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EDITORIAL COMMENT

JEM 5 focuses on contempory issues in educational ledership, management and policy.The technical hitches that struck at the core of the journal are things of the past now. Take time and feed yourself with the academic meat provided by our contributors in this edition.

The computer has become a household name in our times and takes centre place in academic pedagogy and social interactions. Its use in the university set-up needs no emphasis, and indeed no university today will dare without the computer, else it would be shorn of the goodies of our modern information system. As a nascent technology in our institutions, Bosu delves into the use of the computer in three oldest public universities in Ghana – University of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi and the University of Cape Coast. Ghanaian public universities are still in the rudimental phase of the use of the computer, therefore access to the computer, that is its availability and the skills in the use of the computer engage the attention of management in the universities for the effective and efficient human resource development in our universities.

One of the sizzling issues in the education system of Ghana has been distance education. Although not new to Ghana, and especially with the involvement of the universities, distance education in Ghana is going through a renaissance, awakening the interest of many to make them abreast with trends in education globally. Ossei-Anto examines the practice of Open, Distance and Flexible Education in selected universities abroad and how it is perceived and operates in Ghana. Like Bosu, Ossei-Anto stresses the singular need of university graduates and teachers at all levels of education in Ghana to be adequately trained and versed in the use of the computer as one the ways to enhance distance education.

One Greek philosopher said "everything is a flux; nothing abides; you cannot step in the same river twice". On a similar note, Dzinyela notes the paucity of initial training in preparing the teacher for life-long education. No one can enter a job and remain in it for years with their skills unchanged. They will surely suffer atrophy and demise. As institutions expand and grow and become complex so should the staff in the organization, - government, school and others – be given adequate and viable knowledge to make them effective in the attainment of the

organizational goals. The importance of in-service education in Ghana, its nature and the problems that bedeviled in-service education in Ghana have been examined in this work.

Oguntimehin assesses the adequacy of the modules and the achievement of the objectives of the National Teachers Institute's (NTI) Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) programme in Ogun State. Doubts have been expressed in Nigeria about the efficacy of NTI distant learning programme and the quality of the NCE that goes with it. There is no gainsaying the fact that the availability of the requisite textbooks and other instructional materials in conjunction with adequately prepared and committed teachers contributes immensely to the attainment of curriculum objectives.

Studies have generally shown that high labour turn-over is associated with rising job dissatisfaction. Akintayo tests four hypotheses on the impact of labour turn-over on organisational effectiveness in selected industries in Lagos, Nigeria. In doing so, strategies for keeping labour turn-over in its barest minimum in organisations have been suggested. Lessons from industry could equally be applied to education.

In a similar vein, Akinatayo and Babajide examine the impact of organisational treatment on job satisfaction in selected tertiary institutions in Nigeria. In organisations such as tertiary institutions, certain factors do exist that either enhance or impede workers' job satisfaction. Akintayo and Babajide also explore how organisational treatment - fairness of selection and recruitment procedures, interpersonal treatment and other factors - affect workers' attitude to work. Recommendations that will enhance work satisfaction and attitude to work have been made.

The saga of how not to govern a university well is taken up by Kuu-ire. Leaders make efforts to organise and lead in such a way that the organisational goals are achieved, but for a leader of a tertiary institution to decide not to govern the institution well should be an art to be learnt. Kuu-ire evaluates how people in authority in universities use discretionary power over colleagues and their commitment to operate within the ambience of the statutes of the university. Certain grey areas that often bother managers of universities are discussed and ways for mitigating the effect of these factors have been suggested.

Competency-based training requires the worker to exhibit a wide range of skills which are specific, flexible and adaptable in order to meet the challenges of the ever changing global economy and technology. Polytechnic education in Ghana is quandary, particularly as they have turned tertiary. How could the Civil Engineering Department of the Takoradi Polytechnic in Ghana reposition itself to meet the challenges of the changing occupational structures? Apori and Nkrumah investigate how the department could improve the effectiveness of the existing mechanisms in the institution and maximize the effectiveness of Polytechnic-industry collaborations.

Agyenim-Boateng has the hunch that despite the widespread use of performance appraisal in industry and occupational hierarchies little is available in literature concerning the perceptions and experiences of universities in developing countries on performance appraisal. Employees from four public universities in Ghana are used for the study to ascertain the veracity of the existing performance appraisal systems in use in the universities. The study concludes that universities, through performance appraisal, should treat their employees as treasured resources strategically managed towards the attainment of improved employee performance and the effectiveness of the universities as well.

Another area in the education system of Ghana that has attracted public debate over the years is the language policy. There have been changes and counter changes on the language policy: the use of English as the lingua franca and as the medium of instruction in the education system of Ghana. Even more overarching is the issue of when to start using English as the medium of instruction in Ghanaian schools – whether to start from day one when the child steps into the school or to wait for a while for English to be taught in school till after the first three years in school. Should Ghana vouch for bilingualism or adopt a uni-lingual perspective? Ankomah delves into the language dilemma and the encompassing related issues of teacher quantity and quality in the language areas and attitudes shown towards the study and use of the local language in Ghana.

Finally, Oduro and Dawson-Brew swim into the arena of quality in basic education in Ghana. There is an indispensable espousal between quality education and quality leadership in basic schools. In competences and competencies for primary school leadership practice, Oduro and Dawson-Brew succinctly show that the

head teacher of a primary school should necessarily exhibit certain leadership competences that translate into the development of appropriate classroom and school level leadership to facilitate teaching and learning. Indicators of competences have been discussed from the perspectives of industrialized and Ghanaian societies. The dicey issue of contrast between competences and competencies is also highlighted from western and Ghanaian perspectives.

Thus whetted, come along with us on a journey through contemporary issues in education in this part of our world. You are welcome to insightful readings.

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Ag Editor.

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UTILIZATION OF COMPUTER TECHNOLOGY IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA: IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT

R. S. Bosu

Absstact

This study investigated computer technology for instructional and administrative use in public universities in Ghana. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to 450 academic staff and 98 administrators in three Ghanaian public universities: the University of Cape Coast (UCC), the University of Ghana (UG), and Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST).

Computers were generally available for both lecturers and administrators to use. Availability and access to technology did not differ significantly between universities. Academic staff used computers mainly for preparing lecture notes or reports while administrators used them mainly for preparing memos and reports. Fifty-five percent of lecturers and 58% of administrators reported low or moderate skills in the use of computers. A majority of the respondents obtained their skills through self tuition rather than formal tuition.

The findings suggest that universities could improve the availability, access and skills in the use of relevant technologies as part of their staff development programmes. Progress could be monitored by current accreditation programmes.

Introduction

Computer technology refers primarily to the use of computers to access information, communicate, support instruction and assist in the accomplishment of administrative and managerial tasks in educational institutions. The effective use of computer technology depends upon its availability and the skills of users. Computer technology is paramount in improving teaching and learning in educational institutions.

The trend of technology use in education has not been the same everywhere. Some countries have moved faster than others and even within countries, districts have moved at different rates. Although some educators assume educational technology is a recent development, it is clear that whatever form or direction educational technology may take, it has a long continuous history that began in ancient times (Saettler, 1990). Rapid changes and improvements in computer technology are occurring everyday and they are becoming beneficial to almost every sector of the society.

Educational institutions are bound to join this technological revolution, in order to keep up with the pace of the computer age and, benefit from it.

The introduction of new technologies and their use in educational settings bring about changes in the way things are done within educational institutions. According to Charp (1998), the Internet and interactive computer-based multimedia capabilities are transforming educational institutions and the way teachers teach and students learn. She observed that, although training of new teachers to use technology is still not widespread, a large number of educators do use technology and technology is motivating as teachers become more comfortable with its use.

Studies have further shown that technology can improve and make teaching and learning more effective. For instance, one study conducted showed that the use of technology at the University of Illinois improved communications with students, provided active learning, and enabled students to become involved in learning how to use new tools (Sumner & Hostetler, 1999). Technology in education provides an array of tools for acquiring information and increasing access to successful learning (Dwyer 1994). The appropriate use of computer technology can improve teachers' skills and knowledge, enhance the achievement of all students and improve school administration and management. Kulik and Kulik (1991), for instance, found that software incorporating self-paced instruction improved the speed of learning and student achievement consistently by 20%.

There are many factors that can deter or enhance the use of computer technology in schools. The factors may be economic, cultural, physical or personal. Technology can be expensive and an institution may not be economically capable of acquiring technology devices and facilities. Factors that influence technology use especially in higher educational institutions include the incompatibility of technology and organizations' capability and skills, available support for technology use and environmental factors (Sumner & Hostetler, 1999). In order for technology to be utilized effectively, a technological infrastructure must exist, and the specific technology being introduced needs to be compatible with experiences and values of potential users. These issues are

important to consider if technology can be used more effectively.

In Ghana, government support to the public universities as well as other tertiary institutions continues to decline in the face of the continuing increase in operating cost per student and the sharp increase in the demand for tertiary education. Higher education in Africa is facing a critical challenge to meet new demands for the 21st century with its ever-increasing population growth (Darkwa & Mazibuko, 2000). As more people seek access to higher education, academic courses are being diversified to meet increased enrolments and to satisfy manpower needs. In the process, educational institutions have become larger and more complex, but at the same time resources to provide infrastructure have become more difficult to obtain. Since computer technology is an important resource in any growing educational institution, it is important that it is used effectively to aid in achieving educational goals.

Overall, with computer technology, tasks could be accomplished more effectively and efficiently and should therefore be integrated in any education plan (Picciano 2002). However, there are challenges in its use including acquiring and maintaining equipment usually at great cost; providing appropriate infrastructure; and training staff to use the technologies as they are introduced into the educational system.

Statement of the Problem

In spite of its educational importance, the availability and extent of use of computer technology in Ghanaian public universities have not been fully described. Neither have the frequency and purpose of computer technology use by lecturers and administrators been documented. This study was therefore undertaken to assess the extent to which computers are used in Ghanaian tertiary institutions particularly public universities. The study also compared the differences in computer technology use among the various public universities.

Two key questions that were raised to provide focus for the study were:

1. What are there are computer echnologies being used in the three Ghanaian universities studied in terms of instruction by lecturers?

2. What are the computer technologies being used in the three Ghanaian universities studied in terms of task performance by administrators?

Methodology

There are a total of five public universities comprising the University of Ghana (UG), Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), University of Cape Coast (UCC), University of Education Winneba (UEW), and the University of Development Studies (UDS). The target population of the study included all the lecturers and senior administrators of the five public universities. However, the study participants were purposively selected from the three oldest public universities, namely UCC, UG, and KNUST. These three universities were selected because they are regarded as pacesetters, well established and leaders in tertiary education in Ghana. It was premised that they represent a typical profile of Ghanaian public universities and a generalization could be made from the findings.

In each of the three universities, two groups of professionals constituting the senior members of the universities, namely, lecturers and administrators, were selected for the study. The sampling frame for the lecturers and senior administrators was derived from the latest available staff lists from each university. There were 474 lecturers and 41 administrators from UG, 394 lecturers and 29 administrators from KNUST, and 285 lecturers and 28 administrators from UCC. This gave a total sampling frame of 1153 lecturers and 98 senior administrators. The majority of lecturers and administrators were males in all the universities. In KNUST, UG and UCC, 93%, 62% and 87% respectively were male lecturers. In the case of the male administrators they formed 84% in KNUST, 71% in UG and 93% in UCC.

The lecturers were selected by stratified random sampling. The various faculties to which they belong formed the strata; 40% of lecturers were selected from each stratum to give a sample size of 450. All 98 senior administrators of the rank of Assistant Registrar or higher were purposively selected, as they did not constitute a large population.

The variables investigated included availability and access to computer technology resources, what the computers were used for and the frequency of computer use. The

types of training staff have received in computer use, skills they have in its use, and the determinants of computer technology use were also examined. Regarding the computer skills, respondents were asked to self-rate their proficiency as one of three options – highly proficient, moderate (some working skills) and low (basic knowledge).

The relationship between selected explanatory characteristics (relating to the sex, status, teaching experience and specialty of the faculty member as well as easy access to a computer) and frequency of computer use (weekly or daily) was examined using a logistic regression model. Respondents were also asked about their general perception of the value of computer technology.

