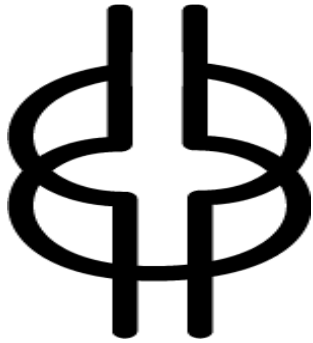
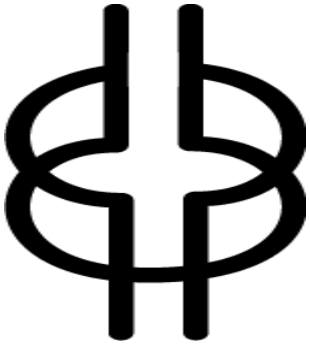
# Ghana Journal of Education: Issues and Practice (*GJE*)



NYANSAPO – "Wisdom Knot"

Symbol of wisdom, ingenuity, intelligence and patience

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# Ghana Journal of Education: Issues and Practice (*GJE*)

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**Editorial Comment**

The Ghana Journal of Education: Issues and Practice (GJE) is a peer-reviewed journal focusing on classroom practice and policy issues that affect teaching and learning. In this volume, researchers and authors have contributed a wealth of high-quality and informative material. The volume contains five papers that have gone through the peer review process at three levels by independent reviewers.

The paper by Abdulai, Abudu, and Bediako provides a timely and rigorous examination of the determinants of graduate outcomes within Ghana's evolving TVET landscape. Using PLS-SEM and a sizeable sample across two regions, the authors demonstrate that institutional factors - staff quality, funding adequacy, financial management, and industry partnerships are central to improving employability and job readiness. Their finding that programme-level factors, though positively related, do not significantly predict outcomes invites deeper reflection on curriculum relevance and instructional quality. The study's emphasis on government and stakeholder support as a moderating force underscores the systemic nature of TVET reform. This work contributes meaningfully to policy debates and offers evidence-based recommendations for strengthening Ghana's human capital development agenda.

Boakye's historical analysis of Ghana's education under President John Agyekum Kufuor adds an important retrospective lens to contemporary educational discourse. By drawing on archival materials, interviews, and policy documents, the study situates the 2007 Education Reform within broader national and global aspirations. The paper argues convincingly that Kufuor's interventions were not only poverty-alleviation strategies but also deliberate efforts to align Ghana's education with international standards. This contribution is valuable for understanding the trajectory of Ghana's educational reforms and provides a nuanced account of political leadership in shaping national education systems.

The study by Adeyini, Oladele, and Fashina addresses an increasingly relevant issue in higher education: the stress experiences of female distance learners. With a robust sample and appropriate statistical analyses, the authors reveal the multifaceted nature of stress - financial, psychological, academic, and familial affecting learners in science and mathematics education. Importantly, the study notes the supportive role of emerging technologies in mitigating stress. The recommendations for enhanced counselling and social support are

practical and resonate with broader concerns about learner wellbeing in flexible learning environments.

Agubosi, Fashina, and Abdullatif contribute to the professional preparation discourse by examining the challenges faced by counsellor-trainees during practicum at the University of Ilorin. The study identifies anxiety, lack of client cooperation, and related concerns as significant impediments to effective practicum experiences. While demographic variables such as age and religion do not influence perceptions of these challenges, gender differences emerge as significant. This finding invites further inquiry into gendered experiences within counselling education. The paper's call for strengthened practicum instruction and support mechanisms is well-placed and aligns with global best practices in counsellor training.

The final paper by Nkrumah, Omotohso, and Ankomah shifts attention to a sensitive yet socially consequential topic: the nature and organisation of commercial sex work in Cape Coast. Employing a mixed-method design, the authors map hotspots, preferred venues, and temporal patterns of sexual transactions. Their findings such as the predominance of night-time activity and guest-house settings provide empirical grounding for policy and enforcement discussions. The study's recommendations for intensified sensitisation and strengthened law enforcement reflect an attempt to balance public health, morality, and legal considerations. While the topic is complex, the authors handle it with methodological care and social awareness.

The editorial team is grateful to all reviewers for the useful feedback they offered on the papers they reviewed and the professionalism they exhibited through the review process. To the Provost of the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, the team would like to say a big thank you for the continual financial and logistical support which has made the publication of GJE possible.

**Prof. Douglas Darko Agyei**
**Editor-In-C**

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# Impact of TVET Programmes on TVET Graduate Outcomes in Ghana

Niamatu-lai Abdulai[1], Amadu Musah Abudu[1] & Emmanuel Asare Bediako[2*]

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## Abstract

The efforts made to promote Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) demonstrate the importance Ghanaian authorities attach to it. For some time now, TVET has been restructured, and new policies have been formulated, all to ensure elevation in graduate outcomes. However, there is a lack of research, especially regarding factors associated with such outcomes. Based on relevant variables derived from the Human Capital Theory and Employability Theory, this study examines the extent to which TVET programmes meet the expected graduate outcomes in Ghana. The study adopted a correlational research design and used a survey of key stakeholders in the TVET sector in the Greater Accra and Northern Regions of Ghana. Data were collected from 250 respondents using stratified random sampling. Using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM), the findings indicate that institutional factors, such as adequate and well-trained TVET staff, sufficient funding, effective financial management, and strong partnerships with industry and other stakeholders, were positively associated with graduate outcomes. These outcomes include graduates' employability, job readiness, confidence, entrepreneurial capability, and career sustainability. Although programme factors, such as industry-aligned curricula, effective instruction methods, knowledgeable trainers, and resources for hands-on learning, were positively associated with graduate outcomes, the relationship was not statistically significant. Moreover, government and stakeholder support through adequate funding, positive policies, and engagement with key stakeholders significantly enhances graduate outcomes. Additionally, the study found that government and stakeholder support positively moderate the relationship between institutional and programme factors and graduate outcomes. The results highlight the critical role of institutional factors, programme structure, and external support in improving TVET graduate outcomes in Ghana. Among other things, it was recommended that the Ghana government create curricula aligned with industry, develop more attractive and supportive ecosystems to boost instructors'

morale, and strengthen stakeholder collaboration. The government could do these through policy formulations.

**Key words**: TVET; TVET programmes; unemployment; government; graduate outcomes

## Background to the study

Globally, unemployment remains a critical concern for development partners, governments, and scholars due to its significant socio-economic and political implications (Fenta, 2024; Demeke, 2022; Fergusson, 2021). The International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2024) projects a global unemployment rate of 4.9% in 2024, a slight improvement from 6.4% in 2023. However, the scale of the problem remains significant: approximately 402 million individuals aged 15 and older are seeking employment, of whom 182 million are officially unemployed (ILO, 2024). Youth unemployment is particularly prevalent, especially in developing countries where economic opportunities are limited. Scholars such as Byrne and Strobl (2004), Fenta (2024), and Hailu Demeke (2022) note that unemployment rates are disproportionately higher in developing economies due to mismatches between job supply and demand.

Unemployment is not solely a numerical issue but also a matter of disparity (Blustein et al., 2020; Dubra, 2016). The ILO (2024) reports a significant gender gap in employment: 69.2% of men aged 15 and older are employed, compared to only 45.6% of women in the same age group. Fergusson (2021) concurs and indicates that the gender gap is largely driven by societal expectations regarding family roles, particularly marriage and parenthood, which disproportionately affect women's participation in the labour market. The gender gap in employment reflects not just market dynamics but also entrenched social norms that restrict women’s economic empowerment (Lahtinen, Sirniö, & Martikainen, 2020)

According to Lahtinen et al. (2020), women face structural barriers to full employment in many developing regions, including limited access to education, vocational training, and job opportunities. These barriers hinder women's career advancement and reinforce cycles of poverty and economic dependence (Santos Silva & Klasen, 2021;

Shellock et al., 2022; Bermúdez et al., 2023). Santos et al. (2021) argued that addressing gender inequality in employment requires policies that ensure equal access to education and training, provide support for working mothers, and challenge societal norms that limit women's workforce participation.

While global unemployment is expected to decline from 6.4% in 2023 to 6.3% in 2024 (Horne, 2023; ILO, 2024), unemployment remains a pressing challenge in Africa, particularly in Ghana. Ghana's unemployment rate rose from 13.7% in the first three quarters of 2022 to 14.7% in the same period of 2023, with approximately 1.4 million young people aged 15 to 35 unemployed in 2023, compared to 1.2 million in 2022 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2024; Yirenkyi et al., 2023). These figures underscore the growing challenges young people face in securing employment despite ongoing economic growth.

In Ghana, the youth unemployment crisis is exacerbated by a skills mismatch between the education system and labour market demands (Habiyaremye et al., 2022; Yirenkyi et al., 2023). Many graduates lack the practical and technical skills necessary to thrive in a rapidly evolving economy, particularly in rural areas where educational and vocational training opportunities are insufficient (Adams et al., 2024; McGrath, 2022). A key solution to youth unemployment is the expansion and strengthening of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) programmes (Habiyaremye et al., 2022; McGrath & Yamada, 2023). TVET is globally recognised for equipping young people with practical skills that enhance employability and economic contribution. By focusing on areas such as manufacturing, construction, and technology, TVET programmes prepare students for the demands of modern industry, helping reduce poverty and promote social stability (Paryono, 2017; Bekana, 2020; Palmer, 2019; Wang, 2024).

Empirical literature consistently positions TVET as a critical mechanism for addressing youth unemployment by aligning skills development with labour market demands. Across both global and African contexts, studies converge on the argument that TVET enhances employability through practical, industry-relevant competencies, particularly in sectors such as construction, manufacturing, and technology (Paryono, 2017; Bekana, 2020; Palmer, 2019; Wang, 2024). However, this positive relationship is conditional rather than automatic. Evidence from developing economies suggests that the effectiveness of TVET is mediated by the extent to which

training systems are responsive to labour market dynamics and supported by coherent policy frameworks (Habiyaremye et al., 2022; McGrath & Yamada, 2023). Thus, while TVET is widely acknowledged as a solution to skills mismatches, its impact varies significantly depending on systemic quality and implementation fidelity.

Within the Ghanaian context, recent policy interventions, including the Free TVET policy and targeted initiatives such as the Ghana TVET Voucher Project, have significantly expanded access and enrolment, indicating strong governmental commitment to the sector (TVET Commission, 2023). Nonetheless, empirical studies reveal a persistent disconnect between increased participation and improved graduate outcomes. Specifically, while access has improved quantitatively, qualitative dimensions such as training relevance, practical exposure, and transition-to-work support remain inconsistent. This suggests that expansion without corresponding quality enhancement may yield limited labour market returns, reinforcing concerns in the broader literature about the "access–quality paradox" in vocational education systems.

Further synthesis of Ghana-focused studies highlights recurring structural and institutional constraints that undermine TVET effectiveness. Evidence consistently identifies outdated equipment, inadequate infrastructure, limited industry collaboration, and weak pedagogical approaches as critical barriers (Gyimah, 2020; Kissi et al., 2020; Darteh, 2021; Otchi, 2023). Importantly, these challenges are not isolated; they interact to produce systemic inefficiencies that weaken skill acquisition and reduce graduates' competitiveness in the labour market. This aligns with international findings that TVET outcomes are shaped by the interplay between institutional capacity, curriculum relevance, and stakeholder engagement rather than by any single factor (Mack & White, 2019; Mensa, 2023). Consequently, the literature points to a need for integrated reforms that simultaneously address infrastructure, pedagogy, and governance, rather than fragmented interventions.

In light of these challenges, comprehensive reforms in TVET implementation are urgently needed in Ghana. To achieve the desired outcomes of skills development, employability, and entrepreneurship, systemic and institutional barriers must be addressed. Government policies should prioritise the standardisation of TVET curricula to

ensure training meets industry standards across all regions. Furthermore, investments in infrastructure and teaching materials are critical to providing students with the practical experience needed for success in the workforce. Equipping teachers with up-to-date knowledge and teaching methods, particularly in emerging fields such as technology and engineering, is also essential. Continuous professional development programmes for TVET educators are necessary to ensure high-quality instruction. Without such reforms, the disconnect between education and labour market demands will continue to undermine TVET's effectiveness in combating unemployment.

This study examines the extent to which institutional and program-related factors influence graduate outcomes in TVET institutions, with particular attention to employability, job-readiness, confidence, and entrepreneurial capabilities. It also aims to assess the role of government and stakeholder support in enhancing graduate outcomes and to determine whether such support moderates the relationships between institutional factors, programme factors, and graduate outcomes. By identifying the key determinants of improved graduate performance and labour market relevance, the study provides empirical evidence to inform policy formulation, institutional strengthening, curriculum improvement, and stakeholder engagement strategies.

**Statement of the Problem**

Despite the growing recognition of TVET as a strategic pathway for addressing youth unemployment and skills shortages in Ghana, graduate outcomes remain a persistent concern. Many TVET graduates continue to face difficulties in securing employment, transitioning effectively into the labour market, and developing sustainable entrepreneurial ventures. Existing literature, such as Gyimah (2020), Ghana Education Service (2020), Kissi et al. (2020), and Mohammed (2020), suggest that challenges related to institutional capacity, programme design, and limited support from government and stakeholders undermine the effectiveness of TVET delivery. However, empirical evidence on how these and many other factors individually and interactively influence graduate outcomes in the Ghanaian context remains limited. In particular, there is insufficient understanding of the extent to which institutional factors, programme-related factors, and

government and stakeholder support contribute to employability, job readiness, and entrepreneurial capabilities among TVET graduates. This gap constrains the formulation of evidence-based policy and the effective allocation of resources within the TVET sector. Addressing this problem is critical to strengthening TVET's relevance and impact in Ghana, enhancing graduate employability, and supporting national development objectives.

## Objectives

The general objective of the study was to examine the extent to which TVET programmes influence graduate outcomes in Ghana. The specific objectives that guided the study were as follows.

1. To assess the extent to which institutional factors (e.g., infrastructure, funding, staff quality, partnerships) influence TVET graduate outcomes.
2. To evaluate the extent to which programme-related factors (e.g., curriculum alignment, instructional methods, training resources) affect graduate outcomes.
3. To examine the role of government and stakeholder support in enhancing TVET graduate outcomes.
4. To determine whether government and stakeholder support moderates the relationship between:
    - Institutional factors and graduate outcomes
    - Programme factors and graduate outcomes
5. To identify key determinants of graduate outcomes, including employability, job readiness, confidence, entrepreneurial capability, and career sustainability.

## Research Questions

We sought to answer the following research questions.

1. To what extent do institutional factors influence TVET graduate outcomes in Ghana?
2. To what extent do programme factors influence TVET graduate outcomes in Ghana?
3. To what extent does government and stakeholder support directly influence TVET graduate outcomes in Ghana?
4. To what extent does ‘government and stakeholder support’ moderate the relationship between institutional factors and graduate outcomes?

5. To what extent does government and stakeholder support moderate the relationship between programme factors and graduate outcomes?
6. How do TVET programmes contribute to specific dimensions of graduate outcomes, namely:
    - employability
    - job readiness
    - confidence
    - entrepreneurial capability
    - career sustainability?

**Theoretical Framework**

This study integrates Human Capital Theory, Systems Theory, Stakeholder Theory, and Employability Theory to explain how institutional and programme factors influence TVET graduate outcomes in Ghana, and how these relationships are strengthened through government and stakeholder support.

Human Capital Theory (Schultz, 1961; Becker, 1964) provides the foundational logic for linking *institutional factors* and *programme factors* to *graduate outcomes*. The theory posits that investments in education and training enhance individuals' productivity and labour market value. In this study, institutional factors such as infrastructure, funding, staff quality, and industry partnerships represent structural investments, while programme factors such as curriculum alignment, instructional methods, trainer competence, and hands-on learning represent direct mechanisms for skill formation. Together, these investments are expected to translate into improved graduate outcomes, including employability, job readiness, confidence, entrepreneurial capability, and career sustainability. Thus, Human Capital Theory explains the direct effects of both institutional and programme factors on graduate outcomes.

Systems Theory (Bertalanffy, 1968; Checkland, 1999) complements this perspective by conceptualising TVET institutions as dynamic systems in which multiple inputs are transformed into outputs through internal processes. Within this framework, institutional factors function as *system-level inputs* (e.g., resources, governance structures), while programme factors represent *process variables* (e.g., teaching methods, curriculum delivery). Graduate outcomes are the *outputs* of this system. Systems Theory, therefore, clarifies that the relationship

between institutional factors and graduate outcomes is not merely direct but is also partially mediated through programme factors, as the effectiveness of institutional investments depends on how they are operationalised within training programmes.

Employability Theory (Hillage & Pollard, 1998; Yorke, 2006; Jackson, 2016) further specifies the nature of the dependent variable by framing graduate outcomes as multidimensional. Rather than limiting outcomes to employment status, the theory conceptualises employability as a composite of skills, adaptability, self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial orientation. In this study, employability theory informs the operationalisation of the *graduate outcomes construct*, which includes employability, job readiness, confidence, entrepreneurial capability, and career sustainability. This theoretical lens ensures that the study captures both immediate labour market entry and long-term career development capacities.

Stakeholder Theory (Freeman, 1984; Donaldson & Preston, 1995) introduces the role of external actors in shaping the effectiveness of TVET systems. Government agencies, industry partners, employers, and other stakeholders provide critical resources, policy direction, and labour market linkages. In this study, these contributions are conceptualised as *government and stakeholder support*, which functions as a moderating variable. Specifically, stakeholder support strengthens the relationship between (a) institutional factors and graduate outcomes and (b) programme factors and graduate outcomes by enhancing resource availability, improving policy alignment, and facilitating industry engagement. This implies that even well-designed institutional and programme structures may yield suboptimal outcomes in the absence of strong stakeholder involvement.

Drawing these perspectives together, the conceptual framework proposes three key relationships. First, institutional factors have a direct positive effect on graduate outcomes. Second, programme factors also directly influence graduate outcomes and serve as a pathway through which institutional factors exert their effects. Third, government and stakeholder support moderates these relationships, amplifying the impact of both institutional and programme factors on graduate outcomes. This integrated framework underscores that improved TVET outcomes are not the result of isolated interventions but emerge from the interaction between structural capacity, programme quality, and

external support systems. The conceptual framework has been illustrated in Figure 1.

