural Schools

The means of unit local expenditures were compared between rural and urban schools using a t-test. The results show that there is no difference. Taking the answer of Question 7 into consideration, this result implies that the urban sources make larger contributions though less frequently. If more sources in urban areas are tapped, then local resources generated there should increase. Since the rich normally live in towns, the researcher had expected a significant difference between rural and urban schools and was surprised to discover none.

Thus schools and other interested parties should seek financial contributions from as many local sources as possible. This is the only way of stepping up local support especially in urban centres where there are still a lot of untapped sources.

#### 5.2.13 Unit Local Expenditure for 1993/94 in Public Technical and Grammar Schools

Here, the researcher used a t-test to compare the means of unit local support between public grammar schools and public technical schools. The result shows no difference. This may seemingly contradict with the answer of Question 8, but one should bear in mind that the t-test only involved local contributions for 1993-94 and that the answer to Question 8 involved both public and private schools using data from 1989 to 1994.

The above result shows that local communities give the same amount of local support to both technical and grammar schools. This should be accepted cautiously as other factors still strongly suggest otherwise. Parents and students are yet to accept technical education. Enrolments in 1994-95 will illuminate this point. GTHS Bamenda has an enrolment of 700 while its neighbour GBHS has 3800. GTHS Wum has an enrolment of 401 while its neighbour GHS Wum has 1500. These enrolment figures suggest attachment and preference for grammar schools.

From the above results, the government could decentralize financing in both grammar and technical schools. Since the test shows no difference, one would expect the communities to contribute to both categories of school uniformly and without problems.

#### 5.2.14 Unit Local Expenditure for 1993//94 in Public and Private Schools

This hypothesis was formulated to compare means of unit local support between public and private schools. The test showed a significant difference. This finding was not surprising since private schools charge a variety of fees and have not received any grants from the government in the period under study.

Does the relatively better position of private schools in terms of local support suggest that the government could charge fees in public schools and stop all grants to such schools? To some top government officials, the answer "yes" will be very tempting. The above result only shows that if fees are introduced into public schools, more local income will be generated. The government could do so while maintaining its present budgetary allocation to education which in recent years ranges from 12% to 15%.

### 5.3 **RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based on the findings as exposed in Chapter 4 and in the light of implications explained in 5.2 above, certain recommendations for policy have been made. They are targeted at the government, the local community and the school, and consequently have been divided into three groups.

#### 5.3.1 **The Government**

1. The macroeconomic environment of the country should be improved. This study was formulated as a consequence of declining financial resources in the education sector. The decline has been due to negative economic indicators such

as negative growth rates in both public and private incomes. If the economic situation of the country improves (through new and better economic policies), money will become available both from public and private sources to fund the educational system adequately.

2. Direct household contributions in public secondary schools should be increased. This can be done by introducing tuition fee, laboratory fee, examination fee and boarding fee (where boarding facilities exist and are used). Registration fees should be maintained. When these fees are introduced, a selective scholarship system should be established to cater for the needs of poor students.
3. An education tax should be introduced based on individual wealth. Some people are so rich but they keep all their money to themselves. Such a tax will be a means of getting the rich to finance the education system.
4. Local community groups that benefit from education should be made to fund the system. These are business organisations, local councils, cultural and development association and if possible student unions. Laws could be enacted making it compulsory for these sources to allocate a certain percentage of their budgets to education as is the case in some countries. On the other hand, other more attractive approaches could be used. Room should be made for local contributions to be paid in kind where money is scarce or where it is feared it will be mismanaged. Political parties desirous of contributing towards secondary school finance should be encouraged to do so. Religious organisations should be encouraged to maintain and where possible, step up



their teaching of religion in secondary schools.

5. Educate the local communities on the importance of education in general and technical education in particular. This will help eliminate the apathy people have for technical education. The technical school resources especially equipment and classroom space are currently underutilized. If enrolment in technical school increased, unit costs of these will surely go down and this will help decongest neighbouring grammar schools.
6. Capital investments especially for buildings should be executed through PTAs. This will eliminate the place of corrupt contractors who execute projects in a very poor manner. The PTAs will use investment grants better since they have a sentimental attachment to the schools.
7. The government should look for ways of maintaining and where possible increasing PTA participation in secondary schools. One way of doing so is by changing its informal nature into a formal one through enacting laws which define its duties and privileges as well as structure and organisation. At the moment, the few texts from the Ministry of Education do not as yet make the PTAs formal and consequently their method of levy collection through habit has been described in certain quarters as "illegal". Also, nothing compels parents to belong to PTAs and so parents have a right to opt not to pay levies. Thus PTAs should be given a legal status:

Another method of motivating PTAs is by setting up a good accounting system for the association with auditors chosen locally. There have been cases where

PTA executives with the complicity of principals embezzled PTA funds because of poor accounting structures. When the Ministry or Delegation learns of such an event, a team of auditors is sent to the school concerned. The auditors are received by the PTA executive and the principal who feed and lodge them and end up bribing them to go back and report that the accounts were correct.