Of the 188 people who participated in the study, 80(43%) were lecturers from KNUST, 55(29%) from UCC and 53(28%) from UG. Overall, 99 (53%) lecturers worked in the broad field of Sciences, 64 (34%) in the Humanities, and 25 (13%) in Education (see Table 1). There were 61 administrators, including 19 from KNUST, 14 from UCC and 28 from UG. The majority (72%) of the senior administrators worked in the general administrative sector of the universities and the remainder worked in the administrative section of the schools, colleges, and faculties (see Table 2).

Table 1
Characteristics of Lecturers within the Three Universities

Characteristics	UCC N=55	UG N =53	KNUST N=80	Total N =188	UCC %	UG %	KNUST %	Total %
Field of study								
Sciences	14	23	62	99	25.5	43.4	77.5	52.7
Humanities	16	30	8	64	29.1	56.6	22.5	34.0
Education	25	0	0	25	45.5	0.0	0.0	13.3
Rank								
Professor	0	1	3	4	0.0	1.9	3.8	2.1
Associate Prof	4	4	6	14	7.3	7.5	7.5	7.4
Senior Lecturer	12	20	27	59	21.8	37.7	33.8	31.4
Lecturer	32	22	42	96	58.2	41.5	52.5	51.1
Assistant Lecturer	7	6	2	15	12.7	11.3	2.5	8.0

Table 2
Characteristics of Administrators within the Three Universities

Characteristics	UCC N=55	UG N =53	KNUST N=80	Total N =188	UCC %	UG %	KNUST %	Total %
Work sector								
Central Administration	11	20	13	44	78.5	71.4	68.4	72.1
Within faculties, schools, colleges	3	8	6	17	21.4	28.5	31.5	27.9
Rank								
Assistant Registrar	8	22	12	42	57.1	78.6	63.2	68.9
Senior Assistant Registrar	2	6	5	13	14.3	21.4	26.3	21.3
Deputy Registrar	3	0	2	5	21.4	0.0	10.5	8.2
Registrar	1	0	0	1	7.1	0.0	0.0	1.6

Computer Technologies used by Lecturers

Computers and printers were found to be widely available to 96% of lecturers either within their own departments or elsewhere in their respective universities (UCC 98%, UG 93% and KNUST 98%). Some computer technology related facilities such as Internet, and email, were frequently shared between departments rather than owned by individual departments. Generally, 93% of lecturers to whom computers were available reported easy access to them. Lecturers from KNUST had the greatest access (98%) while those from UCC had the least access (85%).

With regard to the procedures followed to obtain access to the available computer technology devices, lecturers indicated that computers, printers, Internet, and email facilities were most frequently available on their desktops or located in departmental offices. A higher proportion of lecturers in KNUST (56%) and UG (58%) reported access to computers from their desktops, than those in UCC (28%).

In contrast, lecturers had to apply in writing to access LCD projectors for use. Although available computers were fairly accessible, 78% of lecturers in UCC, 89% in UG and 91% in KNUST reported that the computers were inadequate in number. Other reported limitations to computer technology use were unreliable electricity, inadequate technician support and large class sizes.

Generally, lecturers used computers, printers, Internet and email facilities daily or weekly. Seventy eight percent of lecturers used computers daily, while 77% used LCD projectors only occasionally. The chi square test was used to compare the frequency of computer use among the three universities. The frequency of use of computers differed significantly between the universities $\div^2$ (8, N = 176) = 50.07, $p< 0.01$. Those who had easy access to available computers and their peripherals used them more frequently, that is, on a daily basis rather than occasionally. Sixty-eight (88%) lecturers at KNUST used the computers daily compared with 29 (57%) lecturers in UCC. Computers were most frequently used for preparing lecture notes, reports or memos (85%) and electronic mail (61%), (see Table 4). Although lecturers valued computers and enjoyed using them for their teaching and research activities, less than 42% of them used computers for teaching or making presentations at workshops. Lecturers at UG appeared to be most likely to use computers for teaching related functions. Microsoft Word was the most common computer applications used (98%)while AutoCAD was the least common (14%). Other applications used by lecturers were Excel (84%), Microsoft Power Point (76%), SPSS (47%), and Microsoft Access (27%).

From the logistic regression model, factors independently associated with frequent use of computers were easy access to computers, rank of lecturer, current university of lecturer, being a male staff and longer teaching experience (see Table 3). Two of these were significantly associated with the frequent use of computers. Compared with Assistant lecturers, lecturers were nearly nine times as likely to use computers frequently, after taking account of their sex, specialty, teaching experience. Lecturers at KNUST were nearly ten times as likely to use computers frequently as those at UCC. The probability of using computers frequently increased with increasing years of teaching experiences; however these differences were not statistically significant (see Table 3).

Lecturers who used computers had acquired their skills through self-tuition (63%), workshops (21%) or formal computer courses (32%). Lecturers in UG were most likely to self-report high proficiency in computer use (50%) as against 30% in the other two universities.

Table 3
Logistic Regression Analysis Explaining the Frequent Use of Computers

Term (factors that might affect use)	Odds Ratio	95% C.I.		Coefficient	S.E.	Z-Statistic	P-Value
Rank (2/1)	8.6	1.7	44.0	2.1	0.8	2.6	0.01
Rank (3/1)	0.9	0.1	5.1	-0.1	0.9	-0.2	0.88
Rank (4/1)	1.2	0.1	12.0	0.2	1.2	0.2	0.87
Curruniv (2/1)	2.6	0.6	11.4	1.0	0.7	1.3	0.19
Curruniv (3/1)	9.5	1.4	65.8	2.3	1.0	2.3	0.02
Sex (Yes/No)	2.9	0.9	9.8	1.1	0.6	1.7	0.08
FacGroup (2/1)	1.4	0.4	5.4	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.61
FacGroup (3/1)	1.0	0.2	5.6	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.98
Accesspc (Yes/No)	4.1	0.9	19.2	1.4	0.8	1.8	0.07
Teachexp (2/1)	1.4	0.3	5.6	0.3	0.7	0.5	0.65
Teachexp (3/1)	2.5	0.3	21.1	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.41
Teachexp (4/1)	4.1	0.6	29.0	1.4	1.0	1.4	0.16
Constant	*	*	*	-2.4	1.4	-1.8	0.08

Note. rank = status of faculty member (1=Asst Lecturer, 2=Lecturer, 3=Snr Lecturer, 4=Assoc or Full Professor); Curruniv = Current University (1=UCC, 2=UG, 3=KNUST); Sex (referent group = female); FacGroup = broad specialty (1=Sciences, 2=Humanities, 3=Education); Accesspc = self reported ease of accessing a computer (referent group = difficult access); teachexp = years of teaching experience (1=Under 4 years, 2=4 to <10 years, 3=10-16 years, 4=More than 16 years)

Table 4
Areas of Computer Use by Academic Staff in the Three Universities

Use of Computers	UCC	UG	KNUST	Total	UCC %	UG %	KNUST %	Total %
Teaching	13	26	34	73	25.5	54.2	44.2	41.5
Presentation at Workshops	12	21	22	55	23.5	43.8	28.6	31.3
Preparing memos, notes and reports	41	44	64	149	80.4	91.7	83.1	84.7
Managing records	22	27	43	92	43.1	56.3	55.8	52.3
Communication (Email)	26	30	48	104	54.2	65.2	62.3	60.8
Obtain information (Internet)	16	14	30	60	34.0	30.4	39.5	35.5
Other	5	2	1	8	9.8	4.2	1.3	4.5

Computer Technologies Used by Administrators

Computers and printers were widely available to administrators. The differences in the departmental availability of email, and the Internet facilities between the universities were statistically significant ($P< 0.01$). Among administrators, who indicated that computer technologies were available, most of them reported easy access to computers 52 (85%), printers 51(83%) and LCD projectors 56(92%) for their work. As with the lecturers, administrators reported that computers and printers were most frequently available on their desktops while LCD projectors were available at resource centres. However, unlike the lecturers, the administrators had fewer problems obtaining the LCD projectors. A lower percentage of administrators reported inadequacy of computers (68.4%) from the three universities.Nearly 97% of administrators used computers daily, while 81.5% used LCD projectors only occasionally. Computers and printers were used most frequently by administrators for preparing memos and reports and to a lesser extent managing records. Computers were used for preparing memos and reports by 13 administrators in UCC (93%), 22 in UG (92%), and 16 in KNUST (89%) (See Table 5). The Internet, email and fax were used mainly for correspondence or communication purposes by a high proportion of the respondents. As with lecturers, university administrators were most likely to use computers and printers daily. However, a lower proportion of administrators (46%) used the Internet and email on a daily basis when compared to lecturers (60%).

More than half of the administrators ie. 33(58%), indicated that they had moderate working knowledge of computer technology. Their computer skills were obtained through workshops, formal courses, self-tuition, and other informal training such as learning from colleages, and learning on-the-job. More than half of the administrators reported self-tuition in the use of the Internet and email. On the whole, 55% had moderate skills in the use of computers, 45% in the use of the Internet and email. Of those who used computers, 52 (98%) used MS Word. The least commonly used applications were Access and AutoCAD. Although 45 out of the 53 administrators used Excel, they used it occasionally. It was expected that as administrators,

Access and Excel would be applications more commonly used by them for administrative activities such as data storage and management, and budgeting.

They commented that: "computers have come to revolutionize administration...one cannot begin to underestimate the strides that have been made in the various fields of

Table 5
Areas of Computer Use by Administrators in the Three Universities

Use of Computers	UCC N=55	UG N =53	KNUST N=80	Total N =188	UCC %	UG %	KNUST %	Total %
Teaching	0	1	0	1	0.0	4.2	0.0	1.8
Presentation at Workshops	1	4	1	6	7.1	16.7	5.6	10.5
Preparing memos, notes and reports	13	19	16	519	92.9	91.7	88.9	89.5
Managing records	8	17	8	33	57.1	70.8	44.4	57.9
Communication (Email)	11	16	13	40	78.5	76.1	72.2	75.4
Obtain information (Internet)	8	14	12	34	57.7	66.6	66.6	64.1
Communication (Fax)	5	14	8	27	35.7	66.6	44.4	50.9

There was no statistically significant difference in the skills of the respondents in the use of computers in the three universities. Comparatively, it appeared that administrators had rated themselves lower than lecturers in the skills they had in the use of computers (17% and 36% respectively).

Respondents were generally favourably disposed towards the use of computers. A majority of them viewed computers as time and energy savers.

human endeavour; thanks to the introduction of the computer"; "computer use has brought a breakthrough in information management, storage, and retrieval and it is indispensable to any modern office". Training was also generally considered an important issue; this is summed up in comments such as "There is an urgent need to train staff." The limitations to computer use were attributed to lack of software, skills, inadequate infrastructure, availability and accessibility.

Discussion

This study seems to be the first to comprehensively assess the factors associated with the use of computers by lecturers and administrators in Ghanaian public universities. The study focused on the availability and access to computers, frequency of use, the kind of computer applications used and what computers are used for. Self reported proficiency skills and training acquired were also considered.

Available computers that were easy to access and did not need cumbersome administrative procedures such as filling forms or writing letters were most frequently used in most cases. It therefore appears that where computers were most widely available and access to them was easiest, were also where they were most frequently used.

The pattern of use in terms of frequency and type of applications used differed with university and kind of application mainly because of the difference in professional needs. KNUST for example had prevalent use of AutoCAD probably because of the engineering and architectural courses it runs. The administrators used data management applications to manage their records while the academic staff used word processing applications to prepare for lectures or report writing. Although computers were used on a daily basis by lecturers, they were used more frequently for writing reports rather than for teaching and presentations. Less than half the lecturers used computers for teaching.

The difference in frequency of use may be related to access. The computer application found to be more widely used was word processing, while to a less extent data management and spreadsheet applications were used.

Management could help improve or increase the use in data management applications to improve the management of data used in the universities.

Respondents agreed that being able to improve the computer-based information system of the universities will make the collection of data less expensive, more accurate and consistent.

Both lecturers and administrators regarded computers as essential tools. However only about half the respondents were highly proficient in the general use of computers, with a majority of them obtaining their skills from self tuition. Generally the respondents had a favourable attitude towards the use of computer technology, some of whom further commented that "Every lecturer should learn to use computers." Central and local management of universities can build on this attitude to provide in-service training in the use of computers so that a larger proportion of staff obtain skills in computer technology use. Limitations to computer technology use that need to be noted and addressed by management are the inadequate technical support staff, alternatives to unreliable power supply, and access to relevant software. This would eventually increase the use of computer technology among staff in the public universities as they keep up with the advances in computer technology.