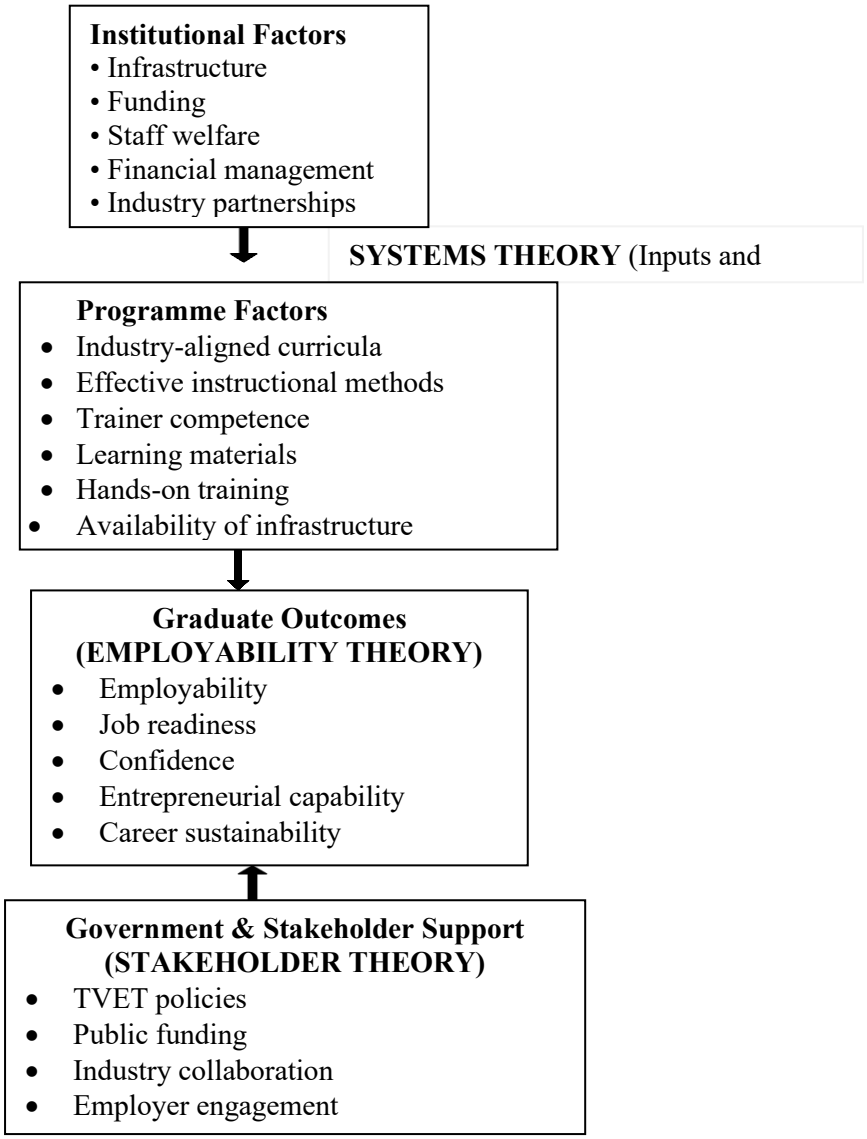



Figure 1: Impact of Institutional/Programme Factors and Government Support on Graduate Outcomes

## Method

The study adopted a correlational research design within the positivist paradigm, using a quantitative survey approach. The correlational design was considered appropriate because the study sought to examine the relationships among student, institutional, and programme factors and the outcomes of TVET graduates without manipulating the variables. The positivist philosophy guided the study through its emphasis on objective measurement, scientific inquiry, and statistical analysis of observable phenomena. Consistent with this philosophical orientation, quantitative data were collected through structured questionnaires and analysed statistically to generate reliable and generalisable findings on the TVET system in Ghana. The survey method was also considered suitable because it enabled efficient data collection from a relatively large population within a limited time and at a relatively low cost. In addition, the flexibility of both online and face-to-face administration improved accessibility and response rates.

The study population comprised TVET graduates, TVET teachers, and Ghana TVET Service personnel in the Greater Accra and Northern Regions of Ghana. The two regions were purposively selected because they represent contrasting socioeconomic conditions, thereby providing a broader perspective on Ghana's TVET system. The Ghana TVET Service is currently responsible for managing all secondary-level Technical and Vocational schools in Ghana. In this study, TVET schools encompass the vocational and technical institutes organised at the pre-tertiary level of education. The lists of graduates, teachers, and Ghana TVET Service personnel, which were obtained from the respective Ghana TVET Service Regional Offices in the two regions, served as the sampling frame for the study. At the time of the study, the accessible population consisted of 540 graduates whose locations were known to the TVET Service Officers, 160 teachers, and 70 Ghana TVET Service personnel.

The required sample size was determined using the Raosoft Online Sample Size Calculator. With a 95% confidence level, a 6.2% margin of error, and an estimated response distribution of 52%, the minimum sample size should be 250 respondents. Stratified sampling was first used to group participants into graduates, teachers, and Ghana TVET Service personnel to ensure proportional representation of each subgroup in the sample. To account for potential low response rates, the selected sample comprised 210 graduates, 63 teachers, and 33 Ghana

TVET Service personnel. Systematic sampling was employed within each stratum to select respondents from lists obtained from the Ghana TVET Service Regional Offices. This sampling procedure enhanced the representativeness and generalisability of the findings by ensuring that all relevant participant categories were adequately represented in the study. The average response rate was 77%, compared with the estimated 52%. Table 1 presents a breakdown of each population stratum and the selected samples.

**Table 1: Breakdown of Accessible Population, Samples and Response Rates**

| Group | Accessible Population | Sampled | Percentage Sampled | Those who Responded |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Teachers | 160 | 63 | 39 | 51 (81%) |
| TVET Officials | 70 | 33 | 47 | 24 (70%) |
| Graduates | 540 | 210 | 39 | 170 (81%) |

This study used two main methods for collecting primary data. In other words, the primary data were collected via online and in-person methods to maximise response rates and accessibility (Stern et al., 2014). The online mode provided a convenient and efficient way to gather responses from participants, enabling broader geographical coverage and increased participation. The in-person mode supported those who could not use the online survey. They complemented the efforts to achieve a high response rate, especially for those with limited internet access or who preferred in-person contact. The dual-mode strategy ensured the study captured a wide range of perspectives, thereby enhancing the richness and reliability of the collected data.

Several ethical considerations were observed throughout the study to ensure the integrity of the research process and enhance the credibility of the findings. Prior to data collection, the research proposal was reviewed by senior university faculty members, who provided expert guidance on potential ethical issues and appropriate safeguards. Their feedback informed the refinement of the study procedures and strengthened adherence to accepted ethical standards. Furthermore, informed consent was obtained from all participants, and measures were implemented to ensure their privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality throughout the research process.

Although several validated and standardised instruments exist for assessing factors associated with successful educational programmes, the present study required items that specifically measured graduate employability and TVET delivery outcomes. Consequently, items were identified and adapted from the UNESCO-UNEVOC TVET Toolkits and the Graduate Employability Instrument (GEI) following a thorough review of their relevance to the constructs specified in the study's theoretical framework. Additionally, the researchers developed several items to assess Government and Stakeholder Support, as this construct was not adequately represented in existing instruments. In total, the questionnaire measured five variables each under the Institutional Factors, Programme Factors, and Employability Factors constructs, and four variables under the Government and Stakeholder Support construct. The questionnaire had 5 sections. In the biodata section, respondents provided their answers by filling in the blanks. However, in the other four sections, respondents had to select a point corresponding to their choice on five-point Likert scales.

The study also conducted reliability and validity checks. The results have been presented in Table 2. The reliability tests based on Cronbach's Alpha and Dijkstra-Henseler's rhoA indicate that all constructs in this study have strong internal consistency, with values exceeding the minimum acceptance threshold of 0.7 (Carmines & Zeller, 2013).

**Table 2: Reliability and Validity Analysis**

| Construct | Cronbach's Alpha | rho_A | Composite Reliability | Average Variance Extracted (AVE) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Government Support and Stakeholders Support | 0.891 | 0.940 | 0.920 | 0.743 |
| Graduate Outcomes | 0.919 | 0.921 | 0.937 | 0.713 |
| Institutional Factors | 0.929 | 0.947 | 0.941 | 0.696 |
| Programme factors | 0.945 | 0.962 | 0.951 | 0.619 |

Further, the composite reliability, with a minimum acceptable threshold of 0.7, was also met for all variables considered (Chua, 2023). In terms of validity, the study also relied on the Average Variance

Explained (AVE), with values running between 0.619 to 0.743. The validity was deemed acceptable because the AVEs exceeded the minimum threshold of 0.5 (Chua, 2023). Validity results show that all the constructs accounted for more than 50% of the variance in their indicators.

**Assessment of the Structural Model**

The coefficient of determination ($R^2$) was used to assess the explanatory power of the structural model. $R^2$ indicates the proportion of variance in an endogenous construct that is explained by its predictor variables. According to Hair et al. (2022), $R^2$ values of 0.25, 0.50, and 0.75 may be interpreted as weak, moderate, and substantial, respectively. As shown in Table 3, the model yielded an $R^2$ of 0.631 and an adjusted $R^2$ of 0.623 for Graduate Outcomes. This indicates that the predictor variables accounted for 63.1% of the variation in Graduate Outcomes. The small difference between the two values suggests that the model's explanatory power remained relatively stable after adjustment.

**Table 3: Coefficient of determination ($R^2$)**

| | $R^2$ | $R^2$**Adjusted** |
|---|---|---|
| Graduate Outcomes | 0.631 | 0.623 |

Cohen's (1988) guidelines stipulate that $f^2$ values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 represent small, medium, and large effects, respectively. The results of this study showed that Government Support and Stakeholder Support ($f^2 = 0.158$) and the interaction between Institutional Factors and Government Support and Stakeholder Support ($f^2 = 0.156$) exerted moderate effects on Graduate Outcomes. Institutional Factors ($f^2 = 0.097$), Program Factors ($f^2 = 0.094$), and the interaction between Program Factors and Government Support and Stakeholder Support ($f^2 = 0.141$) exhibited small effects. Table 4 provides a bird’s-eye view of the effect sizes. These results suggest that overall, Government Support and Stakeholder Support contribute to Graduate Outcomes both directly and through their interaction with Institutional Factors, while Institutional Factors and Program Factors contribute to a lesser extent.

**Table 4: An assessment of the relative contribution of each construct**

| f Square | Graduate Outcomes |
|---|---|
| Government Support and Stakeholders Support | 0.158 |
| Institutional Factors | 0.097 |
| Institutional Factors X Government Support and Stakeholders Support | 0.156 |
| Program Factors X Government Support and Stakeholders Support | 0.141 |
| Program Factors | 0.094 |

The model's predictive relevance was evaluated using Stone–Geisser's $Q^2$ statistic obtained via the blindfolding procedure. A $Q^2$ value of 0.26 indicated that the model has a medium predictive relevance for a particular endogenous construct. The $Q^2$ value of 0.640 for Graduate Outcomes demonstrates that the model possesses adequate predictive capability and can accurately predict observations not used in model estimation. This finding suggests that the proposed framework has practical utility in explaining and forecasting TVET graduate outcomes.

Discriminant validity was further assessed using the Heterotrait–Monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT), which is considered a more rigorous criterion than traditional approaches such as the Fornell–Larcker criterion. According to Henseler et al. (2015), HTMT values below 0.85 (or, more conservatively, 0.90) indicate adequate discriminant validity. The HTMT values ranged from 0.666 to 0.792 as shown in Table 5. Since all values were below the recommended threshold of 0.85, the results indicate adequate discriminant validity among the constructs. This suggests that Government Support and Stakeholder Support, Institutional Factors, Program Factors, and Graduate Outcomes represent conceptually distinct constructs.

**Table 5:** The Heterotrait–Monotrait Ratio of the Correlations

| Constructs | Government Support and Stakeholders Support | Graduate Outcomes | Institutional Factors | Program Factors |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Government Support and Stakeholders Support | | | | |
| Graduate Outcomes | 0.784 | | | |
| Institutional Factors | 0.713 | 0.710 | | |
| Program Factors | 0.792 | 0.666 | 0.729 | |

The Fornell-Larcker Criterion results in Table 6 also confirm discriminant validity, as the square root of each construct's AVE is greater than its inter-construct correlations. Based on the reliability and validity results, all constructs (Government Support and Stakeholder Support, Graduate Outcomes, Institutional Factors, and Programme factors) were reliable and consistent.

**Table 6: Discriminant Validity Results**

| Fornell-Larcker Criterion | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Government Support and Stakeholder Support | **0.862** | | | |
| 2. Graduate Outcomes | 0.770 | **0.844** | | |
| 3. Institutional Factors | 0.871 | 0.725 | **0.834** | |
| 4. Programme factors | 0.930 | 0.712 | 0.757 | **0.787** |

Figure 2 presents the results obtained from the path analysis. It visually displays the SEM model's coefficients and their corresponding reliability scores, thereby justifying its reliability and validity.

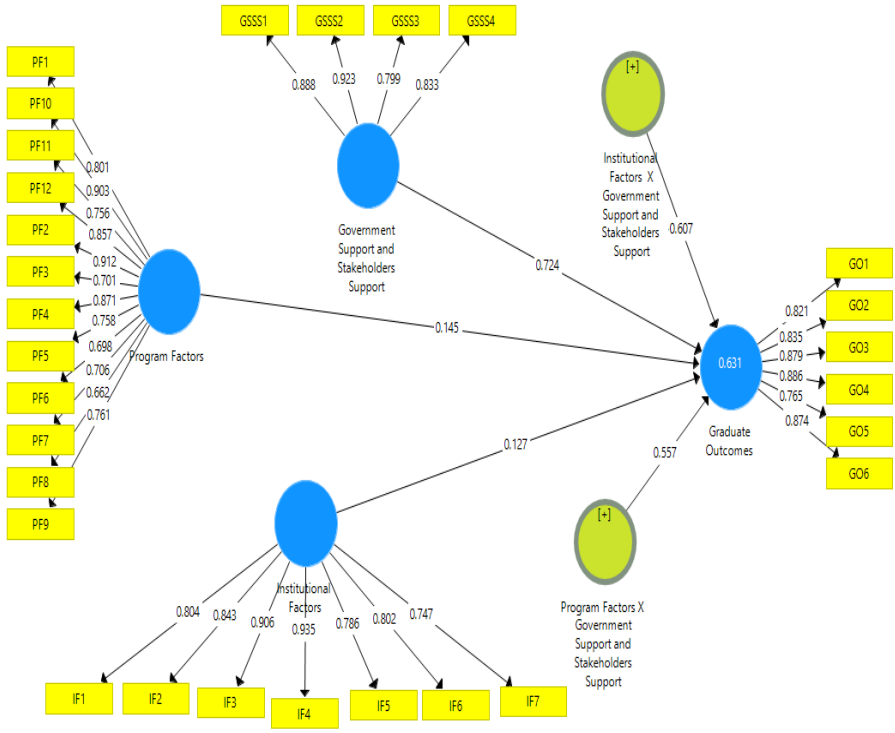



Figure 2: Path Results

**Profile Analysis of Respondents**

Of the 250 respondents, 68% were TVET graduates, approximately 20% were TVET teachers, and approximately 10% were Ghana TVET Service staff affiliated with the TVET program. Their ages ranged from 15 to 60. The rest of the respondents' profile is shown in Table 7.

**Table 7: Profile Analysis of the Respondents**

| Variable | Level | Number of Respondents | Percent (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Role within the TVET programme | TVET Teachers | 51 | 20.4 |
| | TVET Graduates | 170 | 68.0 |
| | Ghana TVET Service Staff | 24 | 9.6 |
| Age | 15 to 25 | 72 | 28.8 |
| | 26 to 35 | 21 | 8.4 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 36 to 45 | 94 | 37.6 |
| | 46 to 60 | 63 | 25.2 |
| Gender | Male | 187 | 74.8 |
| | Female | 63 | 25.2 |
| Highest educational qualification | Certificate | 30 | 12 |
| | Diploma | 126 | 50.4 |
| | Bachelor's Degree | 52 | 20.8 |
| | Master's Degree | 42 | 16.8 |
| Years of been involved in education or related fields | Less than 1 year | 42 | 16.8 |
| | 1-3 years | 30 | 12 |
| | 4-6 years | 31 | 12.4 |
| | 7-10 years | 42 | 16.8 |
| | More than 10 years | 105 | 42 |
| Geographical location | Urban | 208 | 83.2 |
| | Rural | 42 | 16.8 |
| Years of being associated with the TVET program | Less than 6 months | 42 | 16.8 |
| | 6 months - 1 year | 72 | 28.8 |
| | 1-2 years | 136 | 54.4 |
| | More than 2 years | 0 | 0 |
| Have pursued any professional development courses related to TVET | Yes | 177 | 70.8 |
| | No | 73 | 29.2 |
| Primary reason for engaging with the TVET program | Career advancement | 42 | 16.8 |
| | Skill development | 135 | 54 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Interest in education | 73 | 29.2 |
| Sufficient access to the resources required for effective participation in TVET | Yes | 0 | 0 |
| | No | 94 | 37.6 |
| | Partially | 156 | 62.4 |

**Results**

Table 8 presents the results obtained from the Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). The table presents the path coefficients and related statistical indicators for the various factors and graduate outcomes shown in Figure 2.

**Table 8: PLS-SEM results**

| Path | Original Sample (O) | Sample Mean (M) | SD | T Statistics (\|O/STDEV\|) | P Values |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Government Support and Stakeholders Support -> Graduate Outcomes | 0.724 | 0.721 | 0.155 | 4.676 | 0.000 |
| Institutional Factors -> Graduate Outcomes | 0.127 | 0.121 | 0.054 | 2.340 | 0.020 |
| Programme factors -> Graduate Outcomes | 0.145 | 0.158 | 0.166 | 0.869 | 0.385 |
| Institutional Factors X Government Support and Stakeholders Support -> Graduate Outcomes | 0.607 | 0.620 | 0.159 | 3.823 | 0.000 |
| Programme factors X Government Support and Stakeholders Support -> Graduate Outcomes | 0.557 | 0.570 | 0.212 | 2.628 | 0.009 |

From Table 8, a unit change in institutional factors like (adequate infrastructure, well-trained TVET instructors, adequate funding, transparent, effective financial management and strong partnerships with stakeholders and industry) had positive association with Graduate Outcomes (how graduates quickly secure employment, well prepared towards job market, feel confident in their abilities, receive support for entrepreneurship and exhibit strong entrepreneurial capabilities) by 0.127 units. In other words (B = 0.127, t-value = 2.340, p-value < 0.05). The relationship between institutional factors and graduate outcome is significantly positive at 5% level of significance.

Similarly, a unit change in programme factors like (industry alignment and well-structured curriculum, effective instructional methods, knowledgeable trainers, comprehensive and up-to-date training materials, adaptable teaching methods and styles and proper resources for hands-on learning experiences is positively associated with graduate outcomes by 0.145. The results, as presented in Table 8, revealed a positive but not statistically significant relationship.

Findings from Table 8 reveales that a unit change in government and stakeholders' support in terms of (adequate funds for TVET programmes, effective positive policies, and key stakeholders' support) increases the chances of graduate outcomes by 0.724. This is justified by (B=0.724, t-value =4.676, p-value <0.05).

In terms of the moderation analysis, Government Support and Stakeholder Support moderate the relationship between Institutional Factors and Graduate Outcomes positively by 0.607. Similarly, Government Support and Stakeholders Support also moderate the relationship between programme factors and graduate outcomes by a unit change of 0.557.