8. The government should involve local communities in decision - making about development in general and education in particular. Experience in self - help projects in Tanzania and Kenya shows that when local communities are involved in decision - making, projects get accomplished especially if such projects are initiated by the communities themselves. When people take decisions, they tend to execute them without problems. On the other hand when a technocrat sits in an office in Yaounde and designs a development project for some remote area, such a project may even end up being repulsive to the integrity, dignity and pride of the natives.

Thus the government should stop relying on politicians and a few elites who lobby for projects such as schools because they hope to make some profit out of it by gaining building contracts. Instead the government should consult and dialogue with development and cultural associations, town/village councils and PTAs. These groups should also be given some minimum decision making power over their schools since they are expected to finance them.

### 5.3.2 The Local Communities

1. Local communities should internalize the idea that society at large benefits from the education of its members. People should not be indifferent to the financial needs of their local secondary school since graduates from there will help develop the community as a whole. Thus people should feel obliged to contribute towards secondary school finance.
2. Local communities should understand that technical education is equal to (if not better than) general education. With this opinion in mind, they should make contributions to both technical and grammar schools in their area.
3. Local communities should demand and have some local crafts and know-how taught in their secondary schools. In addition, they should encourage their children to do manual labour in school especially on the school farm. These activities will generate school income and may later on prove to be a source of employment for the children especially since it is becoming increasingly difficult (if not impossible) to obtain employment in the formal sector.
4. PTAs in secondary schools should use alternative methods identified in this study to generate revenue. The methods are: launching ceremonies, fund raising dance, fairs and appeal to rich people. These new strategies as indicated in the literature have been tested elsewhere and found successful.

In addition, PTAs should make an effort to fully integrate teachers into the association as some of these may have a lot of potential for mobilizing local support. The practice in the past has been that PTA is a matter between the

principal and a few parents. Also, PTA executives should try as much as possible to make sure that as many parents as possible attend annual general meetings. Experience shows that those who participate in decision making always execute such decisions. If all the parents agree on projects and levies, they will all feel obliged to contribute.

### 5.3.3 The School

1. All secondary schools should carry out production activities. Those already doing so should step it up. The example of St. Bede's College which earned 3.4million francs from school production in 1993 -94 should be very enlightening. Activities like farming, animal breeding and local crafts should be carried out in all the schools.
2. This study identified new strategies which secondary school should use to generate income. These are appeal to individuals/groups launching ceremonies, naming of streets/buildings, fairs, selling of services/labour and organising old students' unions. These have been tried in other countries with a lot of success. A few of them have already been tried in some of the sampled schools successfully.
3. Secondary school principals should strive at all times to maintain a good relationship with the PTA and the whole community at large. In situations where school-community links are good, local contributions are usually substantial.

#### 5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study suffered from the following limitations:

1. **Lack of data.**

On the field, the enquirer realised that data was very scarce in the public schools. In such schools, there is no systematic recording of contribution from various community sources. Also, teacher salaries are paid directly from the Ministry of Finance in Yaounde and schools do not have a record of such payments. In these cases, the bursar made estimates with assistance from the researcher. Also, in some private schools, apart from fees other contributions are not well recorded.

2. **Lack of co-operation.**

Some respondents proved very difficult and unwilling to participate in the study. These took a lot of convincing. On the other hand, every respondent was quite enthusiastic to express his/her opinion on the Likert scale.

3. **Population and sample sizes**

The study involved only the 55 grammar and technical schools, leaving out 54 comprehensive schools. It could have been interesting to study comprehensive schools as well. But since part of the research involved comparing technical versus grammar schools, the comprehensive type was left out. Out of the 55 grammar and technical schools in the province, 30 were sampled. Though this gives a high percentage of 54.55, it could have been better to do a census so as to come out with a more comprehensive picture. The sample size was limited to 30 because of data collection strategy, economic and accessibility constraints.