A number of limitations have to be noted. Although the response rate for this study was low (42%),the response rates from comparable studies on computer technology use were similar or lower. Shih-Chung (1998) for instance, had a response rate of 39% in a study to assess the level of faculty use of media and computers in Tamkang University in Taiwan. Another limitation is that since the available computers were not physically validated, this may have led to exaggerations or biases. To reduce this bias the questionnaires were made anonymous.

Conclusion

Overall the use of computers was high among lecturers and administrators in all the three universities. Computers that were available within departments, and had the least cumbersome procedures to access were most frequently used. There is therefore the need to improve access of computers to users, as well as remove existing barriers to access.

Most respondents obtained their computer skills from self-tuition. This implies that management needs to increase the frequency and diversity of the present staff development training programmes. Also the particular skills and relevant software needed have to be assessed. Progress could also be monitored by current accreditation programmes. Generally, the respondents had a positive attitude towards the use of computers.

Management of the universities need to take advantage and build on the favourable perceptions to improve on the effective use of computers, which in turn would improve productivity of staff.

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DISTANCE EDUCATION, UNIVERSITIES AND GHANA IN CONTEXT

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Abstract

*Today's world thrives on knowledge-based economy, which in turn is catalyzed in all spheres by Information Communication Technologies (ICTs). We are, therefore, better placed now to keep abreast with the emerging trends in Education. As educators, we can use the cutting edges of ICTs to reach out effectively and efficiently to the many aspiring learners in the field any time and at any place, even when teachers and students are separated by time and space. This is the trust of **O**pen, **D**istance, and **F**lexible **E**ducation (**ODFE**). This article seeks to dwell on the basics of ODFE as practised by some selected institutions (universities) worldwide and zooms in to examine how Distance Education (DE) is currently perceived and operated in Ghana.*

Introductioin

There is no one clear definition for the term 'Distance Education'. Whereas some use it to cover some **forms of study**, others see it as an **education with physical constraints**. Yet still distance education is referred to by some as a **special methodology**, whilst some educationists view distance education as a **package of instructional methods**. Of late, there are attempts to classify distance education as an **operational system**.

Nonetheless, there are some underlying common denominators in the nature of distance eduation. **Firstly**, in distance education an institution teaches (and **not** the teacher as in traditional education). **Secondly**, in distance education the institution/organization aims to link learning materials to learning. This must be its central goal. **Thirdly**, there is a radical shift to the independence of the learner. **Fourthly**, management skills and life-work skills found at industrialized enterprises are vital in distance education. **Fifthly**, there is room for depersonalization for both tutor and learner.

Even though it was before the advent of new digital Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), Keegan (1980) proposed that a comprehensive definition for distance education must include or reflect six basic characteristics:

- Separation of tutor and learner

- Influence of the educational organization (especially in the planning and preparation of learning materials)
- Use of technical media
- Provision of two-way communication
- Possibility of occasional seminars (tutorials, face-to-face meetings, etc)
- Participation in the most industrial form of education.

Despite local variations, Distance Education (DE) is presented mainly in three forms:

1. **choice of medium**, (print based, audio-based, video based and computer-based)
2. **institutional type**, (private, proprietary, correspondence schools) and
3. **didactic model**, (correspondence, single mode, dual mode, mixed mode, open, flexible, etc)

Even though **distance education** can be viewed as the summation of **distance teaching** and **distance learning**, it is **NOT** synonymous with all teaching-learning arrangements that are not traditional, nor should it be defined as the opposite of traditional (or conventional) education.

In the light of modern and emerging telecommunication technologies, distance education is actively taking on an important and imposing dimension – a means to **simultaneously** telecommunicate a **delivery of instruction** (or learning activities) from a non-classroom remote site to distant sites coupled with **live interactivity**, usually by means of audio, video or networked interaction between tutor and learner(s), or learner(s) and learner(s) (Barker, Frisbie and Patrick, 1995).

By means of modern and emerging ICTs, the growing interest in the field of distance education is rapidly shifting to the **ability** to set up and conduct live, real-time teaching-learning activities between a tutor and learner(s) even if they are in different rooms, different buildings, different towns/ cities, different countries or different continents. In this sense, and much like the traditional classroom setting, learners have the opportunity to seek on-the-spot clarification and/or immediate feedback from the tutor and fellow learner(s). Likewise, distance education learners are thus able to see, hear, communicate freely and interact socially with their tutors and peers.

Nonetheless, a clear distinction must be made between those DE programmes that have systems to promote "live" and "interactive" mutual exchanges of ideas between the tutor and learner(s) on the spot, and those that operate on delayed feedback [between tutor and learner(s)]. Furthermore, since all current spheres of life are being challenged and modified by the rapid advances in modern and emerging technologies, a more appropriate definition of DE must accommodate this reality and necessity.

Even though there is **diversity** in the philosophical and ordinary definitions for 'Distance Education' there is **convergence** of the arteries and veins that lead to (or away from) the heart of the basics and commonalities of distance education delivery modes, approaches and methodologies. Personally, I view distance education as an operating and enticing medium in which the tutor and the learner(s) build up an educational or academic relationship, and which promotes a free, intelligent, but sometimes challenging exchanges of ideas, beliefs, responses, feedback, experiences and opinions that should promote individual growth, social upliftment and nation building – irrespective of the time, place, frequency, convenience and modalities of such tutor-learning(s) interactions.

Admittedly, distance education is a concept difficult to define; but with the evolution of digital technologies, more and more educationists are becoming more intrigued with the meaning of distance education – a powerful opportunity to gain access to learning no matter where learners live or work, because of the opportunities for enhancing quality of learning especially with the possibilities for multi-modal and multi-media learning.

Generations of Distance learning

A number of scholars, cited in IITE (2000), have delineated the evolutionary stages of distance education generations as first, second and third. The primary ICT of the **first generation** distance education was written/printed learning materails distributed by post. That was the birth of correspondence courses from the end of the 19th century. After the invention of the radio (in the 1920s) and the TV(in the 1950s), these were employed to enhance the delivery of distance education, especially with the formation of print and local study groups.

Incidentally, it was during this era that the first ever single mode distance education institution in the world – the University of South Africa – was born.

The setting up of the Open University in the Great Britain in 1969 ushered in the **second generation** of distance education, where for the first time ever an integrated multiple-media appraoch was a large scale, still using the dominant ICT of print/ text medium. Both one-way and two-way communication began to play an important role in the DE learning environment and learner support system. These were in the form of print, broadcasts, audiotapes, correspondence tutoring, face-to-face tutorials, short residential courses, telephone, video and computer conferencing.

By the 1980s, there was already in place the **third generation** of distance education, which makes exhaustive use of ICTs that are interactive, electronic, and computer-based as the basis for effective distribution of information, as well as facilitating vibrant communication between tutor and learner(s) and learner(s) and learner(s) – by providing two-way sychronous and asynchronous communication. The ICTs promote video-conferencing, audio-conferening, e-mail and computer-based discussion forums either on their own, or are added to DE courses characteristic of the earlier generations.

The introduction of the world-wide-web (**www**) in 1993 transformed tremendously and significantly the teaching-learning function of DE, mainly because of the web's ability to facilitate interaction and interactivity through networking – by speeding up the rate of communication, as well as increasing the level of interactivity between tutor and learner(s) and learner(s) and learner(s).

In a nutshell, there is a lot of hyperbole and excitement about the employ and use of emerging and modern ICTs and their potential application in "open", "distance", and "flexible" education settings. It is important to understand that what defines distance education practice should **not** be the technology used, but the pedagogical or teaching-learning variables. Technologies change, but the fundamental issues to be considered about how people learn and how to teach them remain constant challenges. In other

words, the focus should be on teaching and learning and **not** on the technlogy for technology's sake.

To bridge the barriers of time and space, distance education must necessarily use a variety of ICTs to present the learning materials and provide for interaction. Without ICTs, distance education would not be possible, but because distance learning is a **planned** educational activity, this form of technology-mediated learning has **special educational requirements for the organizations involved** with distance education practice. Even though DE has traditinoally been structured according to one of two organizational types ("single-mode" and "dual-mode" distance education institutions), the pervasive advances in digital ICTs are resulting in a number of different variations in how the functions of distance teaching can be achieved over a distance, and new classification of institutions are now being proposed.

The Distance Education System

Until very recently distance education systems were either asynchronous or synchronous. However, one of the effects of the evolution of ICTs is an increasing range of opportunities for mixing the two appraoches. Consider, for example, the telephone which as a synchronous technology can also be used quite effectively in a supporting role in the generally asynchronous independent study. Again, the world-wide-web (www) is simultaneously an asynchronous and a synchronous communication technology. For instance, online chat forums, desktop video-conferencing, e-learning systems and internet based telephony are synchronous while the use of discussion forums, where learners post their messages at different times according to their own personal circumstances, is an example of where the **www** is used as a synchronous technology.

In most single-mode and dual-mode institutions **presenting the content of learning** is achieved by using asynchronous delivery methods, for example, printed study guides or electronic learnng materials that can be delivered on the www. However, synchronous technologies can also be appropriate, for example, live broadcasts of lectures that are distributed to remote sites.

DE systems provide for interaction (i.e. dialogue) by which tutors apply their skills to help each individual learner convert information into personal knowledge.

Examples include: a tutor providing detailed comments and feedback on a written assignment, e-mail communication, simulated discussion, telephone conversations, teleconferencing and videoconferencing and occasioanl face-to-face meetings. There are three types of interaction: **learner-content interaction** (where the learner interacts alone with the learning material in the form in which it has been presented); **learner-tutor interaction** (where learners engage in different forms of dialogue with the tutor); and **learner-learner interaction** (where learners interact with each other individually or in groups). The general rule is that in all distance education systems, it is important to look for ways of including all forms of interaction.

Selected Case Studies

How an institution is organizationally structured defines its financial resource distribution, administrative procedures, design, development and delivery procedures. For example, single-mode institutions offer **all** their courses using distance education methods. Dual-mode institutions offer **some** courses in traditional modes and **some** in distance education modes. Parallel institutions offer components of a particular course in **both** conventional modes and distance modes as components **of the same course.**

(a) Single mode institutions

Examples of single-mode institutions in the world include the Open University in the United Kingdom (**OUUK**), the University of South Africa (**UNISA**), the Open University of Tanzania (**OUT**), the Indira Gandhi National Open University (**IGNOU**) in India, and the Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University (**STOU**) in Thailand. They draw very large and dispersed learner populations in their respective countries, where higher education systems have been highly selective and make access difficult for the masses of the population; and where leaders are attempting to promote wider education as a political, social or economic objective. It is important to note that the size of a country and its national income do not directly affect whether a single-mode institution develops (IITE, 2000). Instead, generally it is the historical-political and socio-economic context of local settings that impacts whether a particular mode of institution develops.

(i) Open University in the United Kingdom (OUUK)

The Open University, established in 1969 as an independent and autonomous institution authorized to confer its own degrees and deliver professional training, aims to "open up" higher education to adults who want to study part-time at degree level or update their work skills in areas such as management, education, or health. The OUUK's key goal is to "open" education to people, places, methods and ideas. It operates a flexible system whereby no educational qualifications are required for admission to undergraduate courses, though students must be at least 18 years old and resident in any European Union country or any other country with which a formal agreement exists. It has partnership agreements with institutions in other parts of the world. Its enrolment is about 200,000 learners with over 150,000 undergraduates and more than 600 fulltime research degree students, with slightly more than 17,000 being outside the UK.

Courses are developed by special design teams, with first-year courses having as many as 25 full-time university and/or British Broadcasting Company (BBC) staff plus consultants and instructional designers and media experts working on them. The team designs a total integrated learning package comprising printed materails, home experiment kits, BBC television programs, audio and video cassetes and CD-ROMs, access to databases of materials, teaching strategies, and orientation and training programs for learners' tutors and counselors. The OUUK was the first distance teaching university to use an integrated mixed-media approach.

It operates a healthy Learner Support Services with a personal counselor being assigned to work with each learner for the duration of his/her learner career and for consulting on particular courses. In addtion, it has established thirteen regional administrative and nearly 300 study centers.

(ii) University of South Africa (UNISA)

It began as the University of the Cape of Good Hope in 1873, and in 1946 UNISA became an independent DE institution. It is the world's first single-mode distance education university and the most advanced of the DE systems in Africa. It offers diplomas, certificates and degrees at both the undergraduate and graduate levels in a variety of content areas, with the Faculty of Commerce attracting

the largest number of students. Like most open universities, UNISA aims to provide a "second chance" for university study for learners who are unable to get places at conventional face-to-face campuses, cannot afford the higher residential university fees, reside in remote areas and/or are unable to attend residential classes because of employment or other commitments.