**Discussion and Policy Implications of Findings**

The findings of this study are largely consistent with previous research in the TVET literature both in the Ghanaian and global contexts. The significant positive influence of institutional factors on graduate outcomes supports earlier studies that identified adequate infrastructure, funding, competent instructors, and strong industry linkages as critical determinants of employability and workforce readiness among TVET graduates (Kissi et al., 2020; Mack & White, 2019; UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013). Similarly, the strong contribution of government and stakeholder support aligns with the stakeholder

perspective advanced by McGrath and Yamada (2023) and Habiyaremye et al. (2022), who argued that effective policy frameworks, public investment, and industry engagement enhance the relevance and effectiveness of vocational training systems.

However, the finding that programme factors exhibited a positive but statistically insignificant relationship with graduate outcomes contrasts with studies that have reported significant effects of curriculum relevance and instructional quality on employability outcomes (Paryono, 2017; Shi & Bangpan, 2022). This discrepancy may reflect persistent implementation challenges within the Ghanaian TVET system, including limitations in training resources, practical exposure opportunities, and curriculum responsiveness to labour market needs. Overall, the findings reinforce the growing consensus that improving graduate outcomes requires not only well-designed programmes but also strong institutional capacity and sustained support from government and industry stakeholders.

The findings indicate that institutional factors, including adequate infrastructure, well-trained TVET instructors, sufficient funding, transparent governance, effective financial management, and robust partnerships with industry stakeholders, positively influence graduate outcomes. These outcomes include enhanced employment opportunities, job-market readiness, increased self-efficacy, entrepreneurial support, and the development of strong entrepreneurial capabilities (Psacharopoulos & Patrinos, 2018; UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013; Smith & Kemmis, 2014). However, despite the acknowledged potential of these institutional determinants to foster favourable graduate outcomes, significant areas for improvement remain. Targeted interventions to strengthen financial management practices, ensure sustainable funding, upgrade infrastructure, and cultivate strategic stakeholder collaborations are critical. Such enhancements are essential for advancing graduates' employability and confidence, thereby contributing to more successful transitions into the labour market (OECD, 2017; World Bank, 2020).

The findings also suggest that programme factors, including instructional methods and curriculum alignment, had a positive impact on graduate outcomes, though the effect was not statistically significant. This implies that the current structure of the TVET programme, in terms of its programme factors, does not align with efforts to improve graduate outcomes in employability and to meet the

demands of the job market. In other words, further interventions are needed towards programme factors, such as instructional methods and curriculum structure. In addition, further improvement is needed in ongoing evaluation and refinement to ensure that training programmes meet the evolving demands of the job market.

Moreover, the findings suggest that government and stakeholders should strengthen the contributions of institutional and programme factors towards graduate outcomes. Findings further suggest that boosting government and stakeholders' support will help address implementation gaps in the TVET programme by amplifying the effects of institutional and programme-related improvements on graduate outcomes. Based on the study's findings, policymakers can strengthen institutional infrastructure and programme curricula. In addition, boosting instructors' morale, among other factors, can be helpful. By creating a more supportive ecosystem, stakeholders can enhance the programme's effectiveness by targeting employment opportunities for graduates.

**Conclusions and Policy Implications**

This study found that institutional factors and government and stakeholder support significantly influence TVET graduate outcomes in Ghana, while programme factors exhibited a positive but statistically insignificant effect. The findings suggest that improving graduate employability, job readiness, entrepreneurial capability, confidence, and career sustainability requires greater attention to the institutional environment within which TVET is delivered. Accordingly, policymakers should prioritise investments in modern training facilities, industry-standard equipment, instructor development, and transparent institutional management systems. The Commission for TVET and the Ghana TVET Service should also establish and enforce quality assurance standards relating to infrastructure, staffing, funding, and industry partnerships to ensure consistency in training quality across institutions.

The positive but insignificant influence of programme factors suggests that existing curricula and instructional approaches may not adequately respond to evolving labour market demands. Consequently, curriculum development should be guided by systematic labour market intelligence and stronger collaboration with employers, professional bodies, and industry representatives. Greater emphasis should be placed

on competency-based training, digital skills development, entrepreneurship education, apprenticeships, and work-based learning opportunities. Regular graduate tracer studies should also be institutionalised to assess the relevance of TVET programmes and provide evidence for continuous curriculum review and improvement.

The study further revealed that government and stakeholder support not only directly improves graduate outcomes but also strengthens the effects of institutional and programme factors. This finding underscores the importance of a coordinated TVET governance framework involving government agencies, industry partners, employers, development partners, and training institutions. Policies should therefore encourage public-private partnerships, industry-sponsored training initiatives, internship and industrial attachment programmes, entrepreneurship incubation centres, and graduate recruitment schemes. Beyond measuring enrolment and completion rates, policymakers should adopt outcome-based performance indicators such as graduate employment rates, entrepreneurial success, employer satisfaction, and career progression to ensure that TVET investments translate into meaningful labour market and national development outcomes.

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# J.A. Kufuor's Educational Intervention in Ghana, 2001-2009: A Historical Analysis

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## Abstract

This study critically examined how Ghana's education fared under John Agyekum Kufour (JAK), the second President of the Fourth Republic of Ghana. The study traced his introduction of the 2007 Education Reform and how it took Ghana's education to the highest level possible. The study adopted the appropriate historical and methodological approaches as its research design. It employed the qualitative method and used primary sources like archival data, committee reports, white papers, interviews and scholarly secondary works such as books and journal articles to examine education in Ghana under JAK from 2001 to 2009. An interview guide was used to collect the primary data, especially information from interviewees. Twelve persons were interviewed either based on their knowledge of JAK's education or were beneficiaries of his education. The study points out that JAK's educational intervention was not only directed towards poverty alleviation in Ghana but also, it set out to align the country's education with that of the global village.

**Key words**: Education, Decolonisation, Historical, Review, Alleviation, J.A. Kufuor, 2007 Education Reform, Basic Education in Ghana.

## Background to the Study

Prior to his accession to the highly revered office of President of Ghana, J.A. Kufour, herein referred to as JAK, had contested on the ticket of the New Patriotic Party (NPP) as a flagbearer in 1996 but lost to J.J. Rawlings of the National Democratic Congress (NDC). However, he won the 2000 elections and was sworn in as president in 2001. Having assumed the reins of leadership as 2nd President of the Fourth Republic, JAK set out to transform the economy of Ghana and, in doing so, education became one of his priority areas. He was convinced that education holds the key to poverty alleviation and

wealth creation as the products would acquire the requisite employable skills to enable the citizenry to work to improve their livelihood. This was, indeed, in line with Flt. Lt. J.J. Rawlings' JSS and SSS concepts, which set out to build a school system that not only reflected the Ghanaian realities but also, made each formally educated child more productive. (Boakye, 2020). It also resonates with Kojo Botsio's assertion that "Education is the keystone of people's life and happiness" (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975).

This study, is thus premised on the Modernisation Theory as the post-independence leaders of Ghana, especially JAK set out to transform all facets of the country for socio-economic emancipation. Indeed, this was largely part of JAK's effort to use education as a means to alleviate poverty and, thereby create a modern state of Ghana in the 21st century. With its roots in the ideologies from Karl Marx, Emile Durkheim, Max Weber, etc, the Modernisation Theory is seen as universal goal and therefore all nations should strive to attain it. Hence, it is in line with this theory that JAK's educational intervention in Ghana from 2001 to 2008 is analysed.

Although there is extant literature on the subject under study, such works did not particularly explore education in Ghana during the period of JAK. While Oduro Mensah (2012) sees education as an invaluable tool for the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, Maison (2010) calls for re-invention of African Universities through indigenous knowledge systems, Yankah (2006) sees education as having the key to success and development in Ghana, Ziorklui (2004) and Gocking (2005) looks at the political history of Ghana and Amamoo discusses Ghana after 50 Years of Independence. Central arguments of such works clearly show that they did not delve into education in Ghana during JAK's regime. Again, these works did not discuss the 2007 Education Reforms and their impact on Ghana's education since these issues were not the focus of the authors.

Takyiwaa, Gariba, & Budu (2007), in their work, titled, *Change and Transformation in Ghana's Publicly Funded Universities* were of the view that accelerated economic growth and drastic social change necessitated the setting up of higher educational institutions in the postcolonial period of Ghana. These institutions, in their view, set out to produce graduates in the fields of science and technology. Despite the fact that the authors suggested strategies for scaling up best practices intended to bring educational transformation in Ghana's

higher institutions, they did not discuss how JAK reformed higher education in Ghana as that was not their focus.

Hayford (2008), in his *Kufuor and the Distinct Ghana* extensively discussed Ghana under JAK. However, Hayford did not pay much attention to the 2007 Education Reforms in the areas of kindergarten, basic, secondary, technical, teacher training, polytechnic and university education. Mahama (2009), although demonstrates a significant relationship between education and social change in the northern territories in chapter six of his work, did not discuss the education intervention of the 2nd president of the Fourth Republic of Ghana.

This paper thus set out to bridge the knowledge gap by offering a historical analysis of education in Ghana during the time of JAK. To achieve this, the paper focuses on issues such as JAK's vision on education prior to the 2000 general elections in Ghana, appointment and work of the Education Reform Review Committee, the 2007 Education Reforms and how it reshaped basic, secondary, teacher training, polytechnic and university education in Ghana.

The study employed the appropriate historical and methodological approaches as its research design and used the qualitative method of critical description, analysis and examination of data. It extensively based on archival data in the form of white paper reports, committee reports and recommendations, manifestos, constitution, dispatches and newspaper articles. Oral interviews were also used. In all, about ten persons were selected through the purposive and snowball sampling techniques and interviewed. These informants, namely Richard Asare Akoto and Jacob Okyere, were interviewed based on their in-depth knowledge of education in Ghana during the period under study. Richard Asare Akoto, for instance, was a headmaster during the period under review. Jacob Okyere was also Unit Committee Member and a Parent during the period of JAK's administration. He was therefore in a position to give an eye witness account of what he saw from 2001 to 2009. Other informants were either teachers, pupils or students at the various levels of education such as KG, basic, technical, secondary, teacher training, polytechnic and university. Such informants were interviewed based on what they experienced and witnessed in school during JAK's administration.

Again, major secondary works such as books and journal articles in the field of the educational history of Ghana, especially those

that dealt with the time of JAK were reviewed for the study. Such works really helped in understanding the views, conversations, debates and conclusions of other scholars in the field of study. In this study, attempts, will first be made to trace the vision of JAK before the 2000 elections.

**Vision of JAK before to the 2000 Elections**

The NPP won power in the 2000 elections conducted in Ghana and this brought JAK to the political scene as the 2nd president of the Fourth Republic (Okyere, 22) In Baffour Agyeman-Duah's estimation, the NPP had a long-standing Danquah/Busia tradition (Baffour Agyeman-Duah, 2008). Its message for the people of Ghana focused largely on property-owning democracy and this resonated very well with Ghanaians. This, in his view, made it possible for JAK to win the 2000 and 2004 elections and became president for two terms of office (Baffour Agyeman-Duah, 2008; NPP Manifesto, 2000)

Prior to the victory of the NPP in the 2000 elections, the party set out its vision, which was intended to transform Ghana. In its Manifesto 2000, JAK and the NPP attempted to pursue an agenda for positive change in Ghana with a view of building prosperity for all (NPP Manifesto, 2000). It thus, envisioned ''a change that will be reflected in a lowering of the intolerable high cost of living and a reduction in the depressingly high rate of unemployment, a change that will bring jobs and a living wage for the majority of our people" (NPP Manifesto, 2000: iv).

To this end, the NPP set out to sustain economic growth, provide equal opportunity for all, commit to law and order and above all, provide a healthy, disciplined, enlightened and caring society (NPP Manifesto, 2000: iv). To develop the people to develop Ghana, the party set out to first of all, ensure that the education system in schools and universities would prepare the youth effectively to enter the work force. Secondly, the people would be well-trained and well-equipped with the requisite skills for socio-economic and political transformation (NPP Manifesto, 2000: 26).

It was towards the realization of these visions that JAK reformed education in Ghana to reflect the aspirations of Ghanaians and to meet current demands in the job industry (Okyere, 22). Actually, he wanted the education system in Ghana to raise the living standards of the people to high levels. Its products were expected to respond largely

''to national development goal of poverty alleviation and wealth creation" (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education in Ghana, 2002: xx; White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 10). He thus, wanted the education system designed to enable products ''become enterprising, and adaptable to the demands of a fast-changing world driven by modern science and technology" (White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 9-10). This vision of JAK resonates with that of Flt. Lt. J.J. Rawlings' JSS and SSS concepts which set out to equip products with scientific and technological skills for rural industrialisation (Boakye, 2020).

Be that as it may, JAK wanted to achieve his ultimate vision of letting the youth, especially, those between the ages of 12 and 19 assist Ghana to aspire in its efforts to build a knowledge-based economy within the next generation (White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 10). Hence, the national developmental goals of JAK in the 21st century were to:

1. Promote social justice and equity by ensuring universal basic education and equal educational opportunities for all Ghanaians;
2. Provide individuals with knowledge, occupational skills and attitudes for national development with a sense of dignity for labour and for preserving the nation's environmental resources;
3. Promote the culture of lifelong learning for all citizens who will continue to develop their intellectual capacities, technical skills and their abilities, to enable them to cope with technological and other changes in the global world;
4. Promote the spirit of self-reliance that will enable individuals to be responsible for their well-being as well as that of the community;
5. Develop in the individual the ability to create, innovate, think critically and be independent-minded;
6. Strengthen national consciousness and cultivate attitudes of good citizenship and patriotism, and through that, help preserve the nation's cultural heritage by promoting national languages and desirable traditions and values;
7. Develop attitudes conducive to harmonious relations among different ethnic groups and the international

> community (White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 14-15).

The first of these national developmental goals of JAK appears to be a continuity of Kwame Nkrumah's education for bringing equality, solidarity and fraternity towards nation building in Ghana and hence, his introduction of the Accelerated Development Plan for Education, which provided every child of school-going age in the country access to education even at the initial stages of self-government in 1951 (Second Development Plan 1959-64). It can, thus, be argued that JAK was influenced by Kwame Nkrumah's ideas in his educational interventions in Ghana, especially the need to provide access to basic education for all children of school-going age.

Whatever be the case, the aforesaid national developmental goals of JAK made it possible for him to adopt, what is termed in this paper, as "the politics of holistic approach" to education in Ghana. This approach implied that the education system should create avenues for the development of the full potential of the individual to contribute meaningfully in all aspects of society's development.

As a result, in its Manifesto 2000, JAK wanted Ghana's education to:

1. provide access to basic education for all Ghanaian children, and to higher levels of education for all capable of benefiting from it.
2. Raise the quality of teaching and learning in our schools, colleges, institutes, universities and polytechnics; and ensuring that quality education and training are available to all citizens, rich or poor, wherever they live, especially, in the historically disadvantaged areas such as the Northern, Upper West and Upper East Regions.
3. Extend basic computer literacy to pupils before they graduate from secondary level education. (NPP Manifesto, 2000: 27)

To achieve this, JAK resolved to have a comprehensive view about the education system in Ghana as part of efforts to reform it. He thus, appointed a Committee to review the previous education reforms in Ghana. It must be said that this is not the first of its kind in Ghana. Colonial and postcolonial actors or leaders set up committees and commissions to advise them on education. Sir Gordon Guggisberg, for example, set up about two committees and one commission namely the

Educationists Committee of 1920, the Phelps-Stokes Commission of 1920 and the Advisory Committee on Native Education in Tropical African Dependencies in 1923; Kwame Nkrumah set up the Erzuah Committee of 1951; NLC government established the Education Review Committee of 1966, the NRC set up the Dzobo Committee of 1973 and Flt. Lt. J.J. Rawlings established the University Rationalisation Committee of 1986, among others.

With insights from the work of the previous committees before his regime, JAK's Committee was inaugurated on 17th January, 2002. (White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 5). It was chaired by Professor Jophus Anamuah-Mensah. Other member were Mr. Paul Effah (Secretary), Hon. James Adusei Sarkodie, Rev. MSGR Hilary Y. M. Senoo, Professor Henrietta J.A.N. Mensa-Bonsu, Professor Kofi Awusabo Asare, Dr. Clement Somuah, Hon. Kosi Kedem, Professor Daniel Afedzi Akyeampong, Professor Frank Obed Kwami, Mr. Kwabina Quansah, Dr. (Mrs) Sylvia A. M. Boye, Rev. Emmanuel Apea, Mr. Edward Bawa, Mr. Alfred Kofi Appiah, Mrs. Beatrice Addo, Rev. Dr. Robert Aboagye-Mensah, Mrs. Marie Alice Agyeman, Mr. Emmanuel K. Agyeman, Mr. Emmanuel Aquaye, Ms. Dinah Dadzie, Alhaji Rahim Gbadamosi, Mr. Seji Saji, Mr. Cletus Joseph Kosiba, Mr. Lucas Kodzoga Alagbo, Mr. Joe A. K. Frempong, Dr. James Flolu, Ms. Lydia Osei, Mr. Gerald Annan-Forson and Professor Robert Addo-Fening. (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education in Ghana, 2002: ii)

The desire to have education reflect significantly in modern societies explains how professionals of great repute were appointed as members of the Committee. They were 29-members of high intellectual standing many of whom were educationists, professors and stakeholders in the field of education. (White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 5). They were required through their work to advise JAK through recommendations about how to reform the education system in Ghana to make it responsive to the challenges in the 21st century (Akoto, 22)

The Committee was tasked to review the ''goals and philosophy of the present educational system, the principles which should guide curricular design, pre-school/basic education, secondary/technical/vocational education, and teacher education, tertiary education as well as management and financing of education'' (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education in

Ghana, 2002: xx). They were expected to review other issues such as private sector participation in education, information and communication technology (ICT), special education, guidance and counselling, distance education, and library and information services (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education in Ghana, 2002: xx).

The Committee began its work by scrutinizing all previous education committees' reports and documents and white papers issued for education in Ghana. It also contacted many people through press briefings, oral presentations, visits to institutions, phone-in-radio programmes. Again, the Committee embarked on district and regional tours of the whole country (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education in Ghana, 2002: 9)

In the course of its work, the Committee identified the defects of the existing structure of education system in Ghana. It found that the 1987 Education Reforms excluded pre-school education. It also over-emphasised general type of education and neglected technical, vocational and the informal sector of Ghana (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education in Ghana, 2002: xxi; White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 11-12).

Again, it found that the 1987 Education Reforms did not strengthen the basic skills of numeracy and literacy acquisition in the youth. Learners of average ability therefore, could not acquire sufficient grounding in basic numeracy, literacy and social skills (White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 12). It also observed that the fundamental weakness of the 1987 basic educational system in Ghana was that too many subjects were poorly taught at the Primary and JSS levels. This was largely attributed to shortage of qualified teachers and materials (White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 12)

Statistically, White Paper report of the Ministry of Education noted that the survival rate from Primary grade 1 to Primary grade 6 was 79. 9% for boys and 78. 9% for girls (White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 12) The Committee also found the situation quite disastrous, especially, with the transition of pupils from Junior Secondary School (JSS) grade to Senior Secondary School (SSS) 1 grade. It noted that only 40% of JSS graduates managed to gain admission into SSS (White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 12)

With these challenges identified, the Education Reform Review Committee carried out its tasks as mandated by the state and submitted its report in September, 2002 with their recommendations and suggestions. Much of the recommendations were incorporated into the 2007 Education Reforms in Ghana. Suffice at this juncture to provide an overview of the recommendations of the Education Review Committee for emphasis. First of all, it suggested a new structure and content for education in Ghana. The new basic education structure comprised 2 years kindergarten, 6 years primary, and 3 years junior secondary school. This, made basic education 11 years instead of the existing 9 years of the PNDC era. Indeed, the 1987 Education Reforms of Flt. Lt. J.J. Rawlings of the PNDC reduced the duration of pre-university education from 17 to 12 years making it more cost effective (Boakye, 2020). However, with the addition of kindergarten education to the public system, JAK from 2007 significantly increased both the duration and cost of education in Ghana (Akoto, 22).