## 5.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

To evolve a complete picture of local financing of secondary school, the following areas are suggested for further study:

1. Local support in the financing of comprehensive secondary schools in the North-West Province. If such a study is carried out, it will complement the present one so as to give a clearer picture of local financing in the province.
2. Local support to secondary education in the other nine provinces of Cameroon. The researcher believes that the phenomenon of local financial support to secondary schools needs to be examined in all the remaining nine provinces so as to generate a clear understanding of the situation in the whole country. Such an understanding will be very useful to policy makers.
3. Resource utilization in secondary schools in the country. It is possible that though school authorities are crying out for more resources, the ones put at their disposal are currently being underutilized. Thus it is necessary to find out how schools use resources so as to recommend a 100% utilization as a way of cutting costs.
4. Strategies for marketing schools. In this study, a trend towards declining enrolments was noticed. If enrolments drop it is very likely that costs will go up. On the other hand if enrolments increase with the right resources, economies of scale will be achieved and costs will drop. Thus it may be necessary to sell the idea of education to local communities and schools may have to market themselves to attract enough pupils. Should this be the case,

then what are the best marketing strategies for the secondary schools in Cameroon? How do they attract enough students? In a fee-paying system, it will be found that enrolment correlates with income. So there is need to identify ways of attracting students to schools as a means of generating income.

## 5.6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This study has identified the main source of local support to secondary education in the North-West Province to be parents who pay fees and PTA levies. Other sources that support secondary schools are religious bodies (who mainly teach religion), school production and individuals. Less active or dormant resource include town/village council, cultural and development associations, old students, business organisations, political parties and students' unions. Support from the above identified sources has been provided mainly in the form of money, labour and buildings.

The local communities have participated in a variety of school projects/activities including school administration, payment of salaries, purchase of furniture and construction of buildings. A majority of the sources contributed towards furniture and buildings.

In terms of money, local contribution ranged from 395, 269, 560 FCFA to 242, 527, 530 FCFA in the period under study in 16 of the sampled schools. It constituted a proportion in total expenditures in the 16 schools ranging from 33.85% to 45.64%. In general, local contributions are on the decline and unit local expenditure which was 60,299 FCFA in 1989-90 dropped to 53,465 FCFA in 60,299 in 1993-94.

The tests of relationships show that many more source participate more frequently in rural, grammar and public schools than in urban, technical and private schools. This however, does not mean bigger amounts of local contributions.

A survey of opinion on fees in public schools shows that examination, laboratory, boarding and registration fees could be introduced. Opinion remained undecided on tuition fees.

Opinions further shows that local sources, identified as dormant or less active, be activated and made to contribute to secondary school finance. Contributions from such sources should preferably come in the form of buildings, equipment, furniture and labour/ services and could be used in diverse projects ranging from installation of pipe-borne water to construction of buildings.

New methods for PTAs to generate income as identified in the study are: launching ceremonies, fund raising dance, fairs and appeal to rich individuals. For the schools, new strategies evolved are introducing or stepping up school production, appeal to individuals/groups, launching ceremonies, organising old students, fairs, and selling of services/labour and naming of streets/buildings after donors. Desperate school could rent their premises.

A test of hypothesis showed that the means of unit local support do not differ between rural and urban schools, and public technical and grammar schools. On the other hand the mean of private schools is significantly different from that of public schools due probably to the fact that they charge tuition.

The above findings are significant to a number of people involved in the provision of



secondary education in the North-West in particular and in the country in general. These include government officials in the Ministry of Education at Yaounde and in the Provincial Delegation in Bamenda, PTA presidents and other community leaders and school authorities. A series of recommendations has been made for them.

It is the strong conviction of the researcher that if the recommendations are adopted and applied, then secondary school finance will greatly improve or at least be maintained. In this way, the system will be prevented from further deterioration if resources generated as suggested are used to correct inadequacies of inputs and also to further develop the system.