No educational qualifications are required for admission to undergraduate courses. UNISA has approximately 160,000 degree and diploma learners and approximately 36,000 certificate and music learners. More than 80% of the learners are employed, with almost half of the learners over 30 and a quarter under 25. Low completion rates are a concern and to deal with this, about 14 years ago the organization began restructuring its course design and development processes.

Historically, individual academics have had responsibility for both authouring study guides and tutoring at UNISA. But in 1994 that began to change, as course development teams were set up and a limited number of local part-time tutors was introduced. The teaching is largely the responsibility of an academic faculty member who teaches a course consisting primarily of printed study guides and tutorial letters, which are dispersed to students throughout the country. Audiocassettes and videocassettes are used in some courses. Face-to-face discussion classes are presented once or twice a year for courses with large enrollments at five regional locations in South Africa. Videoconferences are used in place of discussion classes for courses with lower learner enrolments.

UNISA is characterised by a centralized management with respect to teaching and course design from the central location in Pretoria, but until 1994 learner support was limited to individual feedback on assignments in the absence of a decentralised system of tutorial support. Beginning in 1994, UNISA began to focus on quality improvements. The aim was to improve the quality of the courses and programs by using course development teams and the introduction of a limited system of tutorial support at regional study centers.

Although UNISA has made considerable progress with its transformation to a team development approach in the

design of its materials, more refinements and improvements are planned. Considerable effort has been applied to ridding the organization of the remnants of apartheid ideology in some of its courses and employment practices of the past. The development of sustainable ICT enhanced solutions for overcoming the problems of learner support in remote regions is a key strategic focus of the organization.

(iii) The Open University of Tanzania (OUT)

OUT, an independent free-standing institution, was established in 1993 to provide the people of Tanzania (among the poorest of the countries in Africa) a "second chance" to obtain higher education, since only about a third of qualified Tanzanians were admitted to conventional face-to-face universities. It provides both degree and non-degree programmes in a variety of content areas, including arts and social sciences, education, science, technology and environmental studies, and educational technology. Two of its degrees are intended mainly for teachers. In 1998 OUT had an enrolment of approximately 6000 learners. Though print is used as a basis, other technologies are applied in various forms of ICTs, including motion pictures, audio-systems, transmission systems including both satellite and radio, and newer digital ICTs that include telecommunications and computers.

There are 21 OUT's regional centers in different parts of the Tanzania. A regional resident tutor or director, who is an overseer of all educational matters in the region, heads each center. In addition, a number of smaller units are established in the local districts, where learners organize their own study groups. Throughout its years of operations OUT has made it a priority to cooperate with other educational institutions both in and outside of Tanzania, especially focusing on the national library network, science laboratories, and information services. It has experimented with evolving ICTs and alternative sources of energy, and plan to continue these experiments in an effort to make the distance learning opportunities accessible to more people, including people doing time in Tanzania's jails – as a result of which a male inmate of Ukonga Prison in 2007 became the first prisoner ever in Tanzania to be awarded a degree [and for that a Law degree] by the Open University of Tanzania (Daily Graphic, 5th November 2007, p.5).

(b) Dual-mode institutions

In dual-mode institutions, distance education is integrated into the structure of a conventional teaching system. Both the conventional and distance learners may have same tutors, follow the same course syllabus and take the same or similar examinations. In fact, "resident" learners sometimes use the same materials that were developed with the distance learners in mind. In the dual-mode institutions tutors usually undertake many of the functions that are undertaken by teams in the single-mode institution. In major dual-mode institutions, distance education is managed and administered in a special unit separate from the traditional instruction. In comparison to the single-mode institution, distance education in a dual-mode institution usually is performed on a relatively small scale. With respect to costs, many of the course development and overhead monies come out of resources allocated to the resident-based programs (IITE, 2000). Just as there are many single-mode institutions in different parts of the world, there are many dual-mode institutions around the globe. Examples include the University Sains Malaysia (**USM**) in Malaysia and the University of Zambia in Africa.

(i) University Sains Malaysia (USM)

For many years USM was the only dual-mode university in Malaysia, until the government decided to move other universities in the same direction. USM's distance education programms were launched in 1971 and were experimental until 1982, when it became a permanent part of the greater university. It still maintains, however, a separate faculty. USM has a government-endorsed monopoly on adult distance education, because Malaysia believes that is the best way to get a high-cost benefit where financial, infrastructural and human resources are limited. USM offers degree programs across a range of academic areas.

USM develops courses and programs following a five-step method (i.e. plan, develop, produce, evaluate and revise). A Centre for Educational Technology (CET) produces all of the multi-media programs. Not only print is used but also radio, audio and videocassettes. Many learners are required to attend annually a three-week residential school, where they have access to tutors and instructional technologists and other academics, and to live on campus for their final year of study

for their bachelor's degrees. Having existed for only twenty-seven years, USM provides a model for countries or regions that have a relatively small population and small number of universities from which to draw resources for distance education programmes.

(ii) University of Zambia (Zambia)

The University of Zambia was founded in 1967 with distance education written into its charter. Distance education provides opportunity for learners in education, humanities, and social science in a country where the overall enrollment in higher education is about 3.4%. Zambia uses distance program as a way into and out of conventional face-to-face study. There are about 32 courses in three programs, with the largest programme in education.

In 1967 the distance program began with 152 learners and now has over 1,500 learners. Significantly, pass rates are high and dropout rates low. This is an achievement, given the weak economy and limited resources available for distance education. Nonetheless, radio programmes supporting courses were abandoned in 1967.

In Zambia, DE has low status and there is little teacher training in this area. Hence, or otherwise, only limited tutorial support is provided, depending primarily on the voluntary commitment of staff in various units and/or departments of the university. Part of the reason for this is that the Directorate of Education has no administrative authority of control over various providers of learner services and can do nothing if effective services are not provided.

Distance Education in Ghana for Certificate 'A' Teachers

Distance learning is **not** new to Ghanaian educators. "Foreign-based correspondence colleges were the talk and practice in years gone by" (Ossei-Anto, 2002, p.1). According to Ossei-Anto:

> *Current ODL providers include University of Ghana (UG), University of Cape Coast (UCC), University of Education, Winneba (UEW), Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), the Ghana Institutie of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA), as well as the locations of the African Virtual University. KNUST*

offers programmes in technology subjects; UG offers humanities programmes, and UCC and UEW offer programmes in education. In the non formal sector, Ghanaian radio and television programmes have provided basic level educational programmes (2003a, p.9).

As a result of the economic and political mismanagement of educational policies and practices in Ghana **in the 60s, 70's and early 80's – that led to the brain drain and dearth of qualified Ghanaian teachers in the** classrooms, as well as the near collapse of the entire educational system and management – the concept of distance education was conceived to meet one of the challenges of the reforms of the tertiary education system as far back as 1986 and the university provision of distance education began during this era. Sadly enough, according to Ossei-Anto (2003b) "the Ministry of Education did not offer nor set any guidelines for the articulation of distance education mechanism in the education sector" (p. 132). The universities took advantage of this open gap to claim they were using DE as a means to:

- affording learners the opportunity to work and study whilst at home
- releasing pressure on residential accommodation
- allowing adults to divert into other academic areas of interest
- creating an off-campus channel
- increasing access
- sharing cost
- opening up the field for upgrading and updating
- meeting family or job or social or educational commitment simultaneously.

[As a result of the ODL initiatives there is now increased access to teacher training, resulting in better qualified teachers and higher admission rates at UEW and UCC. The development of distance education units in the universities has also resulted in computer literacy among university staff and production of good quality distance education course materials].

(i) Current Ghana's "Disturbing" DE Situation

Despite these modest achievements, there are serious issues and challenges facing higher education in Ghana especially, with the implementation of DE. **Firstly,**

the six public universities [UG, KNUST, UCC, UEW, the University for Development Studies (UDS), and the University of Mines at Tarkwa (UMaT)] can still not cope up, year by year, with the teeming numbers of qualified Ghana applicants seeking admission to pursue various courses and programmes of study. This has led, of late, to a proliferation of private universities and other tertiary institutions (at least 24 in number, at the last count in September 2007) each clamouring and wanting to widen the access for successful high school graduates to pursue degree courses but at a higher cost than that prevailing in the public universities. Even with this development and competition, many qualified applicants are still "denied" admission on account of non-availability of, and/or restricted, hostel facilities and classroom accommodation. It is estimated that each public university has, on the average, 12,000 students pursuing undergraduate face-to-face programmes of study alone, whilst the corresponding number for the private ones is roughly 3,500.

Secondly, because of the acute staff shortage at the university-level (due primarily to unattractive conditions on service) the gross enrollment ratio is very high for the public universities with the value of 1:80 (tutor:learners) in some cases.

Thirdly, even though the public universities are gradually changing gear to be dual-mode in nature and in practice (especially UEW and UCC), a lot of barriers and constraints are in their way. Notably amongst this is the lack of financial support and commitment by the Ghana Government towards meeting the desire of the universities to improve upon existing infrastructure and capitalize on the "extended arms" of distance education (especially ICT-enhanced ODL) to reach out, and especially, to the over 120,000 teachers at the basic level who do not have complete qualifications, but "21,788 serving untrained teachers ... and 11,000 serving certificate teachers [of the number] were eagerly undergoing training through distance education" (Nyarko, 2007) to upgrade their skills and professional competencies.

Fourthly, Ghana – the first Sub-Saharan African country to gain independence – is at the cross roads as far as meeting its national needs for professional teachers to man her educational systems is concerned. Ghana, the country that not so long ago could conveniently "export"

some of its trained teachers to other African countries, now stands in need of competent teachers at all levels of the educational ladder. The annual turn-out of teachers emanating from the conventional teacher-training institutions is woefully inadequate to fill the yawning vacuum and/or dearth of teachers. [The straw of survival now seems to be in the domain of ODFL, propelled into fruition by the employ, use and application of modern and emerging Information and Communication Technologies (Dede, 1996; Kirkwood, 1998; Mushi, 2001; and Daniel & Mackintosh, in press)].

Fifthly, desperate as the situation is, various stakeholders – notably the Ministry of Education, Science and Sports (MOESS), the Ghana Education Service (GES), UEW and UCC – are independently supporting, mounting, or running diverse and various distance education programmes and systems to "arrest" the teacher developmental problems.

Sixthly, the universities rely predominantly on print materials for their distance education learners. This is usually supplemented by monthly tutorial sessions. The DE books produced are very simple, easy to read, very interesting and attractive. Owing to the fact that the universities operate the dual mode system, the courses belong to the academic departments per se. Consequently, notwithstanding the inherent difficulties, it is the responsibility of the tutors in the various academic departments, whose courses are offered under the DE programme, to write the course materials themselves. This is to ensure parity of esteem. However, the various DE units respectively and independently coordinate the material development – from editing to importation of graphics and/or illustrations to final proof-reading to publication.

Seventhly, there is a very slow pace of material development. This is one of the greatest problems that universities' DE programmes face. Three main factors account for this. In the first place, as already stated above, the study materials are written by the university tutors who are full time academic staff of the universities – combining the

writing of DE materials with their normal load of teaching, research, community service, and assessing students. This makes it very difficult for these tutors to have enough time to write the required materials and/or to meet deadlines. This hampers the smooth pacing of the DE programme.

To speed up the pace of writing, UEW, UCC and UG have introduced what is called retreat or conference writing. By this approach a number of writers are taken away from their busy schedules and camped at a quiet place outside the university townships for about a fortnight during which they concentrate only on the writing of their courses. This approach somehow is yet to yield the desired/significant results.

The second cause of the slow pace of material development is lack of adequate reward for authors of distance education study materials.

The tutors believe that the levels of remuneration for writing these materials are too low. Because of this they easily leave the writing to attend to other higher income ventures.

Another motivational issue is the payment of royalties to writers. As at present the tutors are not too happy with the practice in which once they are paid for writing the materials, such materials automatically become the property of the university in question. This makes the tutors get no other further financial rewards by way of royalties. To overcome the problem of lack of motivation, some substantial increments in the writing fees have been made (since January 2003), whilst the issue of royalties is still under discussion at UEW, UCC and UG.