Basic education was followed by 3 years senior secondary leading to post-secondary and tertiary education; a parallel technical/vocational education which would lead to polytechnics and the world of work; Apprenticeship, which would lead to the world of work; and a 3-4 years of tertiary education in Ghana (White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 12).

Again, the Education Review Committee recommended the creation of Open Community Colleges (O.C.C) and an Open University (O.U.) which would make it possible for work-study programmes and life-long education in Ghana (White Paper on the Report of Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 12). In addition, the Education Review Committee suggested an upgrade of specialised institutions (post-secondary institutions which were not considered tertiary under the 1987 education reforms) to diploma awarding institutions and be affiliated to relevant polytechnics and universities. Apart from the foregoing, it suggested that other critical components of education like ICT, distance education, credit transfer, special education and guidance and counselling were to be given special attention in the country.

Almost all the recommendations of the Education Review Committee, with regards to the objectives of education at all the levels of education, medium of instruction, hours of contact, access and participation, duration, continuous assessment, staffing, funding, quality and relevance, management and governance, post-graduate

training and research were adopted by JAK. These significantly featured in the 2007 Education Reforms in Ghana (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 14-52). It is now time to reappraise the 2007 Education Reforms in Ghana.

**The 2007 Education Reforms in Ghana**

The Committee submitted its report to JAK in September 2002. However, it was not until 2007 that the new education reform was introduced. The new education reform programme, in the estimation of Professor Dominic Fobih, the then Minister for Education, Science and Sports was expected to cost more than Twelve Point One Hundred and Sixty Billion Ghana Cedis (Nyarko Hammond, 2007). This would involve, for the next eight years, funds for the provision of infrastructure, textbooks, curriculum development, equipment and management of education (Nyarko Hammond, 2007).

By September 2007, preparations were far advanced in infrastructural expansion, especially, in the field of kindergarten. There were 11, 228 classroom blocks for kindergarten that had been constructed while about 6, 046 of them were earmarked for rehabilitation (Nyarko Hammond, 2007: 1). District Directors and the District Assemblies were asked to collaborate and establish kindergarten. They, thus, converted available community centres and church buildings into interim classroom blocks for about 3, 609 basic schools without Kindergarten (Kate Hudson and Emmanuel Bony: 2007).

This meant that JAK was poised to implement the 2007 education reforms even in the midst of infrastructural deficit. It must be said that he was not the first person to do this. Kwame Nkrumah, for example, after setting aside special two-year capital works grant totalling over £200, 000 for the erection of new classrooms, also made use of churches and of bamboo sheds to get over 132, 000 children enrolled in primary class 1 in 1952 (Annual Report of the Education Department for the Year 1953-54). Despite the foregoing discourse, JAK was convinced that, ‘‘implementation is a process that will be continually refined and assessed, and re-assessed to address challenges, such as teacher provision, infrastructure, curriculum, textbooks and conditions of service for teachers’’ (Nyarko Hammond, 2007: 1). To borrow JAK’s own words, ‘‘the implementation, which is plotted in detail over a period of ten years, calls for sustained realistic budgeting

by the government to provide logical support, including fair incentives for teachers and also continued review at all levels of the educational system'' (Kate Hudson and Emmanuel Bony: 2007).

The 2007 Education Reform fully started in 2007/2008 academic year in Ghana. It was principally necessitated by JAK's ''response to the challenges of the present global era, as well as the country's vision and requirements for the 21st century'' (GNA Correspondent: 2007). As stated earlier, the 2007 Education Reform made universal basic education 11 years. It consisted of 2 years of KG education, six years of primary and three years of junior high school ((Nyarko Hammond, 2007: 4). The existing three years secondary school became a four-year senior high school ((Nyarko Hammond, 2007: 4). Technical, vocational and agricultural institutions were to offer 4-year courses and were required to the do core SHS subjects (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee: 2004).

Again, teacher education saw a facelift. Teacher training institutions were upgraded from Teacher's Cert "A" to Diploma awarding colleges. Conditions of teachers were improved especially with special incentives for teachers who would accept postings to teach in the rural areas. Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies were charged with the responsibility for the provision of infrastructure as well as monitoring and supervision of basic and senior high schools. A new National Inspectorate Board (NIB) was created and charged with periodic inspection of basic and secondary schools. This would ensure quality education delivery at such levels. Guidance and counselling, library and information as well as distance education were made part of educational services in Ghana. (Nyarko Hammond, 2007: 1). Much attention was placed on Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and Science Technology. Tertiary education was made 3-4 years in Ghana.

**Basic Education**

The 2007 Education Reform of JAK added Kindergarten (KG) to primary schools as part of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education Policy. (Kate Hudson and Emmanuel). It is worthy of note that the pioneers of kindergarten education in Ghana were the Roman Catholic missionaries but, it was operated on private basis. It was JAK

who made kindergarten education part of the public-school system in Ghana (Akoto, 2022).

The first day on which the KG pupils reported to school was observed as ‘‘My First Day at School.’’ This was meant to make school a happy place for the pupils and to ‘‘welcome the new entrants to the world of formal education on a happy note’’ (Nyarko Hammond, 2007: 1). During such events, the KG pupils, who were mostly at the age of four, were presented with assorted gifts such as toffees, biscuits, pencils, exercise books, plastic drinking cups embossed with Ghana @ 50, miniature flags and caps with the inscription ‘‘My First Day at School’’ (Nyarko Hammond, 2007). This is corroborated by Appiah (2025) that Ghana @ 50 Cups were shared to the learners during the 2007 Independence Day.

Kindergarten was made part of the basic school system to predispose children to conditions of formal schooling, inculcate in them the desire for learning and to create the opportunities for the entire development of children. (GNA Correspondent, 2007: 4). The principal aim of kindergarten education by JAK was to ensure that all primary school children in the country have a basic education that is rooted in good kindergarten training (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004:17). At the KG, lessons were learnt through play with emphasis on Numeracy and Creative Arts (Kate Hudson and Emmanuel Bonny, 2007: 17; Nyarko, 2025; Derrick, 2025). The main Ghanaian language of the geographical area and English, where necessary, were used as the medium of instruction at the kindergarten and even lower primary. (GNA Correspondent, 2007: 17).

It was not only KG education in Ghana that attracted JAK’s attention but also primary education. The principal objectives, at the primary level, were first of all, to consolidate the knowledge and skills which pupils acquired at the kindergarten level (Akoto, 2022; Okyere, 2022). Again, primary education was expected to build a solid foundation for the pupils to acquire the skills of inquiry, creativity and innovation. At this level too, children were also expected to obtain the skills of good citizenship essential for nation building (Okyere, 2022).

The focus on primary education was, thus, to help children obtain literacy, numeracy and problem-solving skills. (Okyere, 2022). This was confirmed by JAK himself when he pointed out that, ‘‘when schools resume tomorrow and the new syllabi with emphasis on literacy and numeracy put into operation, the nation expected that products of

the system would be better prepared to face the world when they finished school.'' (Emmanuel Bonny, 2007: 1) Whatever be the case, subjects studied at the Lower Primary were; English, Basic Mathematical Skills, Natural Science, and a Ghanaian Language. (Emmanuel Bonny, 2007: 1; Abbam Nyarko, 2025; Hadjor, 2025; Akomaning, 2025). To ensure that children were well-grounded in practical and creative activities, Music and Dance, Art and Craft, ICT and Physical Education were also taught at the primary level of education (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 18; Hadjor, 2025; Selorm, 2025).

The teaching of English and Ghanaian Languages focused on writing, reading, dictation and comprehension. Texts on Religious and Moral Education, Culture, Hygiene, Civics, Life Skills, Science and Agriculture were taught at the lower primary as part of reading, writing, dictation and comprehension (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002; Odoom, 2025). Subjects that were taught at the Upper Primary were English, Integrated Science, Basic Mathematical Skills, Citizenship Education and the major Ghanaian Language of the area. Music, Dance, Physical Education and Creative Arts were taught as practical subjects (GNA Correspondent, 2007: 17; Hadjor, 2025).

The Junior Secondary School (JSS) was rechristened Junior High School (JHS). It constituted a three-year post primary education (Abbam Nyarko, 2025). The JHS was intended to assist pupils discover their abilities, interests, aptitudes and potentials. It was required to reshape and, more significantly, properly equip pupils to move into a diversified system of senior high schools such as Technical, Vocational, Agricultural and General education. (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 19). JHS products were also expected to obtain scientific and technical knowledge and skills for further academic work and technical/vocational training. This focus, indeed, was not entirely different from that of the JSS under Flt. Lt. J.J. Rawlings that set out to ensure that learners acquire considerable knowledge in the areas of Mathematics and Science for technological breakthrough (Boakye, 2020). At the JHS level, children were taught Mathematics, English Language, Integrated Science involving Agricultural Science, Social Studies, a Ghanaian Language, Pre-Vocational, ICT and French (White Paper on the Report of the

Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 19; Abbam Nyarko, 2025).

In order to facilitate teaching and learning at the JHS level, well-qualified teachers for subjects such as Mathematics, Science, English and Creative Arts were supplied. Next, laboratories, workshops, libraries and teaching learning/materials were equipped with modern facilities. The JHS curriculum focused much attention on acquisition of skills such as literacy, numeracy, creative arts and problem-solving (GNA Correspondent, 2007: 17). These interventions were meant to enhance the transition from JHS to SHS. This way, it would make majority of the youth have a full course of secondary education prior to their entry into the world of work (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 20).

**Secondary Education in Ghana**

Students were required to have diversified streams at senior high school after JHS. This led to the introduction of parallel streams of secondary education. These were Senior High Schools (SHS), Technical Institutes, Vocational Institutes and Apprenticeship. Here, students were trained for the options of General, Technical, Business, Vocational and Agricultural Education. These enabled products from such institutions enter into a tertiary institution or the job market. Students were, thus, made to imbibe a ‘‘common content and flexibility for the recognition and development of individual aptitudes and the adaptability of its products to changing job opportunities and technological developments” (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 22; Okyere, 2022). The principal objective, which was in line with that of the JSS of Flt. Lt. J.J. Rawlings, was to train and equip majority of the JHS products to be able to ‘‘prosper in a global economy driven by knowledge, skill and technology.” (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 22; Akoto, 2022).

All SHS students were required to do core subjects such as English Language, Mathematics, Integrated Science, Social Studies and ICT. Again, it was mandatory for the SHS students to offer one of the following programmes; General Arts, General Science, Agriculture, Home Economics, Visual Arts, Technical, Vocational and Business. (GNA Correspondent, 2007: 17; Abbam Nyarko). French as a subject was introduced later due to insufficient teachers at the time. The priority

of the government was that places for post-JHS level ''should be made available on a universal basis to all Ghanaian youth, and that the SHS system should be organized both as terminal education for entry into the world of work, and as a preparatory stage for entry into tertiary education'' (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 21). It had a four-year duration which was intended to fully prepare students to pursue University, Polytechnic, Vocational and Teacher Training at globally competitive standards (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 24).

Apprenticeship schemes were also instituted by the government in which students or beneficiaries obtained some assistance from the state. Apart from the foregoing discourse, government assumed full responsibility for the first year of the apprenticeship programme (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 26; Appiah, 2025). The curriculum was diversified to cater for different interests, abilities, aptitudes and skills of students to provide opportunity for them to pursue further education and training. Interestingly, the curriculum exposed students who would not wish to further their education at the higher level to various occupational skills. JAK, in particular, was disappointed about the way Technical/Vocational Education and Training had been neglected in Ghana at the time. By 2002, there were 474 public senior secondary schools in Ghana as against 23 technical and 29 vocational institutes (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002, p. xxx). The neglect of technical and vocational education and training was also evident in the budget allocation of government. It was, woefully inadequate. For instance, in the year 2002, the Ministry of Education budget allocation to Technical/Vocational Education and Training was only 1 per cent of funds for the running of such institutions (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002, p. xxx).

It was to surmount these challenges that the 2007 Education Reforms of JAK focused much attention on technical and vocational training. The Technical, Vocational and Agricultural streams of the SHS were strengthened and made to do broad elective subjects like Building Trades, Business Studies, Electrical Engineering, Hospitality Trades, Mechanical Engineering and Agriculture. The government set out to develop the curricula of Technical and Vocational Institutes to

reflect the needs of children in Ghana. So, Technical/Vocational Education and Training were rehabilitated and upgraded to provide employable skills through formal and informal training at various levels of education (Okyere, 2022).

To this end, at the pre-tertiary level, Technical and Vocational Education became accessible at Technical Institutes, Vocational Institutes, Agricultural Institutes and Apprenticeship. Emphasis was placed on subjects such as English, Mathematics, Science and ICT to facilitate the development of students' competence and knowledge acquisition. The Government also made a major shift in the state education policy in favour of Technical and Vocational Training, in which these disciplines, were also offered as elective subjects in the SHS. (GNA Correspondent, 2007:17).

In order to co-ordinate, regulate and develop policies for Technical and Vocational Training, JAK's administration established the Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (C.T.V.E.T.) in Ghana. Graduates from Vocational and Technical Institutes, by the 2007 Education Reforms, were allowed to continue their education at the Polytechnics as part of effort to pursue higher studies. Furthermore, Competency-Based Training curriculum delivery methodology was adopted for Technical/Vocational Education and Training system. This system placed strong emphasis on the acquisition of practical skills by students for employment. (GNA Correspondent, 2007: 17).

As stated earlier, even though the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms suggested that secondary education should be made three years on the grounds that with the mainstreaming of kindergarten and the provision of one well-resourced SSS in each district, the quality of education would be enhanced through effective teaching and learning, and as a result, there was no need to increase the duration of secondary education to four years, JAK made the duration of SHS four (4) years in 2007. This sharply contrasted with that of the previous regime in which secondary education in the country remained three years.

Apart from the above discussions, teacher education also witnessed significant changes during the period under discussion. At this juncture, attempts will be made to look at how teacher education fared under JAK's regime.

**Teacher Education**

JAK and his government thought that the entire success of the 2007 Education Reforms in Ghana rest on effective and efficient training of teachers. Quality teachers, was thus, viewed as the pivot upon which the success of any education reform process rested (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 30). This explains why Guggisberg, for example, opened a register of teachers in which those who were not qualified were driven out of the teaching profession. JAK was of the view that, and to borrow the words, ''in implementing the reforms, a lot of attention was paid to the role and well-being of the teacher,'' saying that ''unless teachers at every stage of the educational system embraced the reforms, no amount of money spent on facilities would make the difference in achieving the nation's goals.'' (Emmanuel Bonny, 2007: 1). Thus, Teacher education, became one of the priority areas of John Agyekum Kufuor. It must be said that by 2002, there were some weaknesses in teacher education. These were its undefined standards for teacher development, inadequate avenues for the training of specialized Technical and Vocational teachers, inadequate public teacher training colleges, inadequate initial teacher preparation, lack of co-ordination among various agencies of teacher education such as the Ministry of Education, Teacher Education Division, Inspectorate Division, Curriculum Research and Development Division (C.R.D.D.), NGOs and Development Partners (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002: xxxv).

JAK made strides in his 2007 Education Reforms to address these challenges. The first thing that he did was the establishment of a National Teaching Council (N.T.C.) to co-ordinate and regulate the programmes of Teacher Education and Training in Ghana. Education-oriented universities were made directly responsible for the certification of teachers in Ghana. Basic school teachers, who were not trained, were offered the chance to attend remedial courses through Distance Education. This led to the establishment of Distance Learning Colleges at the University of Cape Coast and the University of Education, Winneba, to train and re-train teachers in Ghana. (GNA Correspondent, 2007: 17, White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 30-32).

Again, the competencies and skills of serving teachers were upgraded and updated through continuous development of teachers.

This was why JAK upgraded all public teacher training colleges into diploma-awarding institutions to ensure adequate preparation of teachers for effective teaching and learning at the basic schools. Also, the curriculum for training colleges was designed to place emphasis on English, Mathematics and Science. Other subjects were ICT, Creative Arts and Citizenship Education. Training programmes for kindergarten teachers were developed and became part of the curriculum in the Teacher Training Colleges. This was done to enhance the teaching and learning at the KGs in Ghana. Special consideration was also given to the training of teachers in the areas of Technical, Vocational, Agricultural, Special Needs Education, Guidance and Counselling, ICT and French. (GNA Correspondent, 2007). Another area that JAK paid attention to was higher institutions of learning in the country.

**Higher Education**

The reforms of JAK were not only felt in the field of basic, secondary, specialised training institutions and teacher education but also polytechnics and universities. The polytechnics and universities, in particular, became invaluable in the socio-economic transformation and emancipation of Ghana. They played key roles in the creation, dissemination and application of knowledge. These issues were actually vital for the adaptation of knowledge to meet the urgent needs of the Ghanaian society.

Undoubtedly, it became obvious that the entire system of education dwelt on the role played by the polytechnics and the universities. JAK, thus, made funds available for rehabilitation and expansion of facilities of tertiary institutions in Ghana. The government also strengthened the collaboration between these institutions, industry and society. This was intended to make their programmes significant to the socio-economic needs of the people of Ghana. It was in line with the aforementioned that JAK set out to overhaul tertiary institutions in the country. The government, first of all, prioritised improvement and expansion of academic and physical infrastructure of the various tertiary institutions to ensure their operation at optimum capacity.

Next, the government encouraged private sector participation in the provision of hostels and the running of the existing halls of residence. Again, in order to expand access to tertiary education, he introduced distance education as an alternative mode of delivery of the polytechnics and the universities (Report of the President's Committee

on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002; Okyere, 2022). Apart from the foregoing, the existing public universities at the time, namely, the University of Ghana, the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology and the University of Cape Coast were restructured and made to re-examine their mandates and programmes. This was done in such a way that the programmes of these universities would reflect advances in knowledge and trends of the economy. Tertiary institutions were also made to re-examine their course offerings for effective rationalization. (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002: xxxvii)

On the issue of staffing, the government adopted measures which attracted and retained qualified staff of tertiary institutions. He ensured that a more comprehensive salary structure was designed to retain potential lecturers and seasoned professors in the universities in Ghana. The government provided seed money for the establishment of housing schemes in the tertiary institutions for use by lecturers. Funds from GETfund were also allocated to tertiary institutions. These were used to facilitate infrastructural development and improve facilities for teaching and research (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002: xxxiv).