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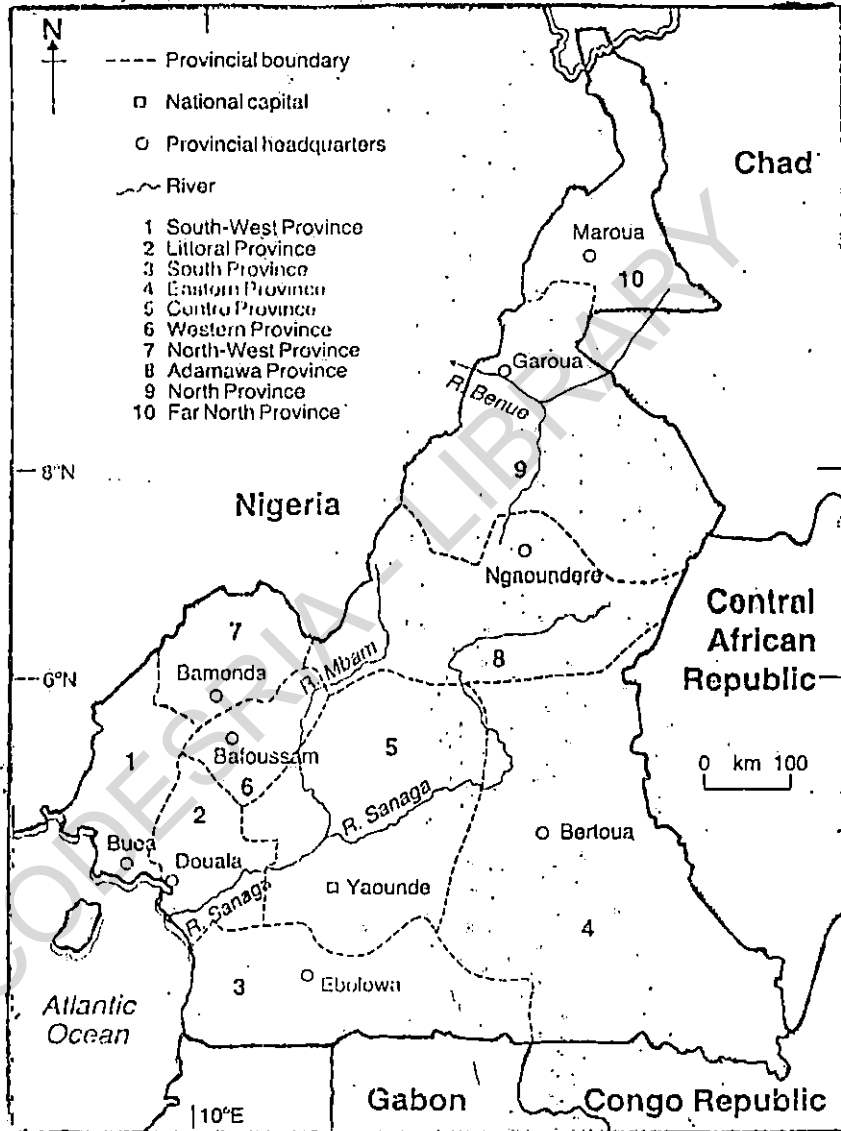
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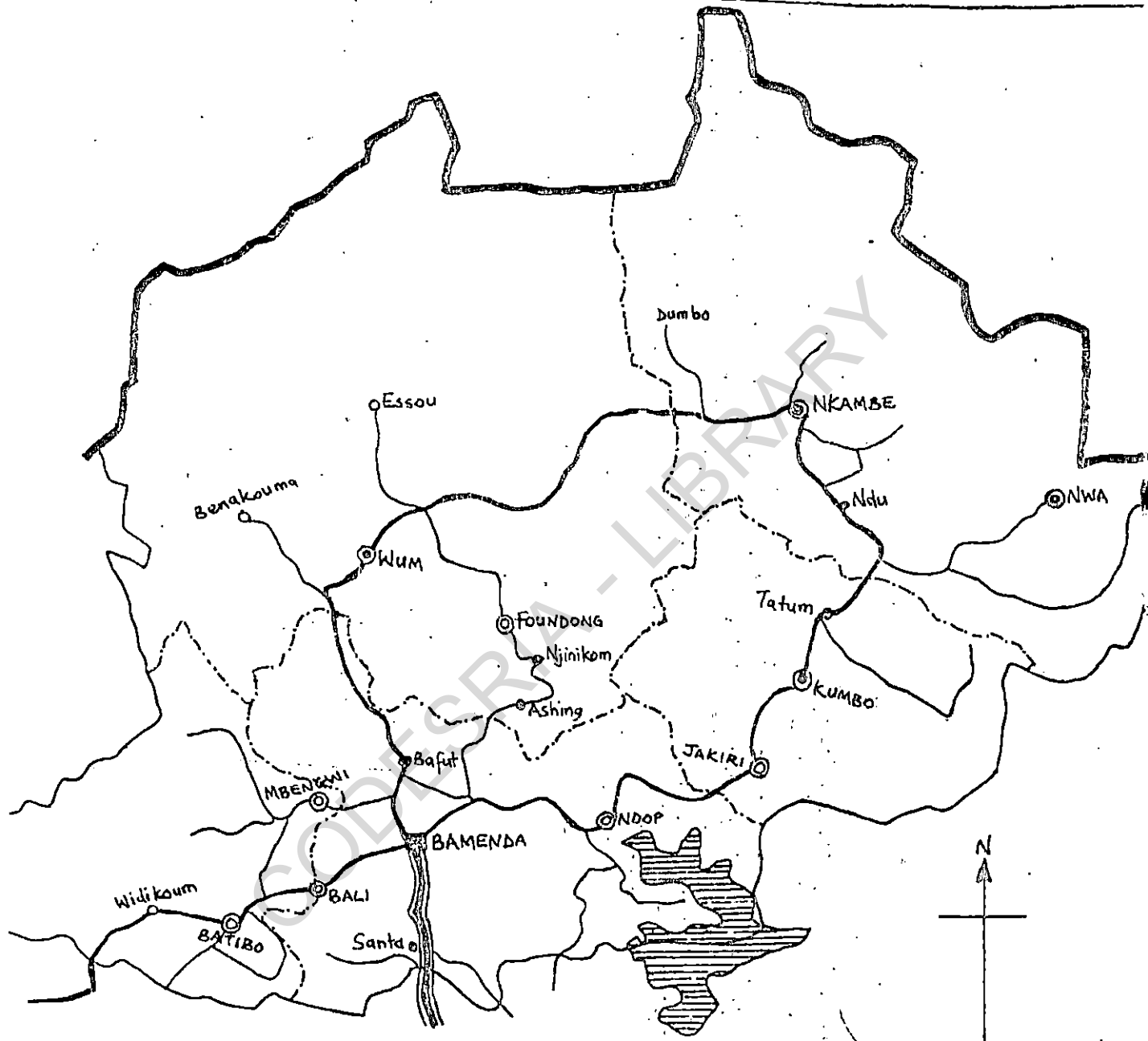
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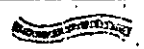
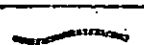
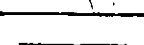
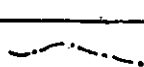
**APPENDIX A**  
**MAP OF CAMEROON**