The third factor is that most of the authors do not have access to computers for word processing and so their drafts are handed in a hand-written form. Writing and re-writing before getting a neat draft can be time consuming. As a solution to this problem the universities are assisting tutors to acquire personal computers on hire-purchase. In addition, the public universities are doing their best to get all necessary help in equipping the various departments and each University's ICT centre with computers and internet facilties.

Eigthly, to support the distance students, the universities have separately set up their own Regional Study Centres in different parts of the country, particularly at the regional capitals. These are where the learners meet their tutors for the monthly tutorials and also to collect their course books. These centrers are manned by Regional Study Centre Coordinators, and **part**-time tutors who are employed by the universities. The normal assignment turnaround time is at least one month. This is owing to fact that there is a rather unreliable postal system in Ghana, especially in the rural areas, so marked assignments are not returned to the learners by post, but they are rather given back to the learners when they come in to the centres for the next tutorials.

Ashamedly, the study centres have **not** been fully equipped with the needed facilities; they lack such solid infrastructure, and basic facilities as ofice equipment - tables, desks, telephones, computers, scanners and photocopiers - needed for the day-to-day administrative work. Because of this, the universities operate a highly centralised model where DE learners' records are kept at one place (i.e. at the main campuses of the various universities) rather than at the centres where they converge monthly for tutorials.

Ninthly, Distance Education (DE) receives very limited funding in Ghana from the central government. Since the public universities operate the dual mode system, DE has no separate budgetary allocation. Virtually, everything goes in to "cater for" the conventional (face-to-face) learners and their programmes. In other words, DE has no line budget. The only provision made for DE is that each public university is given only 2% extra of its total subvention from the Government to support its DE programme.

Tenthly, the financial problems are worsened by the fact that currently, virtually all the DE programmes which the universities are mounting are not based on any economic considerations. The programmes have therefore not been cost-effective. No proper costing of study materials, day-to-day administration and learner support system are being done. The main thrust for DE in Ghana, at the moment, apperars to be to upgrade the knowledge of learners than to generate income. Regrettably, this has led to the situation whereby DE learners pay only token fees which do not cover even half of the cost of production of the print materials.

(ii) The ICT-way forward for technology-enhanced DE for Ghana

As a DE practitioner, it is my vision and outmost conviction that Ghanaian universities fully use/ integrate ICTs and multimedia into their distance education programmes. To begin with, each public university must submit proposals for the modernization of its Distance Education Unit to the respective University's Strategic Planning Committee for consideration and approval. It is also my prayer that, in the not too distant future, there will be born on the Ghanaian scene a distinctive, innovative mega-university that will operate at the cutting edge of the information and communication technology revolution to the educational needs of Ghana in the 21st century and beyond. Until that happens, there is more work for the existing universities to do and more importantly, employing modern methods and techniques of on-line distance education delivery in all their courses and programmes to meet challenges of education in Ghana. To be able to deliver quality mass distance education, and to promote healthy manpower development in Ghana, public universities must seek out ways and means of securing financial support to acquire and effectively use/ employ modern and emerging ICTs to enhance and sustain viable, indigenous, pedagogical revolutions in the delivery and adaptation of ODFL methods and systems, as well as expand and diversify the programmes and make ODFL cost effective.

The entire educational sector must engage on a number of initiatives and bold ventures in the domain of ICT enhancements.

Firstly, without delay – and with no excuses whatsoever – the universities must employ ICT – enhanced ODL strategies and must tread the bold path to infuse Information and Communication Technologies into their curricula. The persistent and pervasive influence that ICTs have on organizations, has brought about drastic changes in work culture, which have very important implications for higher education. For example, ICTs have influenced the type of skills learners in higher education institutions have to develop as well as the facilities and learning modes opened to them. Other far reaching implications that ICTs have on higher education are summarized as follows:

- transformating the management and administration of higher education institutions;

- transforming the degree to which, and the way in which, higher education institutions interact with external organizations;

- organisating and supporting teaching and learning programmes, particularly, the development of educational materials;

- increasing access to quality higher education through online and open, distance and flexible learning systems.

Secondly, all tertiary institutions' academic and administrative staff should be developed to possess the following expertise:

- knowledge in the use of relevant educational software packages and ICT systems and the development of instructional and learning material for online delivery.
- ability to evaluate the impact of the use/employ of ICTs on teaching and learning with the view to devising effective and efficient ways of using ICT resources to achieve learning and instructional objective.
- in-depth knowledge of where in the curriculum the multimedia (especially network) applications would be desirable and effective
- appreciation of emerging technologies and ICTs and their influence on social values.

These qualities can be appropriately addressed through electronic transmission of information and interactive computer-based learning environment. ICT usage, as an all-pervasive phenomenon, does not only call for a restructuring of the university's curriculum but it demands that staff, so concerned, change their old ways of managing the business of education, especailly distance education delivery methods.

Thirdly, Ghana universities must move away from merely purchasing hardware and software to an integrated information system environment that ensures the provision of quality and focused user services for its members (teachers, learners and administrators) and external statutory collaborating bodies. This envisaged academic system calls for the provision of a networked environment. A universal

connectivity that ensures that every end-user in a distributed processing site can access information on-line is very crucial here. This would provide the infrastructure that could serve as the basis for teaching and learning to take place in a multimedia environment. Members of the various university communities would also build meaningful partnerships among themselves by sharing information resources on the University's LANs and WANs.

Fourthly, the infusion of Information Technology into the university's curriculum will enhance teaching and learning outcomes and improve the management information systems of the University. Technology-mediated learning packages, such as learner-centered curriculum and electronic collaboration will have to be deployed on the network to engage the learners. This would enhance the levels of interactions of faculty with learners, while learners have a more personalized learning experience.

Faced with dwindling funding for tertiary education in Ghana, the ever-increasing learner population, demand on severely limited resources and the need to address the demands of our distance education programme and the information-based workplace, the objectives of the university to embark on the building an ICT infrastructure should include the following:

- The infusion of Information Communication Technology into the University Curriculum to enhance teaching and learning outcomes and improve the management information systems of the university.
- The deployment of computer-mediated learning packages on the network to engage the learner in order that the learner may take greater responsibility for his/her learning.
- The provision of ICT facilties and enhanced delivery systems for the University's Distance Education programme in partnership with collaborators in the televommunication industry and the African Virtual University. Without a doubt, ODFL programmes hold the long term solution to the quest of the teeming youth of this country for higher education

The use of ineter-campus network and the Internet connectivity to provide on-line services to enhance inter-university (within and outside Ghana) collaboration in the areas of research, shared library and human resources and dissemination of relevant knowledge and information amongst members of the academia of Ghana and elsewhere.

- The adequate preparation of university's products in ICT application in eduaction in anticipation of the inevitable introduction of computer studies and information-based activities into the pre-tertiary education curricula. The need for teachers at all levels to be computer literate cannot be over emphasized. The introduction of computer education into all pre-tertiary educational institutions in Ghana is long overdue.

Fifthly, university-trained products (especially teachers for the basicand secondary schools as well as the Teacher Training Colleges) are the key to preparing the Ghanaian youth for the information society into which global forces are thrusting us. The necessary computer-literate teachers to implement such necessary innovations in the school system need to be at home with the technology and train appropriately now, before the day of implementation dawns on us. UEW and UCC, in particular, have a duty to organize ICT workshops, in-service training and short-term courses for Ghanaian teachers to orientate them to face the impending changes in the school curriculum, since the country must make the necessary internal adjustments that must include a broad based educational policy to make ICT accessible to every child.

Sixthly, there is the need for well-trained system analysts and a core of ICT literate staff to initiate and sustain Information Management System training for all categories of the university staff on each university campus. Such training could center on the automation of data storage; retrieval and management; decision support sysetms, databases for academic

registration, payment of fees, and processing of results and transcripts. The need for the Finance Section, Students' Affairs office, the Library, Academic departments and the Registrar's outfit to collaborate their activities on-line need not be over emphasized. This would make university administration and managment more effective and efficient.

Seventhly, it must always be remembered that the most successful approach is that successful users of ICTs select a mix of technologies, carefully blending them with each chosen according to specific strengths to meet particular challenges (Vanbuel, 2002).

The African Continent Context

African educators, universities in Africa, African governments and the African Union should re-visit their stands and inclinations as a view towards fostering a united, unique, robust DE system for the African continent. The choice and/ or employ of an appropriate and suitable instructional technology for ODFL for Africa depend on many key factors that must be weighed out carefully beforehand. These factors include the followings:

- Learner-centredness and independence;
- Reliability of the equipment;
- Projected interactivity between tutor-learner(s) and learner(s)-learner(s);
- Organizational support infrastructure;
- Ease and compatibility of use of the technology involved;
- Cost effectiveness (to the institution,as well as to the learner);
- Ready availability and accessibility to the technology; and
- Synchronicity and asynchronicity of instructions to be delivered.

Each of the current variables of the learning technologies seem to me to be short of meeting the robust African demand to bring quality education to all who may want to avail themselves of the opportunity.

We know in Africa our potential learners are all over the place – as farmers, as teachers, as workers, as artisans, as traditional rulers, as students etc. We also know that the bulk are the rural (and at times, remote) places where they are "denied" essential services like electricity and accessible roads.

So my question is: What African teaching technology variable(s) should we derive to meet the African needs? Let us dream our dreams today, for they may germinate into realities tomorrow.

To motivate and bring DE closer to ODFL learners on the African continent, there is the need to dwell on the "work-ethics-and-life ethics" model. This will help to make them translate easily into the learning mood from their working/home mood, and not see Distance Education as something odd; but rather have the feeling and inclination that learning is just like working or just like one of those necessary "chores" of everyday life situations.

Let us remember that the majority of African learners enrol in DE courses because of one of these reasons:

- Accesibility and flexibility
- Collaboration with other learners who live far apart
- Collaboration with learners of diverse backgrounds and greater learning
- Academic and/or job advancement; and
- Affordability

The African Continent online study guide should not be only in the English language, but in the notable African languages as well (for example in Kiswahili, Hausa, Zulu and may be Akan). This will make the pre-course instructions very clear to Africans all over the continent. [I will further recommend that the guidelines for each course also be translated to the popular languages for each country by a team responsible for African DE in that country]

Africa should also do less of the "bragging" of DE in this or that country and team up to set up an African DE Quality Assurance Guidelines and/or Team with the primary aim of ensuring that Africa's DE (country by country) is of the superb, first class standards.

Designers of quality African-context DE course(s) must give systematic consideration(s) to the mix of media and learner support necessary to meet the objectives of the course. To me this must be upfront – right from the planning stages. Can we truthfully admit that we have been doing this in our respective African countries? One big problem we have is that our learner support system is nothing to write home about. In fact it is

there only on paper – limited to a poorly-organised monthly tutorial "gathering" for the DE leerners to "explain" the difficult concepts and phenomena in their course books to them.

Properly-designed learner support must provide the opportunity to share learning, ideas, and problems with other learners or teacher, trainer, tutor or mentor and to receive help and information about progress in return. Properly designed DE must go hand in hand with properly designed learner support. If we are to make a show case of an indigenous, well-thought-out, African DE system then we have to strive to have a meaningful (I mean a really meaningful learner support system), culturally supported and healthy learner support system for our African brothers, sisters, fathers, mothers, children, friends and enemies (alike) – one that can stand the force of the Nile at Jinja (Uganda) – one that can withstand the shock and re-organisation that UNISA is going through (to correct the erors of the past).

Since Africans are close-knit by nature, is it not possible for us to use and/or rely on spouses and other family members (albeit, perhaps the entire village/ community) as the core learner support team for an ODFL student – even if such members of the close and extended family are not enrolled in the DE programme?

Let us be anxious to design a really vibrant and supportive "Learner support system" for mother Africa – one that will match the objectives of an African distance education the world's number one. It must be the world's number one!

African can succeed. Africa must succeed. That depends on only you and me and nobody else! Let us hereby resolve to be highly motivated to scale over this hurdle smoothly (Mushi , 2001) . Let us then break off the bonds of fear and cowardice, and lets put on the belt of innovation!

Conclusion

There is now an **accumulated wealth of experience** in Distance Education (DE) in Africa and abroad. We know what **works** and what **doesn't**. We know what **constraints** we face in Sub Saharan Africa (SSA) and some of the possible solutions including:

- Proper national policy frameworks (educational, ICT, broadcasting, copyright)

- Adequate budgetrary allocations (finance, cost effectiveness)
- Timely and appropriate training (a critical mass of Distance Educators & students)
- Decentralized support structures (for distance teaching and distance learning)

DE has changed and **modern ICTs have significantly influenced** what we used to call DE and helped overcome some of the well-known constraints such as:

- Interactivity
- Inability to do labs,

leading to what we now call the **4th and 5th** generation models of DE, especially convergence models (distributed learning or mixed mode learning). DE is no longer something for the Department of adult learning and teacher education but should be an **integral part of higher education** as in SSA to address urgent access and quality needs.Even well-established universities in advanced countries (e.g. USA) are using DE in the form of online learning and **mixed mode of distributed learning**, even where DE takes place on campus.