**Educational Finance and Management**

Another significant issue that John Agyekum Kufuor tackled was financing of education in Ghana. The report of the President's Committee had demonstrated that in 2001, the primary sector and the tertiary level received only 20 per cent and 50 per cent of their budget allocations while that of technical and vocational sub-sectors received only 1 per cent of its total budget for education. (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002: Iiv). Even out of these funds, between 80 to 90 per cent of the funds went into the payment of personal emoluments to the neglect of teaching and learning activities. (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002: Iiv)

In order to enhance the financing of education, funds for basic education were obtained from direct government budgetary allocation, District Assemblies, the Ghana Education Trust Fund, development partners and fees by parents and guardians. JAK continued the policy of 'cost-sharing' in education which he inherited from the previous

government. (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002: 188)

On the question of funding of education at the secondary level, JAK implemented what it is stated in the 1992 Constitution, which provided for progressive introduction of free education to provide equal and balanced access to secondary education dependent on the availability of resources. (Constitution of the Republic of Ghana 1992: 40, Kwadwo Afari-Gyan, 1998: 33). Resources were not enough for free secondary education, so funds, which were obtained from donor funding, PTAs, Endowment Fund, GETFund, District Assemblies scholarship schemes, Old Students Associations and Direct government provision were used to finance secondary education in Ghana from 2001 to 2009 (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002:190, White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004: 41-42).

In the time of JAK, enrolment in tertiary institutions increased tremendously and went beyond the capacity that the government could support. The time also required new technologies and the essential infrastructure to meet the increasing competitiveness in the global market. (Akoto, 2022). At the same time, tertiary institutions were confronted with numerous problems like workshop facilities, library facilities, laboratory facilities, salaries of university/polytechnic staff, classroom infrastructure, teaching and learning materials, use of training equipment, repair and maintenance of facilities and administrative expenditure (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002: 192)

JAK made strides to tackle these problems. Firstly, the government intensified income generation from the traditional sources of funding tertiary institutions such as Endowment Funds, GETFund, direct government provision, District Assemblies' scholarship schemes, donor funding, internal generated funds and fees from foreign and local students. Next, he strengthened cost-sharing at tertiary institutions in which government and students shared the cost of library facilities, workshop facilities, laboratory facilities, utilities in academic area, teaching/learning material, provision of furniture, examinations, field trips, thesis/project, maintenance of structure, medical and administrative expenditure (Report of the President's Committee on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2002: 192). These were all

part of efforts by JAK to use education as a tool to alleviate poverty in the country and to improve the living standards of the people of Ghana.

**Conclusion**

This paper has shown that the trend of education at all levels—basic, secondary, technical, vocational, teacher training, polytechnic and university—in Ghana from 2001 to 2009 underwent significant changes. It has brought to the fore, like the previous regimes, that JAK saw the formative years of children as very crucial to their entire development and, thus, set out to make kindergarten education progressively part of the universal, free and compulsory basic education structure in Ghana. He was the first post-independence president of Ghana to officially add kindergarten to the basic education system in Ghana. Subsequent governments saw the significance of such educational intervention and, that is why, kindergarten is still part of the basic education system in Ghana. JAK ensured that good primary education was rooted in good kindergarten education.

Not only basic education, but all levels of education underwent significant changes essential for socio-economic transformation and emancipation. The aim was to inculcate the requisite skills and knowledge needed by children of school-going age to function effectively in the 21st century. This was found to be the ultimate vision of JAK to alleviate poverty and to improve the standard of living in Ghana's march towards modernity in the global village.

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# Stress factor in Education: Impact on female Science and Mathematics distance learners in South-Western Nigeria

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## Abstract
This study examined the effects of stress on female distance learners and their responses to stress at the Distance Learning Institute, South-West Nigeria. The population of the study encompassed all female Science and Mathematics Education Distance Learners in South-West, Nigeria. The study employed a survey research design involving three hundred and thirty-eight (338) learners, selected by purposive sampling techniques. A researcher-designed questionnaire with a reliability coefficient of 0.79 was used. The data were analyzed using frequency counts, mean, correlation, and regression. The study revealed that most learners were exposed to financial, psychological, academic, and family stress. However, the use of different emerging technologies to facilitate learning has been very helpful. It was found that married female distance learners were more stress-influenced than unmarried female distance learners. The study recommended, among others, that female distance learners should be given more support by the institutions' counsellors, family, and friends to boost their interest in learning.

**Keywords:** Female learners, science and mathematics, distance education, Nigeria stress

## Background to the study

Stress is a factor that affects everyone, no matter the age or background. Psychologists say that stress is a difficult and unhealthy state that puts pressure on a person, affecting their physical, mental,

emotional, and thinking abilities. This can happen because of different activities, events, or life situations. Garret (2001) explains that stress is the body's general response to any demand placed on it. In simple terms, when challenges arise, the body attempts to adapt or adjust to restore things to normal. There is a range of psychological responses that occur in response to the demands of the environment or any noxious stimulus (Owen-Yeates, 2005).

Some of the familiar responses to the body's demands include increased heart rate, respiratory rate, blood pressure, and blood sugar levels. Stress leads people to a lot of frustration, affects mental health, and can determine academic success. Garret (2001) argued that stress has been a part of humans' lives from childhood. Stress can come from an external or internal environment. External environment-related stresses include a difficult task, academic pressure, and inability to have access to life essentials such as food, shelter, and clothing. Internal stresses, on the other hand, include illness, hormonal changes that occur during adolescence or menopause, or even some normal physical changes lead to conflict (Anniko, Boersma, Tillfors, 2019). Stress can be categorised as either positive or negative, depending on each individual's unique ways of perceiving the tension between the two forces (Garret, 2001; Bolam & Dodgson, 2013).

On the basis of the above, stressful experiences and emotional difficulties are capable of impairing various school-related skills, including motivation to learn and to participate in learning, goal orientation, school performance, and academic achievement (Bolam & Dodgson, 2013). In Nigerian universities, the main task facing students is intellectual, but student achievement is influenced and impacted by several stressors, which can reduce the ability to cope with academic rigor. Stress is necessary at times for motivation. However, if the level of stress is on the high side, it can result, depression and some illnesses such as headache, sleeplessness, high blood pressure, and so on. Also, if stress is not well managed, it can affect one's social life, it can lead to drug addiction, alcoholism, and suicide attempt (Amiri,2024; Singh, 2015; Muhammad & Saghir, 2019)

The nature of Distance Learning Education exposes the learners to diverse challenges, which may lead to stress. The commonly identified stress factors faced by distance learners, according to Greenberg (2015), include marital stress such as divorce, separation,

death of a spouse, and payment of children's school fees. Other stress types include job stress, academic stress, and financial stress, among several others. Distance learners' focus on academic work has been influenced by marital or family-related problems (Greenberg, 2015). Most learners, especially females, when confronted with too much stress, lose the motivation to study can affect their grades in some or even across all their courses. Stress is capable of destabilising Students' academic life, emotions, study habits, and social life (Garret, 2001)

Research on gender and stress is not yet conclusive, as researchers hold different views on the subject. According to Tuncay and Singh (2015), stressful emotions such as depression, anxiety, and fear are common in women. These researchers found that female students experienced stress-related financial problems, exam pressure, failing a test, being rejected by those they love, relationship breakups, and depression, among other emotional stressors. In contrast, Anene (2017) conducted a study on both sexes and found a range of stressors common to all students, such as external factors from one's surroundings that affect mental and physical well-being, career progression, examination, professional advancement, and insecurity

The resultant effect of these stress-related experiences includes changes in eating and sleeping habits, new responsibilities, and heavier workloads in family and academics. A study by Uzunboylu (2010) found no difference in the effect of stress between teenage girls and boys. Also, Lin et al. (2020) revealed that academic stress has a negative influence on their academic performance. Stress can be categorised as either positive or negative stress, depending on each individual's unique ways of responding to it (Garret, 2001; Bolam & Dodgson, 2013).

**Statement of the Problem**

With increasing enrollment of females in distance education, it is reasonable to expect that managing stress can also become more challenging for female distance learners, especially in science and mathematics, two subjects that are often perceived as difficult for a large proportion of students. Stress has been one of the major factors inhibiting the academic success of women who participate in distance learning in Nigeria. Stress is an emotional or physical discomfort that occurs as a consequence of the failure of a human body to cope appropriately with situations posing threats, whether actual or

imagined. It is practically impossible for a human to live without stress in a situation where an individual needs to face a series of challenges both within and outside her environment. However, the level of stress response differs from person to person. It is on this premise that the researcher is motivated to examine the influence of stress on the academic achievement of female Science and Mathematics Distance Learners in South-Western, Nigeria

**Theoretical Framework**

This study was guided by the stress response theory roposed by Selye (1976a). This theory was adopted because it emphasizes human reaction to stress. He proposed a triadic model as the basis for the stress-response pattern. He saw stress being the common trigger of adaptive reactions within humans and revealed that death sets humans free from stress (Selye, 1974). He has found in his earlier publications that stress is the general response of the human body to any request.

He proposed that such changes in human body due to stress happen at the local and system level. Such that the stress process at system level deals with stress and how an individual respond to it. This Selye, referred to as the general adaptation syndrome (GAS). As seen in Figure 1, GAS is believed to be the main cause of stress, being the origin of most health-related problems.

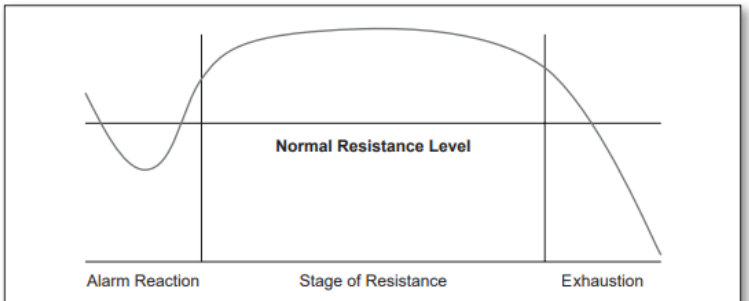



**Figure 1: Diagram of the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) Model**

**Purpose of the study**

The study therefore aimed to examine the effects of stress and subsequent response of female Distance Learners in the Distance Learning Institute, South-western Nigeria. Specifically, the study is to:

1. Determine the relationship between job, marital, academic, and financial stress, and academic achievement among Science and Mathematics distance learners in South-western Nigeria.
2. Ascertain the relative contribution of academic, job, marital, and financial stress to the academic achievement of female distance learners in South-western Nigeria.
3. Determine the stress factors affecting Female Distance learners in South-western Nigeria.

**Research Questions**

This study will therefore provide answers to the following research questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between academic, job, marital, and financial stress and academic achievement among Female Science and Mathematics Distance learners in South-Western Nigeria?
2. How do marital, academic, job, and financial stress each contribute to the academic achievement of female Science and Mathematics Distance learners in South-Western Nigeria?
3. What are the stress factors affecting female Distance learners in South-Western Nigeria?

**Research Methodology**

A descriptive survey research design was employed in this study. The population of the study comprised the entire female Mathematics and Science Distance Learners in South West Nigeria. Four hundred and fifty (University of Lagos, Nigeria, University of Ibadan, and Lagos State University) female Mathematics and Science Distance Learners purposively selected from years 3 and 4 from the three sampled institutions were involved in this study, but only 338 instruments duly filled and returned were used as data collected for the study. The purposive sampling method was employed. This is to ensure that only third- and fourth-year female learners studying mathematics and science were involved in the study. The motivation for using these categories of learners was because they have spent some years on the

programmes and have experienced how to combine education with work and or family.

The instruments for data collection were a researcher-designed questionnaire together with a semi-structured interview guide. The questionnaire was formulated on a 4-point Likert scale of strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree. A pilot study was conducted on 40 female science and mathematics distance learners from the Distance Learning Institute, University of Lagos, and a reliability coefficient of 0.77 was found using Cronbach's alpha technique. 40 respondents were sampled for the pilot study because 10% of the study sample, according to Johanson & Brooks (2010), is appropriate for a pilot study to determine the reliability value of the research instrument. In addition to the questionnaire, a total of 15 learners who completed the questionnaire in the three selected ODL institutions were conveniently sampled and interviewed. The interview questions were adapted from the items of the questionnaire. The purpose of the interview was to obtain additional information on stress factors affecting female distance learners and suggestions for stress reduction. The data collected were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics such as: Mean, Standard Deviation, Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) test and Regression Analysis were employed in this study

## Results

**Research Question 1:** Is there any significant relationship between marital, academic, job, and financial stress and academic achievement among Female Science and Mathematics Distance learners in South West Nigeria?

**Table 1: Mean, Standard Deviation, and Correlation among the Variables**

| SN | Variables | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Academic Achievement | 3.619 | .52467 | 1 | | |
| 2. | Financial Stress | 3.7278 | .39725 | .134<br>.001 | 1 | |
| 3. | family Stress | 3.2110 | .67807 | .073<br>.003 | .272<br>.000 | 1 |
| 4. | Academic Stress | 3.351 | .47645 | .381<br>.001 | .139<br>.020 | .108<br>..000 |
| | Emotional Stress | 2.870 | .4357 | .002 | .134<br>0.013 | .147<br>.011 |
| 5. | Job Stress. | 3.741 | .77645 | 1.000<br>.000 | .418<br>.011 | .184<br>.012 |

Table 1 shows the mean, standard deviation, and correlations among the variables. It can be observed that the independent variables correlated with Female Distance Learners academic achievement: Job Stress (r = .184, $p$ = .012 < .05), family Stress (r = .272, $p$ = .000 < .05), Academic Stress (r =. 108, $p$ = . 000 < .05), Emotional Stress (r = .147, $p$ = .011 < .05) and Financial Stress (r = .134, $p$ = . 001 < .05). Therefore, there is a significant relationship among the independent variables and the dependent variable among Distance Learners in South West Nigeria

**Research Question 2**

What is the relative contribution of marital, academic, job and financial stress to the academic achievement of Female Science and Mathematics Distance learners in South West Nigeria?

**Table 2: Relative Contribution of the Independent Variables (Job, Marital, Academic, and Financial Stress) to the Production of the Dependent Variables (Academic Achievement) among Female Distance Learners.**

| Model | B | Std. error | Beta | T | Sig. | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Academic Achievement | 0.09 | 0.01 | 0.02 | 4.93 | .000 | < .05 |
| Job Stress | 0.66 | 0.00 | 0.27 | 3.18 | .006 | < .05 |
| Family Stress | 0.51 | 0.01 | 0.67 | 0.25 | .007 | < .05 |
| Academic Stress | 0.31 | 0.97 | 0.31 | 1.46 | .008 | < .05 |
| Psychological/ Emotional Stress | 0.24 | 0. 04 | 0.26 | 1.32 | .026 | < .05 |
| Financial Stress | 0.54 | .056 | 0.64 | 3.01 | .004 | < .05 |

Table 2 revealed the relative contribution of the Independent Variables (Job, Marital, Academic, and Financial Stress) to the Production of the Dependent Variables (Academic Achievement) among Female Distance Learners. It can be observed from the table above that the t-statistics and p-values of the individual independent variables contributed significantly to distance learners' academic achievement. Job Stress ($\beta$= 0.09, t = 3.18, p = .006 < .05), Family Stress ($\beta$=0.51, t = 0.25, $p$ = .007 < .05), Academic Stress ( $\beta$=0.31, t = 1.46, $p$ = . 008 < .05), Emotional Stress ($\beta$=0.24,t=1.32, $p$=0.026 < .05) and Financial Stress ($\beta$ =0.54,t = 3.01, $p$ = . 004 < .05). Hence, The individual independent variables tested in this study relatively contributed significantly to the production of the dependent variables (Academic Achievement) among Distance learners in South West Nigeria.

**Research Question 3**: What are the stress factors affecting Female Distance learners in South West Nigeria?

**Qualitative Data**

Some of the participants were interviewed to collect qualitative data for the study. The purpose was to allow the participants to elaborate on their experience with academics, work demands, and/family challenges. A sample of the students out of those who completed the questionnaire from the three selected institutions was interviewed.

The quantitative analysis results in figures 1 and 2 describe the general picture of the students' views on the stress factors affecting Distance learners and the coping strategies

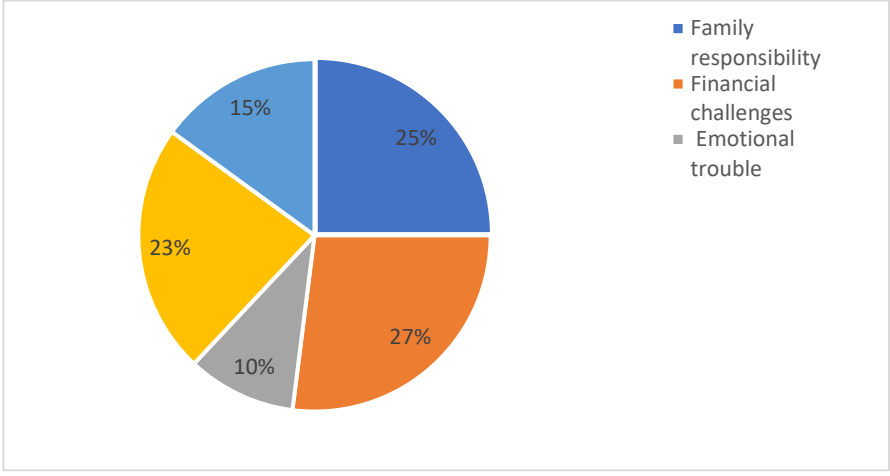



**Fig 1**: Stress factors affecting females Distance Learners

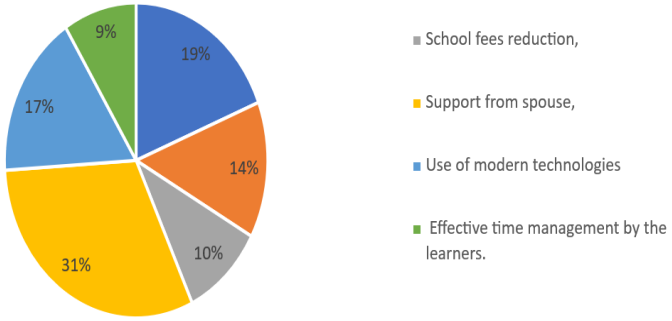



Fig 2: Respondent suggested coping srategies for stress reduction

From the result obtained from the structured interview, 25% of the respondents indicated that family responsibilities/challenges are the principal stress factors militating against the female distance learners in the south-western Nigeria. In addition, 27% of the respondents identify financial challenges and inabilities to meet various financial responsibilities as the major stressor. Workload and responsibilities from the workplace were identified by 23% of the respondents, emotional trouble was identified by 10% of the respondents, and academic stress was identified by15% of the respondents as the stressors affecting female Distance Learners 'academic achievement in South West Nigeria.

Stress coping strategies identified by the respondents include: financial support, organizing counselling/seminars for learners frequently, school fees reduction, support from spouse, use of modern technologies to enhance e-learning, and effective time management by the learners. However, among these strategies identified, the majority of the respondents opined that the use of modern technologies and support from a spouse will assist greatly in stress reduction among female distance Learners.