**APPENDIX B**  
**MAP OF THE NORTH-WEST PROVINCE**



**KEY**

	Major roads (tarred)
	Major road (untarred)
	Secondary roads
	Boundary line

0 15 30 45 60km

**APPENDIX C**  
**PERMISSION FROM NORTH-WEST DELEGATE**

/TBP/NHM

Republique Du Cameroun  
Paix Travail Patrie

REPUBLIC OF CAMEROON  
Peace Work Fatherland

MINISTRE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE  
DELEGATION PROVINCIALE  
DU NORD-OUEST

MINISTRY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION  
PROVINCIAL DELEGATION  
FOR THE NORTH-WEST.

Subject: AUTHORISATION TO CARRY OUT  
Objet RESEARCH PROJECT IN THE  
NORTH-WEST PROVINCE

Ref N° G.663/166/MINEDUC/DPNO/SP

Bamenda, the 27 DEC 1991  
The Provincial Delegate  
Le Délégué Provincial

To M

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I, the undersigned, Provincial Delegate of National Education for the North-West, Bamenda, hereby authorise Mr. J.A. Tamukong to carry out research study in the North West Province.

Mr. J.A. Tamukong is a research student of the University of Jos, Nigeria pursuing his Doctoral Degree (Ph.D) in Community Financing of Secondary Schools in the North-West Province.

I Therefore appeal to any Educational Institution in the Province from which this research student needs relevant information to render him maximum co-operation and collaboration.