There is an increasing **convergence** of conventional education and DE. So perhaps we need to opt for dual mode rather than set up dedicated open universities. DE cannot flourish without the **overall development within a country** and so all relevant ministries must collaborate with the Ministry of Education to improve access to education at all levels.

There is a growing world trend and an overwhelming demand for higher education. Hence, each Ghanaian university should get **serious** about developing appropriate strategic and implementation plans that will help mainstream DE and ICTs into day-to-day life, as a way of doing business, training and capacity building, identifying sources of funds required etc. It is, therefore, time to seriously engage the Government of Ghana in **constructive dialogue** as to what is needed to make DE and ICTs work better. For example:

- Special funds for capacity development and learning
- DE needs adequate upfront investments, before Ghana can reap the rewards of DE
- Making tertiary education more affordable and more available.

It is time to come together to **figure out how the problems** that have prevented scaling and mainstreaming can be overcome, instead of talking and talking and talking about them all the time.

This should be the **decade of action** and tertiary institutions (in Ghana and Africa) should set goals with measurable achievements. **If tertiary institutions accept DE and ICTs as an integral part of their operations**, then perhaps the budgets will start reflecting this and DE development will **not** always be starved of funds (e.g. the mixed mode at the University of Mauritius where all 1st year students have to take DE courses as a way of handling access constraints).

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IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING: AN IMPORTANT TOOL FOR IMPROVING EDUCATION AT THE BASIC LEVEL

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Abstract

It is literally impossible today for any individual to learn a job or enter a profession and remain in it for ten or so years with his or her skills basically unchanged. Societies and organisations including the school system change and grow. It is in this light that in-service training is not only desirable but also an important activity to which the Government and the school system must commit human and fiscal resources if it is to maintain a viable and knowledgeable staff.

Organising in-service training for teachers is of paramount importance if they are to be effective in achieving the goals and objectives of the educational system. This paper closely examines the importance of in-service training and the nature of in-service training in Education in Ghana. It also identifies problems that plague the organisation of in-service training and offers suggestions for improvement.

Introduction

Change and growth are endemic in our complex modern society. No society is static; so as we progress we change and grow. The school system in the society is also expected to change and grow to meet the needs of the society, else it will atrophy. One area in which change and growth are paramount relates to the staff or individual workers of an organisation. They are expected to update their knowledge and skills throughout their lives and this must continually be a renewing process. It is therefore prudent for management to place premium on organizational growth and staff development that will adequately serve both the school organisation and the individual.

As ideas in education change and new methods, strategies and techniques of teaching are devised, it is imperative for teachers and professional educators to be sensitive to the changing situations and the needs of their pupils. In-service education and training (INSET) is therefore meant to re-activate, re-invigorate, re-animate or restore the teacher to life as far as academic and professional competence is concerned (Morant, 1981). With the Education Reform in Ghana the Government is committed to improving the quality of education in the country and this

can be achieved when the teacher who is a key figure in the education enterprise is well-equipped with the relevant knowledge, attitudes, skills and competencies. Though money, materials, equipment and facilities are important, the ability of the teacher to perform is more crucial. The purpose of this paper is therefore to discuss the role of in-service training in improving the quality of education in the country, its challenges and the way forward.

In-Service Education and Training

There is little doubt that there is a distinction between education and training, and the difference is important. Morant (1981) talks of training as being "concerned with the acquisition of skills and techniques using standardised learning procedures and sequences" (p.3) while Cole (1997) states that it is an activity concerned with improving employees' performances in the present jobs by imparting skills, knowledge and attitudes. Henderson (1978) justifies his choice of training on the basis that it implies a more direct link between learning and action and is therefore easier to measure. He states that the results of training are more readily usable in bringing about practical improvement.

In contrast, "the broader concept of in-service education is bound up with the notion of bringing about teachers' professional, academic and personal development through the provision of a whole series of study experiences and activities of which training should be rated as but one aspect" (Morant, 1981, p.3). Hence in-service training should not be considered as an alternative education but as part of the total framework of in-service education. That a close connection exists between the two is recognised as illustrated in official documents and other publications where increasingly the acronym "INSET" (in-service-education and training) is used.

In-Service Education and Training Defined

Many scholars define in-service education and training in various ways. Lipham and Hoeh (1985) define in-service education as "all professional development activities in which one engages after initial certification and employment and does not conclude until there is termination of services" (p. 183). They believe that in-service programme should focus on increasing professional expertise and remedying identified

weaknesses of an individual or a group of teachers. Morant (1981) defines in-service education as " the education intended to support and assist the professional development that teachers ought to experience throughout their working lives. Its starting point, thus should be marked by the occasion when the newly qualified entrant to the teaching profession takes up his first appointment in school and its finishing point coincides with retirement" (p.1). Cane (1969) also talks of in-service training as "all courses and activities in which a serving teacher may participate for the purpose of extending his professional knowledge, interest or skill" (p. 10). To Harris, Bessent and Mclintyre (1986) in-service training is "a planned programme of continuing learning which provides for the growth of teachers through formal and informal on-the-job experience for all professional personnel. It provides for a setting to keep a continuing focus on curriculum for the instructional improvement of professional staff members" (p. 81).

A critical examination of the above definitions clearly shows that INSET is a process designed to foster personal and professional growth of individuals within a respectful, supportive, positive organisational climate, having as its ultimate aim better learning for students and continuous, responsible self-renewal for educators and schools.

INSET aims at "widening and deepening teachers' knowledge, understanding and expertise (including skills, techniques and powers of judgement) in respect of their professional work by means of activities designed primarily to attain this purpose" (Morant, 1981, p. 3). INSET can be organised in one or more of the following ways: Classes or Institutes, Workshops, Professional Readings, Professional Writings, Subject Association Conferences, Exchange Programmes, On-the-job Training, Field Days/Tours and Demonstration Lessons.

Importance of In-Service Training

Until recently, the onus for helping teachers to be effective was placed squarely on pre-service training, a once-for-all training at that time. The prospective teacher went through a course of training for a number of years and was certified to teach for the rest of his life. But in a fast changing world, such a teacher loses his effectiveness

within a short time unless he is given the opportunity to update himself from time to time throughout his career. It is this latter realisation that has led to the popularisation of in-service training in most countries in the world today. To a large extent in-service training is a faster, cheaper and an effective way of training teachers.

In-service training is important in various respects:

1. Teachers are introduced to new concepts and practices; that is, teachers are exposed to new and modern methods, strategies and techniques of teaching so that the learners can benefit from whatever they are taught or exposed to.
2. It is a way of remedying any defects in existing educational practices: that is discussing with teachers and finding appropriate and lasting solutions to problems and difficulties they might face in the course of discharging their duties.
3. Teachers are helped to meet specific challenges or demands brought about by curriculum change and innovations resulting from changed situations. Teachers are made aware that they live in a world that is changing fast and therefore, to meet the demands of the present technological advancement of the world, it is important to be abreast with the changes in order not to be left out.
4. It brings about better understanding of one-self and the learners. Teachers have sound knowledge of characteristics that they should possess while working with children and characteristics that children display. Teachers get to understand that children are not the same in several respects - intellectually, emotionally, physically, socially, et cetera; and their understanding of growth and development of children help them to be effective in teaching and learning.
5. Educators are kept in touch with research findings, thus updating their knowledge and skills to synchronise with changing times. Teachers are encouraged to conduct action research so as to gain better understanding of problems in the classrooms and the school.
6. Educators are inducted into new obligations and responsibilities as a result of postings, appointments and promotions.

7. It brings about an opportunity for professionals to socialize in order to share ideas and experiences about their work. They use their rich experience and widening interest for the betterment of the education service.
8. Teachers tend to have sound knowledge of educational technology, new products coming into the system and how to use them in effective teaching, for example, the use of the slide or overhead projector and computer in teaching.

Relevance of Needs Assessment in INSET

To provide an effective in-service training to foster personal and professional growth for the personnel of any organisation, including teachers of the education service, needs assessment is crucial. It provides information that enhances and enriches the content of the training programme. Needs assessment of teachers in the following areas are important: induction of teachers, teachers' refreshment and teachers' conversion. Again, it is necessary that teachers are well versed in curriculum and instruction. Each of these needs that have to be assessed is discussed briefly.

Induction Needs of Teachers

At least once and probably several times during a teacher's career, he is expected to embark on new and unfamiliar duties relating to a position to which he has just been appointed. The first occasion when this may happen is that time when the new entrant, having recently left college or University, starts work in a school where he/she is required to complete a period of probation normally lasting a year or two. The process is to enable the new entrant gain knowledge, skills, techniques, attitudes and values essential to carrying out the new role. It is designed to smooth out the probationer's path. It is "a systematic programme of professional initiation, guided experience and further study" (Morant, 1981, p.6). The newly trained teacher is to know how to write lesson notes, mark the attendance register, compile continuous assessment records, counsel his students, manage and control his class for effective teaching and learning, understand the code of ethics of the teaching profession, et cetera. Getting properly started in one's initial post as a qualified teacher is very important.

At times the teacher may earn promotion to head a department or be an assistant head or head

teacher/master of an institution. The promotion can also involve moving from one school to another. The new head or deputy head is, therefore, likely to be faced with problems arising from inexperience, lack of confidence or at worst sheer ignorance of what the task entails. In order for the teacher to be competent and confident in his new challenging position, he needs an in-service training in the form of induction. Though these entail guidance of the less experienced practitioner by an experienced practitioner during the adjustment period, this should be reinforced by short intensive formally organised courses in or out of school.

Extension Needs of Teachers

Teachers need to widen their professional and academic horizon in order to be more effective and efficient in their day to day activities. Should the teacher's career happen to be in an early stage of development, he might wish to strengthen his subject teaching by reinforcing his academic knowledge and strengthening his subject methodology. Should it be in the middle of his career (assistant headship) he might want to obtain a better grasp of curriculum theory or obtain expertise in the principles of school management. Should he hold a senior position (headship) his needs might be associated with school management, evaluation and assessment of performance or knowledge of administration of a circuit or district office. In these cases the certificate 'A' teacher may tend to undertake a course leading to an award of a diploma or a degree.

Teachers' Refreshment Needs

At times there is the need for teachers to be re-invigorated or re-animated; for, it is assumed that they go stale, especially when they have not undergone any professional or academic training for a period of time. They need to up-date their knowledge in certain subjects or methods, strategies and techniques for teaching such subjects and the nuances of it. This refreshment need is necessary for teachers who leave teaching for a while and later come back to the system. Examples are those who (a) join their spouses working outside the country and who do not go into teaching but re-enter the Ghana Education Service when they return home, (b) leave the country on their own to seek greener pastures and later re-join the Ghana Education Service, (c) take up political appointments and later rejoin the service after they have

left the political field and (d) leave Ghana Education Service for more lucrative jobs within the country and later re-join it for some reasons.

Another category of teachers who need in-service training to refresh themselves are those who, "though having taught continuously since entering the profession might not have taught a subject or age-range for which they were originally trained" (Morant, 1981, p.9). Thus, it may happen that these teachers are asked to teach this "dormant" subject or age-range because of shortage of teachers in those fields. A third category of teachers who should avail themselves of in-service training to refresh themselves are those who have occupied the same post for a considerable length of time (10 or more years). It is usually assumed that a teacher who has occupied a position in the school for several years ought to have overcome most of the difficulties encountered earlier. He should have gained solid experience and be capable of employing appropriate skills and techniques while performing his current duties. But it is most likely that these teachers must have become stale and hold on to old attitudes, values, beliefs and practices and therefore need to be re-invigorated or refreshed to cope with the new demands of the Ghana Education Service and the changing world.

Teachers' Conversion Needs

Teachers are at times transferred to entirely different jobs in schools, districts and regional offices and anytime this happens, the teacher should be given in-service training to make him more competent. It may happen that a teacher who was initially trained for work at the primary school level is moved into a secondary school or has been asked to work in the district/ regional office. Teachers affected by such changes will definitely require re-training in order to function effectively. For example, officers such as subject specialists and others are asked to fill positions in the classroom. During the education reforms, district offices were restructured and officers in the district offices who could not fit into the structure were sent to the classroom.