**Discussion of Findings**

The findings of the study revealed that the independent variables correlated with the dependent variable (learners' academic achievement). Hence, there is a significant relationship between the level of stress and academic achievement among Female Distance

learners in the South-Western, Nigeria. This finding is in line with the work of Adu Henaku *et al.* (2025), who reported that Stress was widespread among the female married distance education students, and many of them expressed intentions to withdraw from their programmes. The major sources of stress included personal factors, such as work and family responsibilities, as well as institutional factors like excessive academic workload, unresolved grievances, and the high financial costs associated with the programme. Also, the studies of Beldarrain (2006), Kosheleva, Amarnor, and Chernobilsky (2015) showed a significant correlation between financial, family (marital), and job stressors on distance learners' academic commitment.

Additionally, the study revealed that the individual independent variables observed, Job, Marital, Emotional, Academic, and Financial Stress relatively contributed significantly to learners' academic achievement. This agrees with the work of Messarra (2005), who showed that job, marital, academic, and financial issues are among the stress factors among university distance learners.

The study also revealed that workload/workplace responsibilities, family responsibilities, finance, emotional, and academic stress correlate with learners' academic achievement. This supports the findings of Erikitola, Otumala, and Oluwasola (2025) who reported that financial constraints, household responsibilities, workplace stress, and psychological challenges significantly influenced academic performance. Also, this corroborates the findings of Beldarrain (2006); Kosheleva, Amarnor, & Chernobilsky (2015); Lin *et al*., (2020), which showed a significant correlation between financial, family, and job stressors and distance learners' academic commitment.

**Conclusion**

Stress has been seen as a common factor in the life of the respondents, regardless of age or cultural background and there is a range of psychological responses that occur in response to the demands of the environment. There is a significant relationship among the independent variables and the dependent variable among Female Distance Learners. Job, Marital, Academic, Emotional, and Financial Stress relatively contributed significantly to learners' academic achievement. Different emerging technologies to facilitate learning at the different institutes have been very helpful in coping with the identified stress factors. Also, the

majority of the learners indicated that married female distance learners have been influenced more than unmarried female distance learners

**Recommendations**

Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that the university/Government should organize soft loans for indigent students to reduce learners' financial burdens. Also, Institutions should provide accessible counselling services, mentorship programmes, and stress management workshops to help learners develop coping strategies for emotional and academic stress. Educational administrators should ensure prompt resolution of students' complaints and institutional challenges to minimize frustration and psychological stress among learners.

Universities and study centres should encourage the formation of peer-learning groups and women's support circles where learners can share experiences, receive encouragement, and collaborate on academic tasks. In addition, awareness campaigns should be conducted to sensitize families, employers, and communities about the unique challenges faced by female distance learners. Support from spouses and family members can significantly reduce stress and enhance academic performance.

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# Perceived Challenges Facing Student Counsellor-Trainees Undertaking Counselling Practicum Among Undergraduates of Guidance and Counselling, University of Ilorin, Nigeria

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## Abstract

The study investigated perceived challenges facing student counsellor-trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling in the University of Ilorin, Nigeria. Descriptive research design was adopted for the study. Population consisted undergraduates of University of Ilorin while target population was students offering guidance and counselling as programme of study in University of Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria. In all 200 respondents were selected through multistage sampling method to participate in the study. Data were collected via questionnaire. Data analysis was carried out, using mean, standard deviation, t-test and analysis of variance. The hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level. Findings showed that challenges faced by counsellor-trainees are anxiety, lack of cooperation, among others. Hypotheses tested showed no significant differences in the perception of respondents on the challenges faced by counsellor-trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling in University of Ilorin based on age and religion, however significant difference existed based on gender. It is concluded that undergraduates of guidance and counselling department are facing challenges during practicum exercise. It is recommended that the students should be adequately taught courses in practicum, among other recommendations.

**Keywords**: challenge, counselling, practicum, undergraduate, university

**Introduction**

Students undergoing studies in guidance and counselling in tertiary institutions are exposed to various courses aimed at getting them well-grounded in counselling. Guidance and counselling has been included among the courses offered in Nigeria Universities and Colleges of Education approved by Ministry of Education due to its importance in enhancing growth and character change among students and smooth running of schools. Fajonyomi (2020) stated that practicum in counselling is education programme which is targeted at inculcating in the student counsellor-trainees the three domains of learning, knowledge, skills and values needed for counselling. Education is a tool for development and therefore every effort should be made to acquire the actualisation of quality education. Students in schools face challenges that can mar their educational pursuit. These challenges bother on academic, social, psychological, emotional and even spiritual lives of the students. Counselling is a veritable tool to assist the students to overcome these challenges.

Undergraduates in guidance and counselling offer counselling practicum as one of their courses in the department of counsellor education. Counselling practicum is like an internship for some courses in the university. It is like teaching practice where students studying education courses are given the opportunity to practise how to teach, thereby equipping them for the job of teaching before getting into the world of teaching profession (Zakaria, 2013). During the period of teaching practice the student is exposed to the methods and appropriate materials available to teach the lesson (Jekayinfa, 2012). Practicum is a practical-oriented experience-based exercise designed to expose the counsellor- trainee to the practical exercise of their course. Fajonyonmi (2020) noted that counselling practicum is important to counselling practice because it tests and harmonises the skills, techniques, theories and models counsellor-trainees learnt in their exposure to the programme. Counselling practicum enables the counsellor-trainee the opportunity to make use of the measuring instruments such as aptitude test, intelligence test, personality inventory, among others. Practicum exercise gives the counsellor-trainees the opportunity of being exposed to the world of work. Moreover, the secondary school students benefit from practicum exercise because it is an opportunity for students to meet counsellor-trainees one-on-one to discuss challenges such as academic and behavioural problems facing them in the school.

Sometimes, it is believed that practicum exercise by counsellor- trainee is for them to fulfil the requirement of the course, which is more than that because it is a period of learning the rudiments of counselling. Odebode and Adegboyega (2020), noted that guidance and counselling programme in the school is a comprehensive, developmental programme designed to benefit students in their journey through school. Hence, counsellor-trainees impact the lives of the students in the school of their practicum exercise. Counselling practicum also benefits the teachers, supervisors, and counsellors as noted by (Denga, 2007). Practicum exercise is both valuable and indispensable in guidance and counselling programme. The impact is felt on the academic, social, psychological, and emotional life of the students.

Counselling practicum faces a lot of challenges. The challenges might come from the university due to the non-availability of practicum facilities such as standardised instruments, video cameras, among others. Schools used for practicum exercise also create challenges to the exercise. Sometimes school administrators and owners are reluctant to release their students to the counsellors-trainees to interact with them with flimsy excuse that the student counsellors are undergoing training, therefore are not qualified to train their students. According to Oraegbunam (2008), counsellors are not recognized by school principals and majority of school teachers. Merc (2010) observed that most times, student counsellors encounter rivalry from the hosting school counsellor who sees them as a threat. In addition, finance, rigidity, incompetence on the part of the counsellor- trainees are among the problems. (Saricoba, 2010). Gan (2013) equally noted that language barrier poses challenge to practicum. All these problems impact on the ability of the counsellor-trainees to deliver their job effectively. More needs to be done to encourage counsellor- trainees to put in their best during their counselling practicum in schools. This is necessary because some of them take it as a mere exercise, just to pass the course not knowing that it is important for their counselling profession. Practicum prepares student -counsellors for real counselling practice in the near future; the training also teaches them the use of counselling skills, techniques, strategies and counselling theories. Counselling practicum is of paramount importance in the vocational training of student counsellors and other students in general as it prepares them in making the transition from trainees to professionals. Facing lots of challenges during practicum exercise particularly during

the first outing can create fears to counsellor- trainees as observed by Udoh & George, (2014) who noted that first-time practicum students often indicate that they have many fears and worries about their initial counselling practicum experiences.

**Statement of the Problem**

Undergraduates offering guidance and counselling as a course in the university face problems of fear, incompetence, lack of counselling equipments, acceptance and corporation by the host school among other problems during their counselling practicum that may discourage them from putting in their best in the exercise. Practicum is meant to train counsellor- trainees in the rudiments and the techniques in counselling so that they will succeed in the field when they eventually go into practice as counsellors. This is necessary because some of the counsellor-trainees lack the knowledge of counselling skills, techniques, theories and models particularly application of these theories and models. Counsellor-trainees lack motivation for counselling practicum, they are not well equipped to go for counselling practicum because most of the time their departments are not supportive in terms of provision of necessary counselling equipments to practise with during counselling practicum. These counsellor-trainees are not financially buoyant to secure counselling equipments needed for their practicum and therefore may lose interest in counselling practicum not minding the benefits of the programme. Udoh and George (2014) carried out research on the relevance of counselling practicum in guidance and counselling programme in Nigeria. The findings revealed that the practicum exercise affords the counsellor-trainees the opportunity to access and make use of assessment instruments such as intelligence tests, aptitude tests, personality inventories, and other relevant assessment instruments and techniques. The research also discovered that practicum gives the counsellor-trainee the opportunity to make use of ethics that guide counselling practice. Challenges confronting practicum if not eradicated are bound to impact on the quality of counsellors graduating from universities resulting into half-baked counsellors. This study therefore examined perceived challenges of student counsellor-trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling in the University of Ilorin in Kwara State, Nigeria. It also examined the influence of gender, age and religion on the perception of the respondents on the challenges

of counselling practicum facing student counsellor- trainees among the undergraduates in the University of Ilorin in Kwara State, Nigeria. This is the gap the study was meant to fill.

**Research Question**

One research question was raised to guide the conduct of the study thus:

What are the perceived challenges facing student counsellor-trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling in the University of Ilorin, Nigeria?

**Research Hypotheses**

Three hypotheses were formulated and tested in the study

**$HO_1$:** *There is no significant difference in the perceived challenges faced by student counsellor-trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling, University of Ilorin, Nigeria based on age*.

**$HO_2$:** *There is no significant difference in the perceived challenges faced by student counsellor- trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling, University of Ilorin, Nigeria based on gender*.

**$HO_3$:** *There is no significant difference in the perceived challenges faced by student counsellor-trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling, University of Ilorin, Nigeria based on religion.*

**Method**

This study adopted descriptive survey research design. The population of interest was the undergraduates of University of Ilorin while, target population was students offering guidance and counselling as a programme of study in the University of Ilorin in Kwara State Nigeria. University of Ilorin has student population of about forty thousand. The sample of two hundred undergraduates in guidance and counselling department was selected through multistage sampling method. At stage 1, purposive sampling technique was used to select students from Faculty of Education out of fifteen (15) Faculties in University of Ilorin to participate in the study because guidance and counselling department is in this Faculty. At stage 2, purposive sampling technique was used to select students in guidance and

counselling department. At stage 3, simple random sampling was used to select 200 students to participate. At stage 4, stratified sampling technique was used to group them into gender, age and religion. The instrument for data collection was adapted from Akpochafo (2018) titled "Undergraduates view about Practicum exercise in Guidance and Counselling". The researchers redesigned the questionnaire with new title, "Challenges of Counselling Practicum Questionnaire (CCPEQ)." The instrument consisted of two parts A and B. Part A sort information on demographic data of the respondents while part B contained 15 items to seek information on the challenges of counselling practicum which was responded to on a four-point Likert-type scale of SA = Strongly agree (4 points), A= Agree (3 points), D= Disagree (2 points) and SA= Strongly disagree (1point). The instrument was validated by experts in measurement and evaluation. Test re-test method of ascertaining reliability was adopted in establishing the reliability of the instrument. Cronbach Alpha was used for analysis of data collected in two administrations after two weeks interval. Reliability co-efficient of 0.74 was obtained which adjudged the instrument reliable for the research. The instrument was scored by finding the mean of the points. This was done by adding the points and diving by 4 to get the mean score thus: 4+3+2+1=10/4 = 2.50. Decision was that any item in the part B of the questionnaire that scored below 2.50 was not regarded as a challenge of counselling practicum faced by counsellor-trainees while items that scored 2.50 and above were regarded as challenges to counselling practicum among the students. Data collected for the study was analysed with mean and rank order, t-test and analysis of variance. The research question was analysed with percentages, mean and standard deviation were used to analyse the research question, t-test was used to test hypotheses 1 and 2 and Analysis of variance was used to test hypothesis 3. Hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level.

**Results**

Demographic characteristics of respondents

**Table 1: Percentage Distribution of Respondents Based on Age, Gender and Religion**

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| ***Age*** | | |
| Below 21 years of | 95 | 47.5 |
| 22 years and above | 105 | 52.5 |
| Total | 200 | 100 |
| ***Gender*** | | |
| Male | 90 | 45.0 |
| Female | 110 | 55.0 |
| Total | 200 | 100 |
| ***Religion*** | | |
| Christianity | 89 | 44.5 |
| Islam | 105 | 55.5 |
| African traditional religion | 06 | 3.0 |
| Total | 200 | 100.0 |

Table 1 shows the distribution of respondents by age, gender and religion The table shows that 95 (47.5%) of the respondents were 21 years and below while 105 (52.5%) were 22 years of age and above. The table also showed that 90(45.0) are male and 110(55.0%) are female and on religion, 89(445.5%) are Christians, 105(55.5%) are practising Islamic religion.

**Research Question**: What are the perceived challenges facing student counsellor-trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling in the University of Ilorin, Nigeria?

**Table 2**: **Mean and Rank Order on the Perception of Respondents on Challenges Faced by Student Counsellor-Trainees During Counselling Practicu*m***

| Item | Statement | *M* | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | Display of initial anxiety by students | 3.5 | 1st |
| 11 | Schools not allowing counsellor trainees to record activities | 3.34 | 2nd |
| 8 | Lack of cooperation of the school authorities during practicum | 3.32 | 3rd |
| 10 | School authority doubts the ability of the counsellor trainee | 3.21 | 4th |
| 14 | Inadequate facilities for practicum work | 3.19 | 5th |
| 2 | Inappropriate application of basic counselling skills in real life practice | 3.17 | 6th |
| 3 | Inability to synthesize and apply basic counselling concepts | 3.07 | 7th |
| 13 | Hostility of some school administrators to trainee-counsellors | 3.06 | 8th |
| 20 | Lack of counselling skills and techniques | 3.02 | 9th |
| 12 | Some school management sees student counsellors as teaching practice students | 3.01 | 10th |
| 1 | Lack of adequate classrooms for practicum | 2.93 | 11th |
| 18 | Combining practicum exercise with other academic work | 2.89 | 12th |
| 4 | Inability to use counselling skills to meet divers client needs | 2.86 | 13th |
| 9 | Some school managements are not supportive to practicum exercise activities | 2.84 | 14th |
| 15 | Lack of adequate financial support from university | 2.83 | 15th |
| 7 | Counsellor trainees fear of operating outside ethics of counselling profession | 2.73 | 16th |

| Item | Statement | *M* | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|
| 17 | Some students in secondary schools refuse to be involved in Practicum exercise | 2.73 | 16th |
| 19 | Secondary school students' dislike for counselling practicum | 2.69 | 18th |
| 16 | Students being unaware of the importance of counselling practicum | 2.45 | 19th |
| 6 | Cultural barrier in application of counselling skills | 2.23 | 20th |

*Note.* The benchmark mean was 2.50; items with mean scores of 2.50 or higher were regarded as challenges.

Table 2 showed that all the items except items 6 and 16 have mean scores that are 2.50 and above, showing that they are within the bench mark of 2.50. This indicates that these items are regarded as challenges faced by student counsellor-trainees during counselling practicum. Items 6 and 16 are regarded least of the challenges of counselling practicum because their mean score of 2.45 and 2.23 respectively are below the bench mark.

**Hypotheses Testing**

Hypothesis One: *There is no significant difference in the perceived challenges faced by student counsellor-trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling, University of Ilorin, Nigeria based on age.*

**Table 3: Mean, Standard Deviation, and t Value of the Respondents' Challenges of Counselling Practicum Based on Age**

| Age | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *df* | *t* | *p* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Below 21 years | 95 | 22.958 | 2.196 | 198 | 1.814 | 0.071 |
| 22 years and above | 105 | 22.452 | 2.248 | | | |

Table 3 shows that the calculated t-value of 1.814 with a corresponding p-value of .071 greater than .05 level of significance.

Since p-value is greater than the .05 alpha level, the null hypothesis is not rejected. This indicates that there is no significant difference in the challenges faced by student counsellor-trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of University of Ilorin based on age.

**Hypothesis Two:** *There is no significant difference in the perceived challenges faced by student counsellor- trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling, University of Ilorin, Nigeria based on gender.*

**Table 4**: **Mean and Standard Deviation and t-Test of the Perceived Challenges of Counselling Practicum Based on Gender**

| Gender | *n* | *M* | *SD* | *df* | *t* | *p* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Male | 50 | 26.044 | 1.896 | 198 | 2.29 | 0.023 |
| Female | 110 | 25.400 | 2.042 | | | |

Table 4 shows that the calculated t-value of 2.29 with a corresponding p-value of .023 which is less than .05 level of significance. Since p-value is lesser than the .05 level of significance, the null hypothesis is therefore rejected. This indicates that there is a significant difference in the challenges of counselling practicum among the undergraduates based on gender.

**Hypothesis Three:** *There is no significant difference in the perceived challenges faced by student counsellor-trainees undertaking counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling, University of Ilorin, Nigeria based on religion*.

**Table 5**: **Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Showing Respondents' Perceived Challenges of Counselling Practicum Based on Religion**

| Source | *SS* | *df* | *MS* | *F* | *p* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between group | 12.218 | 2 | 6.209 | 1.54 | .213 |
| Within group | 782.562 | 197 | 3.972 | | |
| Total | 794.78 | 199 | | | |

Table 5 shows the calculated F-ratio is 1.538 and p-value is .217. Since the p-value of .217 is greater than .05 level of significance, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Hence, there is no significance

difference in the perceived challenges of counselling practicum as expressed by the respondents based on religion. This means the religion of the respondents did not make them have differing expression on the challenges of counselling practicum.

**Discussion of findings**

The findings from research question one revealed that the perceived challenges of counselling practicum of the respondents are: display of initial anxiety, private schools not allowing recording of the students, feeling of nervousness in attending to the students, lack of adequate knowledge of counselling skills, not knowing how to make use of counselling skills, among other challenges. This finding is in tandem with (Udoh, 2014) who noted that students shy away from opening up to the counsellor trainees in practicum exercise due to doubt of counsellors-in-training confidentiality and therefore feel insecure discussing their concerns to counsellor trainees. Consistent with the finding is Sarah (2015) who worked on the attitude of students towards teaching practicum in Nigeria. The result of the study shows that students have negative attitude towards practicum exercise in their school.

The result obtained from testing hypothesis one indicated that there is no significance difference in the perceived challenges of counselling practicum among the respondents based on age. The finding might be so because despite the ages of the respondents they face the same or similar challenges in counselling practicum. Modo (2018) corroborated with this finding because his research on the same topic in another locale found no significant difference in the challenges experienced by practicum students based on their age. This means that no matter the age of the students, practicum problems will still be encountered. Difference will only be made when the counsellor trainees are adequately taught on counselling practicum. Many a time, trainees are not well taught on how to do the practicum in their school of posting.