Elango

Makio

**APPENDIX D****QUESTIONNAIRE ON LOCAL SUPPORT TO SECONDARY EDUCATION (OLSSE)****Part A.**

1. Name of School: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Proprietor (tick one): \_\_\_\_\_ Individual(s)  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Mission  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Government
3. Location: \_\_\_\_\_
4. Type of Council of location (tick one): \_\_\_\_\_ rural  
 \_\_\_\_\_ urban
5. Status of location: \_\_\_\_\_ Provincial headquarters  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Divisional headquarters  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Sub-Divisional headquarters  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Other
6. Type of institution (tick one) \_\_\_\_\_ grammar  
 \_\_\_\_\_ technical
7. Present enrolment of school: \_\_\_\_\_
8. In the last five years in 1989-1994 your school has received support from various local sources. For each source listed below, please indicate the number of years out of five for which it supported your school as well as the amount it provided in 1993-94.

SOURCE	NO. OF YEARS	AMOUNT IN 1993-1994
P.T.A Levy		
Tuition fees		
Registration fees		
Laboratory fees		
Examination fees		
Religious body		
Political party		
Old Students' Association		
Students Association/Union		
Development Association		
Cultural Association		
Town/Village Council		
Business organisation		
School Production		
Individuals		
Others (specify)		

9. For each academic year shown below, write down the total amount of financing that your school received from local sources, total expenditures and the enrolment for each year.

YEAR	LOCAL FINANCE	TOTAL EXPENDITURES	ENROLMENT
1993-1994			
1992-1993			
1991-1992			
1990-1991			
1989-1990			

10. Local financial support comes to your school in several forms. Against each form indicated below, indicate the number of years out of last five that your school has received such aid as well as the sources.

FORM OF SUPPORT	NUMBER OF YEARS	SOURCES
Buildings		
Money		
Labour (services)		
Furniture		
Equipment		
Building Materials		
Others (Specify)		

11. Was the land on which your school is built donated or bought?

If donated, by whom? \_\_\_\_\_

If bought, by whom? \_\_\_\_\_

12. In the past five years, local support has financed certain projects in your school. For each project below, write down the number of years out of five in which it received local financing and please indicate the sources of such financing.

PROJECT/ACTIVITY	NUMBER OF YEARS	SOURCES
Land acquisition		
Building of Classrooms		
Building of Laboratories		
Building of School fence		
Building of staff houses		
Installation of water		
Installation of electricity		
Installation of telephone		
Purchase of Equipment		
Purchase of furniture		
Purchase of school Bus		
Purchase of Books		
Purchase of stationery		
Payment of salaries		
Award of prizes		
Teaching		
School Administration		
Sports		
Maintenance of buildings		
Others (specify)		

**PART B.**

13. The following statements represent opinions, and your agreement or disagreement will be determined on the basis of your particular convictions. Kindly indicate your position on each statement as it first impresses you. You should take your stand by awarding points ranging from 1 to 5, where the points have the following meanings:-

1: I strongly disagree

2: I disagree

3: I am undecided

4: I agree

5: I strongly agree

14. The following groups ought to support secondary schools in their localities:

- (a) Religious Organisations \_\_\_\_\_
- (b) Political Parties \_\_\_\_\_
- (c) Old students Associations \_\_\_\_\_
- (d) Students Associations/Unions \_\_\_\_\_
- (e) Cultural/Development Association \_\_\_\_\_
- (f) Town/Village Councils \_\_\_\_\_
- (g) Business Organisations \_\_\_\_\_
- (h) Rich Individual \_\_\_\_\_

15. Local Financial Support to secondary schools should be given in the form of:

- (a) Money \_\_\_\_\_ (b) Buildings \_\_\_\_\_
- (c) Labour/services \_\_\_\_\_ (d) Furniture \_\_\_\_\_



- (c) Equipment \_\_\_\_\_ (f) Building materials \_\_\_\_\_

16. Local Communities should help their secondary schools in:

- (a) Land Acquisition \_\_\_\_\_ (b) Building Classrooms \_\_\_\_\_  
 (c) Building Laboratories \_\_\_\_\_ (d) Building dormitories \_\_\_\_\_  
 (e) Building school fence \_\_\_\_\_ (f) Building staff houses \_\_\_\_\_  
 (g) Installation of water \_\_\_\_\_ (h) Installation of electricity \_\_\_\_\_  
 (i) Installation of telephone \_\_\_\_\_ (j) Purchase of equipment \_\_\_\_\_  
 (k) Purchase of furniture \_\_\_\_\_ (l) Purchase of school bus \_\_\_\_\_  
 (m) Purchase of books \_\_\_\_\_ (n) Purchase of stationery \_\_\_\_\_  
 (o) Award of prizes \_\_\_\_\_ (p) Teaching \_\_\_\_\_  
 (q) School Administration \_\_\_\_\_ (r) Sports \_\_\_\_\_  
 (s) Maintenance of Buildings \_\_\_\_\_