Curriculum and Instructional Improvement Needs

The society is in a state of continual change, with one change leading to another or even generating another. As a result of this, the old learning quickly gets obsolete, irrelevant or inadequate. As the environment

changes, the people adjust or adapt to it in an attempt to achieve equilibrium.

There are new skills, methods, attitudes, beliefs, materials and equipment which must be exposed to the students. These changes in the society force the school to make curricular changes accordingly. And for these curricular changes to be well taught, teachers have to be retrained through workshops, courses and fellowships to raise their competency level in handling the subjects. For example, for Ghana to keep abreast with other countries, she introduced educational reforms in 1987. One of the changes introduced was in the area of curriculum. New subjects such as pre-technical skills, pre-vocational skills, life skills, agricultural science and French were introduced at the basic education level while metal work, graphic design, woodwork, textiles, social studies, et cetera, were also introduced at the secondary education level. Presently, there are efforts to include lessons on HIV/AIDS in the school curriculum. Understanding the nature and scope of new subjects that were introduced and the methods of teaching them called for retraining of teachers to raise their competency level. Hence, assessment to determine the training needs of teachers for in-service training is of paramount importance.

The Nature of In-Service Training in Ghana

In Ghana, the practice was that in-service training courses were external courses organized on campuses of colleges, universities, institutes and teachers' centres. However, of late, school-based and cluster-based INSET are being encouraged and practised.

The school-based in-service training is organised on the school premises for the sole benefit of the teachers of that school. Work is planned by the education office or head and sometimes jointly with teachers. Within the learning community of the school, teachers' and pupils' needs are identified more easily and training experiences/programmes are devised toward meeting the identified needs with the view to raising the standard of teaching and learning in the classroom. Resistance to the implementation of what has been learnt is usually less. The needs could be preparation of lesson notes, methods/techniques of teaching reading, test construction, test administration, filling of continuous assessment form,

effective management and control of class and closing of the class register. The resource person could be a member of staff who has the flair, experience and expertise, the head teacher, the circuit supervisor, personnel from the district education office or a tutor from a college. The school's facilities such as classrooms, craft rooms and laboratories are used.

The cluster-based INSET involves teachers in 3-5 schools in a cluster who have identified identical/ common needs and therefore come together to have these needs addressed. The needs could be those already stated in the school-based in-service training programme. Teachers meet at one of the schools which is within a walking distance from the others to undergo INSET. Like the school-based INSET the resource person could also be a teacher in the cluster schools who has the flair, experience and expertise or a circuit supervisor, or personnel from the district education office or college.

In-service training is also organised at Teachers' Centres or campuses of colleges and universities where the resources used belong to such institutions. Such off-campus in-service training is organised for a day or several days. In most cases accommodation and meals are provided for participants. Generally, this model uses the top-down approach when Ghana Education Service (GES) is introducing a new curriculum or a new technique of teaching a particular subject. Here, resource persons with higher qualifications and more experience rather than colleagues are used. An example is resource persons from tertiary institutions being used to teach teachers at the basic education level.

The GES assumes that the serving teachers are not competent enough to handle such subjects, hence the organization of in-service training to enable them acquire the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and sensitivities. Apart from teachers, newly promoted and serving heads also undertake in-service training in management techniques.

During the 1987 Education Reforms in Ghana, a number of in-service training courses were organised for the personnel of the GES. Courses were organised in the area of new curriculum developed, teaching methodology, educational planning, school management and supervision of instruction. All these courses were organised as external in-service

training courses by the Ministry of Education (MOE). Considering the costs and other problems involved in external in-service training, the ministry encourages school-based in-service training.

Distance Education programmes are organised for teachers holding Certificate 'A' and Diploma Certificate respectively. In Ghana, this is organised by the Centre for Continuing Education, University of Cape Coast and the Institute for Educational Development and Extension, University of Education, Winneba. The programme transmits both professional and academic information to teachers to upgrade their competence and skills so that they could be kept abreast with new developments in education. Teachers are also informed of issues of vital national importance and the overall national needs of the country.

Sandwich courses are also organised by Educational Institutions to upgrade the knowledge level of teachers in the country. Presently, the University of Cape Coast and University of Winneba do organise sandwich programmes in education related courses.

The Universities in Ghana offer admission to teachers to pursue both academic and professional courses. These courses are meant to upgrade the knowledge, skills and competencies of teachers.

Problems/Weaknesses of INSET in Ghana

It has been observed that many problems plague the organisation of in-service training in Ghana. The following are the major problems:

Organisation

1. Many in-service courses are not co-ordinated. At times this lack of co-ordination results in duplication of efforts. For example the Department of Primary Education of University of Cape Coast organises INSET for teachers in her adopted schools and the GES also organises the same course for teachers in Cape Coast schools, including University of Cape Coast (UCC) adopted schools. Similarly, in-service training activities of Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT), Institute of Education at UCC and Non-Governmental Organisations like Plan Ghana and Action Aid are not co-ordinated. Most often, these individual

bodies see themselves as islands existing on their own and therefore design their programmes without close consultation with the other bodies. This leads to duplication of efforts, and inappropriate and inefficient use of limited funds. Various groups of organisers introduce teachers to various methods or formats for handling certain topics. Teachers do complain of the frequent changing of methods/formats because they get confused as to which one they should adopt.

2. There are no frequent follow-up visits or monitoring by authorities to ascertain whether knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired are put into practice. Hence there is little or no feedback to guide future INSET.
3. Timing is also another problem in the organisation of INSET. Some INSET courses are organised during holidays while others are organised during school time. Those organised during holidays are not welcomed by teachers because it deprives them of their leisure hours and private activities during the vacation period. On the other hand, organizing courses during school time also results in loss of sizeable amount of instructional time and therefore affect pupils' learning adversely.
4. Most often participants are not tested immediately after the workshop to find out the competency level gained at the workshop. The absence of any form of assessment does not encourage the participants to pay much attention to the lessons.
5. At times, in-service courses are organised for class-specific teachers, that is, courses meant for either all class one or class five teachers in a district. The problem is that, when such teachers are assigned to different classes in which training had not been received, teaching of subjects in those classes becomes a little bit difficult. This usually occurs when teachers are transferred from one school to another.

Relevance of Course Content to Needs of Participants

Instructions at some of the in-service courses are not related to practical classroom experience. Some of the teachers complain that some of the courses are too theoretical and not of practical

value to them in the classroom. Also teachers are taught how to use some equipment, for example audio visuals/computers, which are not in existence in their schools. They therefore do not make use of skills acquired in those areas. In this case, energy and money have been wasted.

Attitude

There is low level of commitment and negative attitude on the part of some of the facilitators and participants and they therefore do not attach much importance to in-service training. The incentive packages attached to these courses for both facilitators and participants are most often not attractive. Most often, some teachers attend training workshops because it is compulsory, others are adamant and resist change and therefore do not put into practice what they learn at the sessions. According to some teachers, the unattractive conditions of service even in the Ghana Education Service (GES) discourage participants from paying much attention to the courses.

Finance

Inadequate financing of the programme is one of the major problems. Very often, most in-service training courses organised in the country are financed by foreign donors like the World Bank; so if the donor agencies' funds dry up, funding from the Government becomes a problem as it is always inadequate. Budgetary allocations for Manpower and Training Division are so meagre that they cannot support any viable district courses. Participants complain about refund of transport expenses, meals and other out- of-station expenses. Because of inadequate funding, in-service training programmes are irregular and therefore do not contribute much to the professional and academic development of serving teachers.

Suggestions for Improvement

Current explosion of knowledge, technological advancement and dynamism of society call for regular innovations and reforms, attitudinal change, reinforcement of new concepts and practices in education; hence the need for regular in-service training for teachers. The following suggestions are offered to improve in-service training in Ghana:

Organisation

1. Co-ordinating units should be established at both national and district levels to co-ordinate the in-service

training activities of the various bodies such as GNAT, Department of Primary Education and Institute of Education at UCC and NGOs. In this way, duplication of efforts and waste of limited resources could be avoided. There will not be conflicting information which tends to confuse teachers in the execution of their duties.

2. Although officers such as Circuit Supervisors go to the schools to give support to the teachers, it was observed that very little is done to assess the competency of teachers in the area in which they receive in-service training. The feedback will guide future in-service training programmes. To carry out this assignment effectively, Circuit Supervisors should have the opportunity to visit each school more than twice a term as it exists currently.
3. The timing of in-service training courses is really a difficult problem but there must be a way out. It would not be recommended that school time should be used for in-service training courses, as it will reduce teacher-pupil contact hours and subsequently pupil learning which is already a serious problem in the system; neither would we recommend organising the in-service training in the afternoons after school hours; for, teachers would be exhausted and would not concentrate on what is being taught. In addition, teachers use the afternoons to mark exercises and assignments given to pupils and prepare for the next day's lessons. It is therefore recommended that the in-service training courses should be organised during vacation time. It is expected that teachers will be willing to sacrifice part of their vacation time on in-service training courses if the incentive packages attached to the courses are attractive enough.
4. To make in-service training courses more practical, it is recommended that very experienced resource persons should be employed to organise the in-service training. With regard to the acquisition of skills for the use of some equipment, it is recommended that teachers should be trained to handle modern equipment for enhancement of teaching/ learning. What is more

important is to provide the equipment for use by teachers in their various schools. Probably, the central government could be helped by benevolent societies such as Old Boys Association, NGOs, PTAs and philanthropists in the community with the provision of the equipment.

5. In organising in-service training, teachers should be trained to handle subjects in more than one specific class so that they would not be found wanting should they be re-assigned to a different class when the need arises.
6. To ensure that school-based and cluster-based in-service training courses are very effective, more weighting should be given to in-service training in the assessment of management and supervisory functions of school heads and circuit supervisors.
7. In school and cluster-based in-service training model, teachers participate as helpers to each other and planners of in-service activities by identifying and addressing their training needs for improvement of their competencies. This training thrives on self-help, co-operation and sharing of ideas. It is in this light that we do recommend/encourage the use of Action Research by teachers in basic schools in Ghana.
8. Apart from school and cluster-based INSET, another cost-effective method is to organise in-service courses by use of satellites, television, radio and correspondence courses for a large number of teachers. The advantage here is that the unit cost is low.
9. Circuit supervisors should be made more mobile in order to conduct and monitor school-based and cluster-based in-service training programmes. To ensure effective organisation, supervision and monitoring of in-service training programmes, travelling costs incurred by Circuit Supervisors should be promptly refunded to them as a way of motivating them.
10. Teachers returning from in-service training courses held outside their schools should organise similar courses for their colleagues.
11. Subject Associations should be encouraged to play a major role in organising in-service courses to supplement that which is organised by other bodies.

12. There should be room for creativity among participants so that they can contribute their quota to the success of the programme. In this way, they will feel part of the programme and not mere recipients of knowledge.

Relevance of Course Content to Needs of Participants

Efforts should be made to identify the learning needs of teachers within a particular area/locality (school-based or local based) before planning an in-service training. This would assist organisers to identify the real needs of teachers in order to address them accordingly. It can be done by observation, brainstorming, and management request or through questionnaire. The needs can also be identified through community interviews. For example, PTAs or School Management Committees (SMCs) could give their impression about the effectiveness of teachers and any other problems that may arise. Students' performances/achievements can also give a hint.

Attitude

To address the issue of participants not paying much attention to the lessons it is recommended that the participants should be assessed immediately after the courses before leaving the course centres. This calls for the designing of relevant assessment instrument for the testing of the participants. Participants should be made aware at the beginning of the programme that they would be assessed at the end of the course to determine the competency level gained during the in-service training course. A mechanism should also be put in place to check attendance. This is to ensure that all teachers invited to in-service training are present and participate fully and effectively in the training-programme.

Finance

Since it is an established fact that teachers are crucial in every educational enterprise, it is imperative that Ghana invests more resources in the training of her teachers if she is to achieve the desired goals. The Government/ MOE should make adequate funds available for sustainability of in-service training courses especially when foreign funds dry up. Should the government find it difficult to provide funds from the Consolidated Fund, arrangements could be made with District

Assemblies to take up the responsibility. Heads of institutions should make provisions for in-service training in their budgets. Also, school-based in-service training would be more cost-effective than the externally organised in-service training courses. Generally, in-service training programmes should be planned and designed in such a way that needs are matched with available resources to ensure that one does not run into difficulties after the programme takes off.