The finding from testing the second hypothesis revealed that there is a significant difference in the perceived challenges of counselling practicum based on gender. This could be as a result of the fact that universities operate co-educational practice, hence both gender are taught together in a class. Hence any failure to teach the students well on counselling practicum will affect all of them irrespective of gender. Therefore, this will become a challenge when they go out on

practicum. However, this finding negates Akpochafo (2018) that found no significant difference between the views of male and female counsellor trainees about the practicum exercise. The same vein, the research of Modo (2018) shows that sex of the students does not differ based on the challenges encountered during practicum among students in University of Uyo. However, the findings of William (2013) in a similar research on the perceived roles and functions of school counsellors supported the result of this research because the research showed that gender and age made the respondents differ in their perception on the roles and functions of school counsellors.

Further finding revealed no significance difference in the perceived challenges of counselling practicum as expressed by the respondents based on religion. This implies that the respondents' religion did not make them differ in the challenges of counselling practicum. The finding might be so because all students irrespective of religion are taught together, if they are not well taught in their practicum class it will affect all of them during their practicum exercise which impact on their attitude towards practicum. Pickens (2005) noted that attitude helps to define one's perception to certain situations. This is why Maliki (2013) stated that the belief someone has about any particular job determines the success of that person in the profession.

## Conclusion

The study investigated perceived challenges of Counselling practicum among undergraduates of guidance and counselling in the University of Ilorin. It is concluded that the counsellor-trainees face challenges during the counselling practicum. The respondents expressed that the challenges include but not limited to the followings: display of initial anxiety, some private schools not allowing recording of the exercise in their schools, some students not cooperating with counsellor -trainee students, students doubt about counsellor trainees' ability, lack of adequate facilities for proper recording during counselling practicum, inappropriate application of basic counselling skills in real life, among other challenges. The findings also showed there were no significant differences in the perceived challenges of counsellor- trainees undertaking counselling practicum based on age and religion but there was significant difference based on gender. The last sentence implies that age and religion of the respondents did not make them have different perception on the challenges faced by

counsellor-trainees during counselling practicum, however gender influence their perceptions.

**Recommendations**

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

- Lecturers should endeavour to teach practicum courses well to the students so that they can effectively discharge their duties during counselling practicum in secondary schools.
- Secondary school administrators should be sensitised on the importance of counselling practicum exercise to their students so as to allow counsellor- trainees to do their counselling practicum effectively.
- Students Counsellor- Trainees need to be actively trained on proper application of basic counselling skills in real life during counselling practicum programme by their lecturers.
- University of Ilorin in Kwara State should equip department of guidance and counselling with necessary equipments for practicum so that students will adequately train for counseling.
- The Department of Guidance Counselling in the universities should introduce micro-skills training, for counsellor- trainees.

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# MOST USED SETTINGS, TIME OF THE DAY, LENGTH OF DURATION OF SEXUAL ACTS AMONG SEX WORKERS *AND COMMERCIAL SEX HOTSPOTS* IN THE CAPE COAST METROPOLIS, GHANA

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## Abstract

Commercial sex work is a global phenomenon and in Ghana it exists in a number of localities. However, research on its varied facets is scanty. This study set out to examine the nature of commercial sex work, particularly the settings (venues), preferred time of the day, length of duration of the sexual act and commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis of Ghana. Using a nested concurrent mixed method design, a sample of 364 participants (356 commercial sex workers and 8 key persons) were reached for the study. A questionnaire, and an interview guide were used to collect data for the study. Frequencies, percentages, and thematic analysis were used to analyze the data. The study found that the most preferred time of the day for sexual engagement was night time and the most preferred length of duration for sexual acts was the short – time – service. Guest houses was the most preferred setting for attending to clients. The study concluded that a number of popular and active commercial sex hotspots exist in the Cape Coast Metropolis though the practice is known to be illegal. The study recommends that the researchers should liaise with the key stakeholder institutions in the Cape Coast Metropolis, particularly the Ministry of Education and the Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly to intensify sensitization drives geared toward discouraging the patronage of the hotspots to render them less appealing. They should also ensure that the law-enforcement agencies are adequately resourced and empowered to effectively carry out the needed enforcement activities to discourage the creation, functioning and patronage of the commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

**Keywords**: commercial sex work, time, sexual acts, settings, length of duration, hotspots.

## Introduction

Commercial sex has existed and characterized human society for generations. In the olden days such sexual conduct and practice was considered serious affront to human dignity and social order, however, the practice has assumed a different dimension in modern times. It is quite unfathomable why in spite of the many and varied long lasting consequences on the commercial sex workers, their patrons, and society in general, some females would still engage in the practice. It is of much interest to investigate among other things whether there are commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis, the most preferred setting for sexual engagements, and the most preferred length of duration for sexual acts.

## Statement of the problem

Commercial sex is considered a deviation from socially and culturally established norms (Ezeh, Ugwu, & Ngwu, 2019). The practice persists in different forms and magnitudes across the globe (Dewey, Crowhurst & Izugbara, 2019; Sanders, O'Neill, & Pitcher, 2009). In Africa, just like the other continents of the world, the practice is illegal and frowned upon (Dewey et al., 2019; Ansah, 2006). Additionally, it is largely considered an affront in most traditional societies. Acquah, as cited in Akyeampong (1997) "has indicated that commercial sex constitutes an infraction of custom and is still severally frowned upon in the rural areas, even though in the large towns it is generally accepted as one of the ways women have for earning a living" (p.163). Persons involved in commercial sex work were and are still stigmatized and discriminated against by society due to the stigma associated with the practice (Balfour & Allen, 2014; Aveling, Cornish & Oldmeadow, 2013; Kamise, 2013**).** In spite of the grave psychosocial consequences associated with the practice, it has assumed more sophisticated dimensions due to modernity and globalization (Gordon-Brooks, 2006).

The Internet and the proliferation of fast emerging modern and sophisticated mobile technologies have made it increasingly less

cumbersome for individuals to network and execute their commercial sex activities (Campbell, Aydin, Cunningham, Hamer, Hill, Melissa et al., 2019). They advertise, merchandise, and practice commercial sex both electronically and physically (Ezeh et al., 2019, Sanders et at., 2009). In sum commercial sex work is not restricted to the Western world such as Europe, Asia, and the Americas which may be considered more permissive; it is found in many other places globally.

The commercial sex enterprise is also prevalent in conservative African nations too (Dewey et al., 2019). For instance, in Nigeria women in the Cross-River basin were considered to be the earliest cross-border sex workers (Adesina, 2019). According to Akyeampong (1997), instances of commercial sex work and sexual exploitation, particularly of young people, are common everyday occurrences in most African communities, including Ghana. Adesina (2019), among other things opines that the period 1935-1945 witnessed the exodus of several Nigerian women in the Cross-River basin moving to the Gold Coast (Ghana) and working close to the mines as sex workers. Furthermore, greater majority of the Nigerian sex workers who migrated to Ghana settled in Accra and other locations such as Kumasi, Sekondi-Takoradi, and Tamale.

In Ghana, the practice is no longer only associated with popular communities such as 'commercial cities' like Sekondi-Takoradi, Tema, Kumasi and Accra, but has become a major socio-cultural challenge facing the country at large (MyJoyonline.com**,** 2013. Mynews.gh, 2017 & Gbagbo & Gbagbo, 2021). Within the borders of Ghana, commercial sex work transpires in almost every city, district, municipality and/or metropolis. However, the practice is more prevalent in densely populated regions such as the Greater Accra and the Ashanti Regions. A metropolitan community like the Cape Coast Metropolis also grapples with the practice.

Increasing media reports and news of arrests, deportations, and imprisonment of commercial sex workers by the law enforcement agencies clearly paint a worrisome situation that call for scientific investigation (MyJoyonline.com, 2013, Gbagbo & Gbagbo, 2021, & Antwi, Ross, & Markham, 2025). Though commercial sex work is a known illegal pursuit in Ghana **(**Mensah-Bonsu, 2008**)** just like other nations of the world (Dewey et al, 2019**)**, it continues to be practiced and patronized in some known localities across the length and breadth of Ghana. From the aforementioned, it is evident that commercial sex

work in Ghana continues to be widespread and seems to be gaining deeper roots in the Ghanaian society.

Interestingly, Cape Coast, the Central Regional Capital, one of Ghana's tourism hubs and the citadel of Western formal education in Ghana has, in the recent past, become associated with the phenomenon of sex work (Myjoyonline.com, 2013 & Mynews.gh, 2017). There are increasing reported cases of the activities of sex workers in the Cape Coast Metropolis despite its rich and enviable historical, cultural, and socioeconomic heritage. Also disturbing is that sections of the reports indicate that there is a steady increase in the number of young people aged not more than 19 years involved in commercial sex work in the Cape Coast Metropolis (MyJoyonline.com, 2013) and that 'child prostitutes' offer free sex in the Metropolis (Mynews.gh, 2017). Such a situation leaves much to be desired, since it may cast a slur on the image of such a highly reputed Metropolis.

The aforementioned reports, however, do not provide a comprehensive view of commercial sex work in this highly esteemed hub of education in Ghana. The phenomenon, thus, has not been well-documented to the best of the researchers' knowledge. This provides a significant gap in literature that needs urgent attention. Therefore, the study examined the nature of commercial sex work in the Cape Coast Metropolis vis-à-vis the most common settings, time of the day, length of duration of the sexual acts and common commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

The work of Oduro, Otoo, and Amoako-Asiama (2019) is both revealing and instructive in that the author's main focus was on commercial sex workers below age 18 (minors) and the challenges that researchers encounter when investigating such commercial sex workers. These notwithstanding, Oduro et al. (2019) did not investigate the nature of the practice, particularly the preferred venues, time of the day, length of duration for the sexual acts and the most common commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

## Literature Review

### *Modern global trends on commercial sex work*

Commercial sex work persists in different forms and magnitude across the globe due to certain conditions such modern day perception and attitudes to sex and digitalisation (Campbell et al., 2019; Sanders et al., 2009). Commercial sex work carries certain severe health hazards and socio-cultural consequences that may negatively impact an

individual's life (Balfour & Allen, 2014; Aveling, Cornish, & Oldmeadow, 2013; Kamise, 2013). The internet and perforation of new mobile technology and social media platforms have made it increasingly less cumbersome for individuals to network and participate in commercial sex activities both physically and electronically (Ezeh et al., 2019).

Today, the internet has become a common platform for the marketing and selling of sexual services to clients and patrons (Rand, 2019). Internet-based commercial sex activities has become more popular and attractive in the sex industry. Internet based commercial sex is done either directly through in-person services or online indirect services (Campbell et al., 2019; Stoebenau, Heise, Wamoyi & Bobrova, 2016**).** Modern day attitudes towards the essence of sex and what constitute appropriate heterosexual behaviour and conduct to some extent have been shaped by the prevailing rapidly changing social, technological, and cultural contexts (Nasir, Zamani, Ismail, Yusooff, Khairaddin, & Mohamad, 2010, Hayes, 2002).

***Commonly used settings (venues) for commercial sex acts***

Commercial sex acts usually take place in different settings such as street corners**,** strip clubs, rented apartments, brothel, escort agencies, guest houses, modelling agency, massage parlours, and resorts (Greenberg, Bruess, & Oswalt, 2014; Malarek, 2011). Typically, brothel which is also referred to as prostitutes' house is among the common venues where commercial sex workers ply their sex trade. Brothels are accommodation facility used for transacting sexual services for financial gains and material rewards (Brooks-Gordon, 2006). Brothels could be established legally or illegally either by individuals or organizations (Greenberg et al., 2014).

Brothels could be owned, operated, and managed by ordinary everyday businessmen and women. However, such responsibilities often come under the domain of pimps, brokers, "madams", or "panderers" who are collectively referred to as functionaries (Greenberg et al., 2014, Darko, 2010). Among the Igbo's of Southeastern Nigeria, brothel-based sex work is the most popular. Commercial sex workers in Igboland are popularly referred to as 'city sex workers' because they carry out their commercial sex engagements in city brothels (Ezeh et al., 2019).

Commercial sex workers who carry out their commercial sex acts in brothels undertake their sexual acts under properly structured

conditions and regulations. Simple reasons are that brothels have clearly set out arrangements, rules of engagement, code of conduct and standard operational procedures (Greenberg et al., 2014). Brothels greatly help sex workers to provide sexual services to their patrons at relatively cheaper prices than that of call girls and other commercial sex workers who attend to their clients in high class establishments (Brooks-Gordon, 2006). However, decisions on the choice of client to attend to, appointments, duration of sexual acts, and remuneration are mostly done by commercial sex functionaries such as pimps (Darko, 2010).

Additionally, most brothels operate a 24 – hour service and greater majority of their patronage occurs during the night hours for some obvious reasons. Firstly, that time of the day is more convenient to both the clients and the sex worker. The reasons are that they consider them as safe haven. Secondly, it offers assurance of the safety and protection of their lives and valuables. Additionally, it serves as a cover of darkness to conceal their involvement from the open public to protect their image. Commercial sex workers who operate from brothels usually attend to more clients because they mostly provide short-term services (30 – 45 minutes) duration at relatively profitable prices.

In recent times brothel-based sex work is dwindling probably due to the heightening societal stigma, growing discrimination and social exclusion attached to brothel-based sex work (Ezeh et al., 2019; Stoebenau et al., 2016). Again, modern day digitalization, particularly, mobile technological advancement has shifted commercial sex patronage to on-line services such as webcaming and phone sex (Campbell et al., 2019). Furthermore, other appealing settings such as adult filming, modelling, agency work, exotic dance, and street sex work have emerged in the sex industry (Campbell et al., 2019).

In places such as the counties of Nevada in the United States of America and Thailand, legal brothels can be found (Greenberg et al., 2014) but in Ghana there may not be even one legal brothel due to the nature of Ghanaian culture, customs, and traditions. These notwithstanding there are notable and openly operated brothels in Ghana, particularly those at Adum in Kumasi (Boateng, 2016) and *Atembuda, Chisco* close to Avenor and Kwame Nkrumah Circle in Accra (The Ghanaian Times, 2019, April). Within the confines of Ghana, particularly, the nation's capital, Accra, and in other Metropolitan cities such as Tema, Kumasi, Sekondi-Takoradi, Tamale,

and Cape Coast have settings for commercial sex acts and well-known commercial sex hotspots dotted in several areas. Localities such as the Kwame Nkrumah Circle, Atembuda in East Legon, St Johns in Achimota, Kejetia in Kumasi, European Town and the Zenith area in Sekondi-Takoradi, Ashaiman in Tema **(**Ghana Web, 2019, April**),** Kru Town and London Bridge in Cape Coast are notable vicinities. (*MyJoyonline.com*, 2013, Ansah, 2006).

## Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study is the social identity theory by Tajfel (1981). The theory is a social psychological theory of intergroup relations and processes and holds social context as the main determinant of self-definition and behaviour (Ellemers & Haslam, 2011). A review of the social identity theory is crucial for the study since it provides a framework relevant for conceptualising the way of behaviour. The concepts of social identity, social comparison, self-categorisation, depersonalisation, and salient identity set out by the social are crucial to comprehending the dynamics of group membership and behaviour.

Also, the theory helps to explicate some of the conducts of the commercial sex workers such as group commitment and loyalty, compliance and attraction. The theory underscores the reality that members of subordinate group such as commercial sex workers experience negative social identity since they suffer a great deal of marginalisation, stigmatisation, and social exclusion meted out to them by their respective communities. Invariably, the sex workers themselves categorise and rank themselves low because of the negativities associated with the commercial sex venture.

## Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the most used setting, time of the day, length of duration for sexual acts among commercial sex workers, and the common commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

## Research Questions

Four research questions were set to guide the conduct of the study. They are:

- What is the most used setting for sexual acts among commercial sex workers in the Cape Coast Metropolis?
- What is the most preferred time of the day for commercial sex acts among commercial sex workers in the Cape Coast Metropolis?
- What is the most preferred length of duration for sexual engagements among commercial sex workers in the Cape Coast Metropolis?
- What are the common commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis?

**Delimitation**

The study was delimited to the following: only female commercial sex workers aged between16 and 38 years in the following identified commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis: Kwaprow, Apewosika, Abura, Pedu, Antem, London Bridge, Coronation Street, Kru Town, Anafo, Ntsin, Amanful, and Brofoyedur. The most preferred setting, time of the day, the length of duration for sexual acts among commercial sex workers and common commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis was the main concern to the current researchers.

**Limitations of the Study**

The following were the limitations of the study:

1. Reaching out to the Commercial Sex Workers and engaging them for a scientific study was not without challenges since the practice is mostly carried out under the cover of darkness because it is illegal in Ghana. There was occasional disruption in data collection at a few of the hotspots due to where they are situated and time constraints on the part of some of the clients to fully complete the questionnaire. As a result, some of the questionnaire failed to pass the eligibility for inclusion criteria for data processing. Additionally, the non-cooperative attitude of some of the respondents, particularly, quitting the data collection process unceremoniously contributed to a shortfall in the sample size of 386.
2. The subjectivity of the respondents in responding to the questionnaire due to fear of full disclosure and social

desirability, as it may pertain in every scientific research, could not be completely ruled out neither were they underestimated.

## Research Methods

This section presents the method used to undertake the study. It comprises the research design, population, sample and sampling procedures, data collection instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis procedures.

### *Research design*

The procedure for collecting, analysing, interpreting and reporting data in this research study (Creswell & Clarke, 2017) was the mixed method design. Specifically, the nested concurrent design was used. The choice of the concurrent mixed methods design was based on a number of reasons. Firstly, it is adjudged to be particularly useful when investigating complex issues such as commercial sex work where different levels of analysis are needed (Creswell & Clarke, 2017). Secondly, it is suitable for getting rich and comprehensive data that capture both the "what and the why" of a phenomenon being studied, thereby resulting in a deeper understanding of the topic.

Furthermore, the nested concurrent design borders on it being time-efficient. As pointed out by Creswell and Clark (2017). Both types of data - quantitative and qualitative are collected concurrently, this design was able to help the researchers save time better than if a sequential mixed methods design had been used. For the current study, both the quantitative and the qualitative phases of the study were carried out at the same time but independent of each other. Also, both data were converged to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. Additionally, more weight was given to the quantitative data than the qualitative (Creswell & Clark, 2017; Creswell, 2003). The rationale was to ensure the provision of a more accurate description and acceptable generalisation of the findings (Ogah, 2013).

## Population

The population for the study comprised two different groups. They are commercial sex workers for the quantitative component and key stakeholder institutions such as the Oguaa Traditional Council and

Metro Department of Social Welfare and Community Development for the qualitative component.

***Population for the quantitative***

The target population for the study comprised all female commercial sex workers in the Cape Coast Metropolis numbering over 1,950 as per the estimates of West Africa Programme to Combat AIDS & STI (WAPCAS), Ghana, Cape Coast office, 2019. However, the accessible population was 954 female Commercial Sex Workers obtained from the 2019 annual reports and statistical data of the West Africa Programme to Combat AIDS & STI (WAPCAS), Ghana.