16. PTAs should raise money by:

- (a) Imposition of levies \_\_\_\_\_ (b) Launching \_\_\_\_\_  
 (c) Organising dances \_\_\_\_\_ (d) fairs \_\_\_\_\_  
 (e) Appeal to rich people \_\_\_\_\_

17. (A) In view of the present economic situation the following fees should be introduced in public secondary schools

- (a) Tuition fees \_\_\_\_\_ (b) Laboratory fee \_\_\_\_\_

- (c) Examination fee \_\_\_\_\_ (d) Boarding Fee \_\_\_\_\_
- (e) Registration fee \_\_\_\_\_
- (B) All such fees should be uniform \_\_\_\_\_
- (C) All such fees should be dependent on family income \_\_\_\_\_

18. Local Communities should support:

- (a) Grammar school only \_\_\_\_\_
- (b) Technical Schools only \_\_\_\_\_
- (c) Both \_\_\_\_\_

19. All secondary schools should carry out income-generating activities \_\_\_\_\_

20. Secondary schools should solicit financial assistance from local groups and individuals by:

- (a) Appeal to individuals \_\_\_\_\_
- (b) Launching ceremonies \_\_\_\_\_
- (c) Naming streets and halls after donors \_\_\_\_\_
- (d) Selling services/labour \_\_\_\_\_
- (e) Fairs \_\_\_\_\_
- (f) Organising Old Students Unions \_\_\_\_\_
- (g) rental of school premises \_\_\_\_\_

Many THANKS IN ADVANCE.

**APPENDIX E****QUESTIONNAIRE ON PTA FINANCING OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS  
(QPFSS)**PART A

1. Name of PTA \_\_\_\_\_
2. Years of creation of PTA \_\_\_\_\_
3. Present membership size \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. Membership quality.  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. How does the association raise money? Please list all the methods employed at least once in the last five years and say how each was effective.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. What projects have you accomplished in your school in the last five years? Please list all of them and explain why you supported each.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
7. In what form you have provided support to your school in the last five years? Kindly indicate all the forms and explain the reason behind each.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

PART B: See part b of QLSSE

**APPENDIX F**  
**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE ON LOCAL SUPPORT TO SECONDARY**  
**EDUCATION (ILSSE).**

**PART A.**

1. Name of school: \_\_\_\_\_
2. How has your school mobilised local resources in the last five years?  
Explain each strategy used, its target and effectiveness.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. What problems have you encountered in mobilizing local resources in the past five years?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. Describe the relationship of your school with its local community.  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. Describe in detail the various type of services rendered to your school by the local community in the last five years.  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. How can the mobilization of local resources for your school be improved?  
\_\_\_\_\_
7. In the last five years what production activities have your students carried out and what total amounts were generated in each year?  
\_\_\_\_\_

## 8. Information for unit cost norms

Enrolment \_\_\_\_\_

Total number of hours taught in the school/week \_\_\_\_\_

Number of teachers required \_\_\_\_\_

Average teacher salary \_\_\_\_\_

Non teacher salaries \_\_\_\_\_

Other recurrent expenditure in 1993-94

Number of classrooms required \_\_\_\_\_

Cost of classrooms \_\_\_\_\_

Number of desk/lockers required \_\_\_\_\_

Cost of desk/lockers \_\_\_\_\_

Required tables \_\_\_\_\_

Cost of tables \_\_\_\_\_

Number of chairs required \_\_\_\_\_

Cost of chairs \_\_\_\_\_

PART B.

You have expressed certain opinion on local financing issues. Please explain why you hold that opinions.

7. Other local groups that ought to support secondary schools.

---

8. Form of local support.

---

9. Project to finance in secondary schools.

---

---

10. Method that PTA should use to raise money.

---

---

11. Fees in public secondary schools.

---

---

12. Type of secondary school to receive local support.

---

13. school production.

---

14. strategies for secondary schools to mobilize local resources.

---

15. researcher's observations.

---

**APPENDIX G**  
**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE ON PTA FINANCING OF SECONDARY**  
**SCHOOLS (IPFSS)**

PART A.

1. Name of PTA \_\_\_\_\_
2. What motivate your association to support its school?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Describe your PTA school relationship  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. In achieving your association's objectives what problem do you face?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. In what way can the smooth functioning of the PTA be improved?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. Do you have any general remarks?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

PART B: See Part B of ILSSE

**APPENDIX H****THE TARGET POPULATION****A. Rural Technical Schools**

- 1 St. Rita's Technical College, Nkambe
- 2 Government Technical College, Nkambe
- 3 Government Technical High School, Wum
- 4 Government Technical Collage, Mbengwi

**B. Urban Technical School**

- 5 Government Technical College, Kumbo
- 6 Government Technical college, Bamenda
- 7 Government Technical High School, Bamenda

**C. Rural Grammar Schools**

- 8 Government High School, Fundong
- 9 Kom Grammar High School, Njinikom.
- 10 St. Bede's College, Ashing
- 11 Government High School, Jakiri
- 12 Government Secondary School, Elak-Oku
- 13 Government Secondary School, Mbiame
- 14 Government Secondary School, Nkor-Noni
- 15 Government Secondary School, Tatum

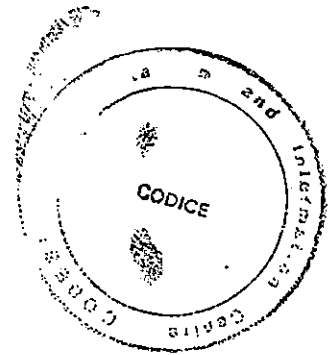


- 16 Government Secondary School, Ako
- 17 Government Secondary School, Ndu
- 18 Government High School, Nkambe
- 19 Government High School, Nwa
- 20 Joseph Merrick Baptist College, Ndu
- 21 Government Secondary School, Wum
- 22 Government Secondary School, Benakuma
- 23 Government Secondary School, Bafmen.
- 24 Presbyterian Secondary School, Nkambe
- 25 Government High School Wum
- 26 Menchum Community High School Wum
- 27 Cameroon Protestant Collage, Bali
- 28 Cameroon College of Arts, Science and Technology, Bambili
- 29 College of Arts and Professional Studies, Bambili
- 30 Government High School, Santa
- 31 Government Secondary School Bafut
- 32 Government High School Batibo
- 33 Government High School Mbengwi
- 34 Government High School Njikwa
- 35 Presbyterian High School Batibo
- 36 Presbyterian Secondary School Andeck
- 37 Baptist Secondary School, Ndop

- 38 Government High School Ndop
- 39 Government Secondary School Balikumbat
- 40 Government Secondary School Furu-Awa
- 41 Government High School Bali

Urban Grammar Schools

- 42 Government High School Kumbo
- 43 St. Augustine's College Nso
- 44 Apostolic Secondary School, Bamenda
- 45 Baptist Secondary School, Bamenda
- 46 Government Bilingual High School, Bamenda
- 47 Government Bilingual Secondary School, Bamenda
- 48 Presbyterian Secondary school, Mankon
- 49 Government Secondary School Mankon
- 50 Government Secondary School, Bamenda
- 51 Starlight College, Nkwen
- 52 Sacred Heart College Mankon
- 53 Our Lady of Lourdes College Mankon
- 54 St. Peter's College Kumbo
- 55 Government Secondary School, Nkwen



APPENDIX IUNIT LOCAL EXPENDITURES IN 1993-94

SCHOOL	CURRICULUM	LOCATION	OWNERSHIP	UNIT LOCAL SUPPORT (UNIT BOARDING COSTS)
GHS Santa	Grammar	Rural	Public	14,079
GHS Batibo	Grammar	Rural	Public	10,500
GSS Wum	Grammar	Rural	Public	10,000
GTHS Bamenda	Technical	Urban	Public	9,000
GTC Mbengwi	Technical	Rural	Public	14,500
GTHS Wum	Technical	Rural	Public	8,920
GHS Fundong	Grammar	Rural	Public	11,783
GHS Bali	Grammar	Rural	Public	11,500
GSS Bamenda	Grammar	Urban	Public	18,505
BSS Ndop	Grammar	Rural	Private	39,000
KGHS Njinikom	Grammar	Rural	Private	30,000
Starlight Bamenda	Grammar	Urban	Private	35,000(100,000)
PSS Mankon	Grammar	Urban	Private	47,000(100,869)
PSS Nkambe	Grammar	Rural	Private	36,508(20,000 for feeding)
SBC Ashing	Grammar	Rural	Private	32,444(90,000)
CPC Bali	Grammar	Rural	Private	38,278(102,000)