***Population for the qualitative***

Additionally, 16 key stakeholder institutions in the Cape Coast Metropolis were also included in the study. The table outlines their names/designations and their operational identity. Their operational identities are classified under the following: traditional authority, civil society organisation, religious group, professional association, social unit, and government institution.

**Table 1**: ***Targeted key stakeholder institutions in the Cape Coast Metropolis***

| No | Name/Designation | Operational Identity |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Central regional House of Chiefs | Traditional authority |
| 2. | Regional Peace Council | Religious |
| 3. | Oguaa Traditional Council | Religious |
| 4. | Coalition of media houses | Civil Society organisation |
| 5. | National Teacher Associations (GNAT/NAGRAT) | Professional Association |
| 6. | Local Council of Churches, Cape Coast | Religious |
| 7. | Household/Family community of a sex worker | Social unit |
| 8. | Central Regional Coordinating Council | Government institution |
| 9. | Regional AIDS Commission | Government institution |
| 10. | Regional Department of Gender | Government institution |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 11. | Ministry of Health/Ghana Health Service | Government institution |
| 12. | Central Regional Development Commission | Government institution |
| 13. | Ghana Police Service (Central Region DOVVSU) | Government institution |
| 14. | Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly | Government institution |
| 15. | Metro Department of Social Welfare & Community Development, Cape Coast | Government institution |
| 16. | Metro Education Directorate, Girl Child Division | Government institution |

**Source**: *field survey (2019*)

**Sample and Sampling Procedure(s)**

Sample dealt with the process used in obtaining a component of the target population to represent the entire population (Amedahe & Asamoah-Gyimah, 2015). Simply put, it is the members of a population selected to participate in a study (White, 2015; Ogah, 2013). The sample for the study was from two different groups. Namely, commercial sex workers and persons in key positions, heads of departments and coordinators, in key stakeholder institutions in the Metropolis.

***Sampling of Research Participants***

The sample size for the commercial sex workers was determined based on the estimates of Creswell (2012). Creswell stipulates a minimum sample size of 350 for a research survey (of which the current study is). However, the sample size for the commercial sex workers was increased by 36 to obtain 384 based on the assertion of Glenn (1992). Glenn asserts that it is necessary for sample sizes to be adjusted.

The reason for the increase (upward adjustment) of 36 for the current study was to cater for possible fallouts, especially social desirability and fear of full disclosure. The fallouts could possibly occur during the data collection stage on the parts of the participants. Additionally, it was also to cater for any attritions during data processing stages. The attrition could result from incomplete responses and wrongful completion of the questionnaire.

A multi-stage sampling technique comprising purposive sampling, simple random sampling, and convenience sampling was used in selecting the commercial sex workers. It had been determined from the onset that 50% of the 12 commercial sex work hotspots and 50% of the key stakeholder institutions would be the sources from which the participants would be drawn. Specifically, purposive sampling was used to select 50% of the 12 commercial sex work hotspots in the Metropolis.

Simple random sampling (lottery method) was used to select the resulting number (six) commercial sex work hotspots. These were (1) Kru Town, (2) Anafo, (3) Ntsin, (4) Abura, (5) Antem and (6) Coronation Street, from the 12 commercial sex work hotspot in the Metropolis. Convenience sampling was used to select commercial sex workers from the six selected hotspots. Convenience sampling was used at this stage because it helped to include whoever happened to be available at the particular points in time among the already existing groups under investigations (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2009). This was facilitated through the assistance of West Africa Program for Combating AIDS & STI (WAPCAS), Ghana personnel, who by the nature of their work have well-established official regular and routine interactions with the community of the commercial sex workers in the Metropolis.

***Sampling of Key Stakeholder Institutions***

As said earlier, purposive sampling method was used to select key stakeholder institutions. Fifty percent of the 16 key stakeholder institutions (ie, eight) were sampled in the Metropolis for the research. Furthermore, simple random sampling (lottery method) was used to select the resulting eight key stakeholder institutions. Table 2 below shows the selected key stakeholder institutions.

**Table 2**: *Names and functioning identity of the selected stakeholder institutions in the Cape Coast Metropolis*

| No | Name of selected institutions | Functioning identity |
|---|---|---|
| 1. | Oguaa Traditional Council | Traditional authority |
| 2. | Girl-Child Division, Metro Education Directorate | Government institution |
| 3. | Metro Dept of Social Welfare & Community Development | Government institution |
| 4. | Ghana AIDS Commission, C/Region Directorate | Government institution |
| 5. | Department of Gender | Government institution |
| 6. | Ghana Health Service | Government institution |
| 7. | Ghana Police Service (DOVVSU) | Government institution |
| 8. | Household/Family community of a commercial sex worker | Government institution |

**Source:** *field survey 2019)*

Furthermore, it was purposive sampling that was used to select one person in a key position from each of the eight key stakeholder institutions. They had to be either heads of departments or coordinators of key stakeholder institutions. The principles of adequacy (DeVillis, 2017) and saturation (Baker & Edwards, 2012; Cobern & Adams, 2020) greatly informed the sampling of the participants for the qualitative component. In sum, the sample size used for the study was 364. It comprised 356 commercial sex workers and eight persons in key positions in the selected key stakeholder institutions in the Metropolis.

**Data Collection Instruments**

Two data collection instruments designed by the researchers were used for the study: a questionnaire titled "Nature and Practice of Commercial Sex Work Questionnaire" and an interview guide titled "Interview Guide on Nature and Practice of Commercial Sex Work". Certain key considerations informed and guided the development and construction of the instruments. Notably among them are the objectives

of the study and observations from the pilot testing. Furthermore, reviewed literature and the eight guidelines for scale construction outlined by DeVillis (2017) played a vital role. Both data collection instruments were administered directly to the participants on one-on-one basis.

***The Questionnaire***

The questionnaire had two sections: A and B and a total of **9** items. Section A - demographic characteristics of respondents (**5** items) and Section B – settings (location), preferred time of the day and length of duration for commercial sex acts (4 items). There was one question each for settings and length of duration while preferred time of the day had two questions, one on the side of the sex worker and the other, the clients attended to. Each of the four items had stated responses from which the participants selected their responses. Responses were selected by ticking in the appropriate box. The questionnaire was administered directly to the participants with the help of trained field research assistants. The research assistants were carefully trained by the researchers.

**Table 3: Setting, time of the day and length of duration for commercial sexual acts**

| **Question (s)** | **Setting (Venue)** |
|---|---|
| Where do you attend to your clients? | Street corners [ ]<br>Rented houses[ ]<br>Hotels [ ]<br>Guest houses [ ]<br>Ghettos [ ]<br>Brothels [ ]<br>Escort agencies[ ]<br>Clubs/bars [ ] |
| Time of day you prefer your sexual acts? | Day-time [ ]<br>Night-time [ ] |
| Time of the day your clients prefer sexual acts? | Day-time [ ]<br>Night-time [ ] |

| | |
|---|---|
| Your most preferred duration for servicing clients? | Short-time services [ ]<br>Long-time services [ ] |

**Source:** *field survey (2019)*

***The Interview Guide***

Unlike the questionnaire, the interview guide was administered to only the selected persons in key positions in the key stakeholder institutions in the Metropolis. The interview guide had a brief introduction and a section on respondent's demographics as well as a section on questions that were asked. There were four main questions, however, follow up and/or subsidiary questions were asked as and when necessary to either elucidate some of the participant's responses or provide more clarity on some of their responses. The interview was conducted by the researchers on a face-to-face basis using a tape recorder. The recorded interviews were carefully transcribed and typed. Hard copy versions were given directly to the respondents to confirm or otherwise. Furthermore, the data was transcribed and analysed using thematic analysis by Braun and Clarke (2006).

**Pilot Testing**

The questionnaire was pilot-tested in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis in the Western Region of Ghana. Reasons for their choice include the fact that the two Metropolis are identical in many respects. For instance, both are coastal metropolis with well-patronized landing beaches and fishing harbours. Also, both cities are Regional Capitals, Metropolitan administrative headquarters, and political heads (assemblies) and have had extensive contacts with early European merchants in the then Gold Coast. Additionally, both Metropolis have a history of commercial sex work and activities dating back to the colonial era. They also host active and popular commercial sex hotspots.

Thirty (30) Commercial Sex Workers participated in the pilot study on two different occasions with an interval period of two weeks. The same participants were used in both instances for pilot testing the questionnaire. The feedback from the pilot study greatly assisted in effecting changes and making corrections in the instrument.

Ambiguities identified and poorly worded items that were not clearly understood, together with irrelevant items that readily became exposed during the pilot study were carefully and appropriately dealt with. The pilot study provided useful information about deficiencies and elicited appropriate suggestions for improvement and modifications which ensured the content validity of the instrument. It also afforded first-hand experience and direction which greatly facilitated the smooth running and success of the main study (Creswell, 2012; Frankel & Wallen, 1993).

**Validity and Reliability**

The validity of the instruments was determined by five experienced professionals and 3 experts in the field of instrument development who thoroughly scrutinized and vetted them. The content validity of the instrument was determined by a team of three experts in the University of Cape Coast. The expert views and opinions of these were sought because the validity of an instrument is improved through expert judgment (DeVon, Block, Moyle-Wright, Ernest, Hayden, Lazzara et al., 2007). McDonald's omega or coefficient omega and the test-retest methods (DeVellis, 2017) helped in determining the internal consistency of the questionnaire. The test – retest method was used in determining the reliability of the section B of the questionnaire. The same questionnaire was administered to the same respondents on two different occasions and the correlation between the two scores for each of the items were estimated (DeVellis, 2017; Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009; Pallant, 2004). The reliability coefficients for the items on section B of the questionnaire ranged from .78 to .85 thus, suggesting a good level of reliability (Pallant, 2004).

**Ethical Considerations**

Ethical approval for the study was formally sought and obtained and the needed measures were put in place to ensure the maximum protection of the anonymity of both the participants and their responses. Informed consent was also duly sought and obtained. Ethical clearance was obtained from the Institutional Review Board, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast. Respondents for both the quantitative and qualitative components were duly informed about the purposes of the study. The participants were adequately briefed about the goals and

benefits of the study. Finally, all the participants were well assured of anonymity and confidentiality of their responses.

**Data processing and analysis**

The study examined the most used setting, preferred time of the day, length of duration for the sexual acts and the most common commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The research question had both quantitative (4 items) and qualitative (1 item) components. Hence, they were processed and analysed using both quantitative and qualitative analytical procedure. The quantitative data were processed with the assistance of the SPSS software version 25.0. The same SPSS was also used in carrying out the descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics, frequencies and percentages, were used in the analysis of data and discussions thereof. In each case decisions and conclusions were based on simple majority of responses. In addition to the quantitative analysis, data collected from the persons in key positions in the key stakeholder institutions via interviews were transcribed and analysed using thematic analysis as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). Both quantitative and qualitative data were integrated during the data analysis stage.

**Results**

***Setting, Time of the day, the duration for commercial sex acts***

**Table 4: Setting, time of the day and length of duration for commercial sex acts**

| Question | Setting (Venue) | Freq. | % | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Where do you attend to your clients? | Street corners | 8 | 2.2 | 4th |
| | Rented houses | 31 | 8.7 | 3rd |
| | Hotels | 90 | 25.3 | 2nd |
| | Guest houses | 219 | 61.5 | 1st |
| | Ghettos | 4 | 1.1 | 5th |
| | Brothels | 1 | 0.3 | 7th |
| | Escort agencies | 1 | 0.3 | 7th |
| | Clubs/drinking bars | 2 | 0.6 | 6th |
| | ***Total*** | ***356*** | ***100.0*** | |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Time of day you prefer your sexual activity? | Day-time | 22 | 6.2 | 2nd |
| | Night-time | 334 | 93.8 | 1st |
| | ***Total*** | ***356*** | ***100.0*** | |
| Time of the day your clients prefer for sexual activity? | Day-time | 27 | 7.6 | 2nd |
| | Night-time | 329 | 92.4 | 1st |
| | ***Total*** | ***356*** | ***100.0*** | |
| Your most preferred duration for servicing clients? | Short-time services | 270 | 75.9 | 1st |
| | Long-time services | 86 | 24.1 | 2nd |
| | ***Total*** | ***356*** | ***100.0*** | |

***Source: field survey (2019)***

From Table 4, information on the setting, time of the day, and length of duration for the commercial sex consummation are presented. As shown in Table 4, the majority (n = 219 or 61.5%) of the respondents indicated they mostly attend to their clients in guest houses. Quite a significant number of the respondents totalling (n = 334, 93.8%) reported commercial sex activities mostly take place during night-time. Similarly, (n = 329, 92.4%) of the respondents reported that their clients mostly prefer to have sexual activities during night-time. Commercial sex activities were predominantly short-time services, as reported by the majority of respondents (n = 270, 75.9%).

In addition to the information provided by the commercial sex workers, responses were taken from key informants with respect to the most common commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Participants' responses indicated that there are indeed popular commercial sex hotspots within the Cape Coast Metropolis. The data showed that Anafo, Coronation Street, Ntsin, Brofuyedur, Kwaprow, Abura, London Bridge and Kru Town are among the most common commercial sex hotspots within the Metropolis.

***Distribution of Key Informants with respect to Gender and Place of Work/Institution***

The eight respondents or key informants that were interviewed for the study were persons who possessed knowledge of commercial sex work within the Cape Coast Metropolis. Table 2 presents the distribution of Key Informants by gender and place of work.

**Table 5: Distribution of key informants with respect to gender and institution of work**

| Description | Group | Freq. | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| Sex | Male | 5 | 62.5 |
| | Female | 3 | 37.5 |
| | *Total* | *8* | *100.0* |
| Place of work/Institution | Government Institution | 5 | 62.5 |
| | Traditional Authority | 1 | 12.5 |
| | NGO | 1 | 12.5 |
| | Guardian/relative | 1 | 12.5 |
| | *Total* | *8* | *100.0* |

**Source:** *field survey (2019)*

From Table 5, the participants comprised five males and three females. Out of the eight participants, five were selected from government institutions and the remaining three were selected from a traditional authority, a non-governmental organisation, and a guardian/relative of a commercial sex worker.

**Results of the qualitative component:**

***Commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis***

The participants revealed that some communities within the Cape Coast Metropolis are noted as commercial sex hotspots. In other words, the sale and purchase of sexual services are available within these identified communities. The following are some of the extracts from the responses of the participants to that effect.

> *Yes, from the little I know, there are certain areas that are prone to commercial sex work and activities. From my work experiences I have come to realise that places like along the beach, Anafo, Brofuyedur area, I also know that around the*

*Baakano area that is also prone to such sex works. Then I also have heard about Apewosika/Amamoma area, Kwaprow, these areas behind the UCC as part of the areas that this kind of trade goes on. (GRDO)*

*Yes, the NGO (WAPCAS) that normally deals with the commercial sex workers for us, have places they call hotspots, these are places where commercial sex work and activities take place in the Metropolis. . .. Ntsin, Anafo, OLA, Kwaprow, Coronation and Gyeagyeno are some of the places in Cape Coast where WAPCAS operates.* **(GACOH)**

*We work in about Nine (9) places in Cape Coast, so since we work in these places, it might be dominant in these places. We have Kru Town, Coronation, Abura, London Bridge, Ntsin, Aboom Wells, Melcom, Brofoyedur, and Top Yard. These are places where sex work is really predominant in the Cape Coast Metropolis.* **(WCCM)**

**Discussion**

The purpose of the study was to investigate the setting, preferred time of the day, length of duration for sexual acts and most common commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The results of the study showed that sex workers mostly preferred to attend to their clients in recognizable hospitality facilities such as guest houses and hotels (86.8%: comprising guest houses, 61.5% and hotels, 25.3%). Reasons on the side of the sex workers may be to ensure their maximum security and protection necessary to safeguard themselves against abuses, defrauding, trafficking, and sexual enslavement that usually characterise sex work. This finding closely aligns with the publications of Greenberg et al. (2014) and Malarek, (2011). They both identify guest houses and rented apartments as some of the venues where commercial sexual acts are carried out. Nonetheless, their publications did not classify guest house as the most preferred setting for commercial sexual acts as is the case of the current study.

Additionally, this finding is at variance with Ezeh et al. (2019) and Brooks-Gordon (2006) who reported that brothel sex work(ers) are the most predominant among the Igbo's of Southeastern Nigeria. Their findings clearly point out that brothel sex work in that region is the most popular. Brooks-Gordon on his part acknowledges the prominence and

popularity of brothel in sex work. He intimates that brothel to a large extent helps sex workers to offer sexual services to their clients at relatively cheaper prices than call girls. The finding of Campbell et al., (2019) based on a study which sought to explore technology–mediated sex work: fluidity, networking and regulation in the United Kingdom, revealed that with the advent of mobile technology commercial sex workers have shifted to the use of on-line services such as webcaming, phone sex, and other attractive settings – exotic dance, agency work, and street work. This finding contradicts the finding of this current study which found that the majority of sex workers in the Cape Coast Metropolis use guest house and hotels for their commercial sex engagements.

Regarding the most preferred time of the day for sexual acts, the study found that from the point of view of the respondents, both they and their clients, predominantly preferred night time engagements to day time, 93.8% and 92.4%, respectively. This may be an attempt on the part of both parties to conceal their involvement in the commercial sex trade from the attention of the general public. Such a choice helps them greatly to deal with the fear of stigmatization, marginalization and social exclusion as well as danger of arrest, prosecution, and consequently fines and custodial sentences that are usually meted out to such offenders.

It also came to light that the most preferred length of duration for sexual acts was the short - time - services (30 - 45 minutes). About 76% of the respondents indicated that their most preferred length of duration for sexual acts with their clients was the short - time service. It is plausible that the short - time - services are safer for them, less stressful and less demanding. Under such a situation it is unlikely for any strong emotional attachments to be established between the two parties. Again, the short - time services may have a high rate of turnover, resulting in accruing more financial and/or material rewards.

**Conclusion**

The study revealed that most of the commercial sex workers in the Cape Coast Metropolis attend to their clients in guest houses and hotels and their sexual acts and activities mostly occur during night - time. The length of duration for sexual engagements was mostly the short-time-services. Additionally, although commercial sex work is illegal and prohibited by the laws of Ghana, there are common

commercial sex "hotspots" found in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The existence and activities of these common hotspots are very well known by the general public. It was evident from the study that most of the communities within which commercial sex work hotspots are coastal towns and predominantly fishing communities. Also, the commercial sex hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis are not only popular but vibrant and well patronized.

**Recommendations**

The researchers should liaise with the key stakeholder institutions in the Cape Coast Metropolis, especially the Department of Social Welfare and Community Development together with the Oguaa traditional council to undertake awareness campaigns within the common commercial sex hotspots in the Metropolis aimed at facilitating effective disbandment of such commercial sex hotspots.

Additionally, the Ministries of Education and Local Government together with the Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly, should not only intensify sensitization drives geared toward discouraging the patronage of the hotspots to render them less appealing. They must ensure that the law-enforcement agencies are adequately resourced and empowered to effectively undertake all the needed enforcement activities to discourage the creation, functioning and patronage of these hotspots in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

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