Motivation

Attractive packages should be attached to in-service training programmes. Better conditions of service and other incentive packages like earning promotions and higher certificates can motivate teachers to pay more attention to in-service training courses. Short in-service courses should be structured such that one can earn credits towards higher qualification as well as for promotion without one leaving one's work to do full time studies. In this new approach, a certificate 'A' teacher can earn/accumulate credits for upgrading to a diploma status, and the diploma teacher can also accumulate credits to obtain a degree. In addition, those who are not interested in additional qualifications can improve their own professional skills or earn credits for promotion. This would create motivation and boost morale among the teachers.

Teacher's Resource Centre

Teachers' Resource Centres provide facilities and the environment as well as resource persons for teachers to up-grade themselves. These centres have to be equipped in order to effectively perform their roles including in-service training, curriculum development activities, preparation of teaching and learning materials and exhibition of new textbooks and educational materials. Since the centre serves as an excellent meeting place where teachers discuss teaching techniques, fresh approaches to the teaching of subjects in schools and new subject-matter, the GES in collaboration with GNAT could establish more centres at areas where teachers can easily move to. It enhances socialisation and sharing of ideas and experiences.

Conclusion

The young and inexperienced teacher from training college or University is confronted with a

barrage of challenges as she/he enters the teaching profession. Even the old and experienced teachers who play a crucial role in the education enterprise need to be abreast with issues within the education sector.

Current knowledge explosion, the era of technology, dynamism of society which call for innovations and reforms, the need for attitudinal change, reinforcement of new concepts and practices in education necessitate organization of regular in-service training for teachers. They have to continually up-date their knowledge, skills, techniques and competencies to make them effective so that their pupils/ students and the society as a whole derive maximum benefit from their work.

In-service training should, to a large extent, be based upon assessed needs of participants; their involvement from the planning, implementation and evaluation stages are essential for their commitment and effectiveness of the programme.

The school-based and cluster-based in-service training which try to address the immediate needs of teachers and are more cost effective should be highly emphasized.

No matter how well-trained, dedicated, committed and resourceful a teacher may be, her/ his effectiveness will be hampered by lack of essentials such as teaching/learning resources and reference materials. Poor working conditions such as low remunerations and little or no fringe benefits tend to destroy the morale of the teachers.

All these need to be seriously addressed if we are to succeed in implementing effective in-service training programmes for quality education.

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ASSESSMENT OF READING MATERIALS AND OBJECTIVES' ACHIEVEMENT OF NATIONAL TEACHERS INSTITUTE'S NIGERIA CERTIFICATE IN EDUCATION PROGRAMME IN OGUN STATE

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Abstract

This study assessed the adequacy or otherwise of the reading materials (modules) and objectives achievement of the National Teachers' Institute's Nigeria Certificate in Education programme in Ogun State. To obtain an in-depth assessment, subject specialists (experts) were randomly drawn from the three tertiary institutions that train teachers, namely Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ijebu-Ode, and Federal College of Education, Osiele, Abeokuta. In all, sixty-three (63) subject specialists were sampled for the modules' assessment. The records on graduating students of National Teachers' Institute were collected from the State Headquarters, Abeokuta to assess the objectives achievement. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Results showed that the objectives are being achieved; the modules are adequate in terms of content, presentation, self-evaluation, dynamism and editing, but not adequate in printing and availability. It is therefore recommended that the NTI(NCE) programme should not be scrapped; quality printing materials for the modules should be used and be readily available.

Introduction

The use of reading materials cannot be over emphasized at each level of the educational system, considering the unique contributions in terms of instructional roles they play in teaching and learning in the classroom and even at private studies. The success of curriculum innovation will be very low if the required textbooks specifically, and other instructional materials in general are inadequately supplied and used.

In the words of Onwuka (1997), the availability of standard text materials, especially in the form of modules is important for the successful execution and management of a distance education programme. Modules are basic and inevitable instructional materials and constitute one of the major yardsticks for measuring programme's effectiveness. Adequacy of reading materials

(course books) is among the evaluative criteria, which are set independently of the specific alternatives and are stated in parameters which furnish directly measurements on the results of an alternative course of action vis-a-vis the objectives of the system.

With regard to a programme's objectives, Soumelis (1971) explains that objectives are meant to guide the behaviour of a system, which strives to attain them through its output (decision/act). The objectives are either set by the system or prescribed by its suprasystem. The setting of a objectives depends on the degree of the system's autonomy and environmental information. Other evaluative criteria are academic performance of students on the programme and the performance of the graduates of the programme. Considering the classroom instruction, "An objective is a clear and unambiguous description of your instructional intent; it is not a statement of what you plan to put into the lesson (content) but instead it is a statement of what your students should get out of the lesson (Oyedeji, 1998). Ogunsaju (2004) explains that :

> formation of goals and objectives is very important and crucial in the establishment of any institution. This is because it is the goal in general that will guide the curricular designer in developing an effective curriculum; in building the teacher to create appropriate learning experiences; in informing the students about what they are expected to learn; in providing a means to evaluate the success of a programme; and informing the general public exalt what the school intend to do with its resources and its children. (pp 125).

Ozuzu (1997), citing Eyre (1983) explains that the purpose of distance education management focuses on the formulation of objectives and policies (to overcome envisaging problems) of institution and the pursuit of all the necessary activities that will bring those objectives and policies to satisfactory fruition. Ozuzu (1997), however explains that when objectives and policies are rightly formulated but wronglyimplemented, problems emerge. These problems arise from

poor planning or implementation or both. Effective management of any organization requires the application of rational and systematic analysis of objectives and policies. It is therefore highly desirable that management of distance learning programmes considers its stated objectives.

The National Policy on Education (2004) spelt out in details the aims and objectives of all levels of education. The National Teachers' Institute (NTI) is a distance learning institution established by the Federal Government of Nigeria with a legal backing through Decree 7 of 10th April, 1978. This institution was established to train teachers at the primary school level.

The overriding aim of the government was that the trained teachers would have a thorough knowledge of primary school subjects, and be able to teach them in the class effectively. In addition to the above aim, the teachers should be able to show remarkable improvement in their general conduct both within and outside the school environment; and also the preparation of teachers for further studies if the need arises.

The Problem

The NTI started to train teachers at Nigeria Certification in Education (NCE) level in Ogun State since 1993. Since its inception, there has been doubts about the quality of the product and the achievement of the institute in relation to the instructional materials. Educational Administrators, especially from the tertiary institutions have been querying the quality of the output (NCE graduates). These doubts about the quality of graduates and relevance of the programme could be traced to poor quality of educational resources in various similar part-time, education programmes (Ojo, 1980; Agwu, 1997; Urombo, 2000).

Based on the above, this study specifically sets out to

(i) examine the adequacy or otherwise of the reading materials

(ii) to find out the extent to which the objectives of NTI (NCE) programme are being achieved in Ogun State.

In order to determine above claims, the following research questions were drawn.

1. How adequate are the reading materials (modules)?

2. To what extent are the objectives of NTI (NCE) programme in Ogun State being achieved?

3. What is the graduation rate of NTI(NCE) students?

Research Method

For this study, descriptive survey research design was adopted because the existing variables were observed and evaluated. The respondents include the subject specialists drawn from Faculty of Education, Olabisi Onabanjo University (OOU), Ago Iwoye, the School of Education, Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ijebu Ode (TASUED) and the School of Education, Federal College of Education (FCE), Osiele, Abeokuta. In all, 63 respoundents were randomly selected: 23 from Olabisi Onabanjo University (OOU), 12 from the Department of Curriculum Studies and Instructional Technology; nine from the Department of Educational Foundations and Management and two from the Department of Sport Science and Health Education. Twenty-one were randomly drawn from TASUED and the remaining 19 were drawn from FCE.

Subject Specialist Checklist (SSC) was designed to assess the students' reading materials (Modules). Two modules of each subject were randomly selected for experts assessment. The reading materials were accompanied with the checklist to assess the adequacy and quality or otherwise of the modules. The checklist comprised three main parts: A, B and C. Part A focused on background information of the subjects specialists, Part B was made up of 31 items. These items were sectional under the following headings: content; printing and organization; presentation; self-evaluation; availability; referencing; dynamism; and editing. Each subject specialist responded by ticking each item from the four options - VA-Very Adequate, A- Adequate, JA – Just Adequate and NA – Not Adequate. Section C was on the specialists' opinion about the NTI (NCE) programme. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics i.e.

percentage, mean and standard deviation. With regard to the achievement of objectives, the researcher visited NTI in Abeokuta (headquarters of Ogun State), to collect data on the graduate students' academic performance and the graduating rate.

At each college, a research assistant was chosen. The research assistants helped to select the respondents randomly using the lottery method in related schools/ departments.

Results

This section focuses on the answers to the research questions and the data collected on academic performance of graduated students.

Research Question 1: How adequate are the reading materials (modules)?

Table 1 shows that the adequacy or otherwise of the texts (modules) were similar, while the printing and availability of the modules were assessed inadequate. All other variables considered were assessed adequate.

Results on Table 1 show clearly that while the experts assessed the text as adequate or fairly adequate in terms of content, presentation, self-evaluation, referencing, dynamism and editing, all the texts were judged grossly inadequate in terms of printing and availability. The texts were poorly printed and this, therefore, affected readability of the texts by the students. Many of the students interviewed made it clear that they experienced difficulties in reading the texts because of the poor printing. Apart from that, the texts were not readily available.

Urombo (2000) study in Zimbabwe revealed that distance learners experienced a similar situation. She found that 73% of the students sampled indicated that the modules were not given in good time. The inability to make the texts available as at when due would hamper normal studies and preparation for examinations. The aftermath would be poor reading habits, poor performance and examination malpractices among the students.

Table 1

Assessments of the Adequacy of the Modules (Five Texts)

	English language N = 11				Mathematics N = 10			
	M	SD	z-Score	D	M	SD	Z-Score	D
Content	3.45	0.66	1.19	A	3.01	051	0.47	A
Printing and	1.92	0.94	-1.45	NA	1.89	0.71	-1.56	
NA organization	3.25	0.75	0.85	A	3.04	0.66	0.53	A
Presentation	2.86	0.98	0.17	A	3.24	0.73	0.89	A
Self Evaluation	3.08	0.84	0.55	A	2.73	1.95	-0.04	A
Referencing	2.85	0.91	0.16	A	3.21	0.69	0.84	A
Dynamism	2.81	0.63	0.09	A	2.94	1.11	0.84	A
Editing	2.76	0.58		JA	2.75	1.55	0.84	JA
Total								

	Social Studies N=12				Integrate Science N=12				Primary Education Studies N = 18			
	M	SD	Z-Score	D	M	SD	Z-Score	D	M	SD	Z-Score	D
Content	3.23	0.61	0.75	A	2.97	0.79	0.45	A	3.45	0.66	1.19	A
Printing and organization	1.71	1.24	-1.39	NA	1.86	0.67	-1.54	NA	1.92	0.94	-1.45	NA
Presentation	3.41	0.52	1.0	A	3.13	0.97	0.73	A	3.25	0.75	0.85	A
Self Evaluation	2.99	0.85	0.41	A	2.95	1.01	0.41	A	2.86	0.98	0.17	A
Referencing	2.05	1.05	-0.92	NA	3.11	1.01	0.70	A	3.08	0.84	0.55	A
Dynamism	3.07	0.73	0.52	A	3.02	1.03	0.54	A	2.85	0.19	0.16	A
Editing	3.33	0.66	0.89	A	2.96	1.02	0.43	A	2.81	0.63	0.09	A
Total	2.70	0.71		JA	2.72		0.56	JA	2.76	0.58		JA

VA-Very Adequate; A – Adequate; JA – Just Adequate; and NA – Not Adequate

N = Number of respondents

M = Mean

SD = Standard Deviation

Research Question 2: To what extent are the objectives of NTI (NCE) programme in Ogun State being achieved?

The main objectives of the NTI (NCE) are

i. To train and upgrade all qualified Grade II teachers to NCE level

ii. To help produce the needed teachers for the successful implementation of National Policy on Education.

iii. To provide the basic background for those of them who may later wish to pursue their studies at higher levels.

In 1993, a total of 3,372 students graduated, out of this number, 3119 (92.5) had merit and above passes, 68 students (2.031) with ordinary passes, while the remaining 185 (5.49%) were absent in one or more courses. The remaining years under study could be observed in Table 2.

The third general objective of the NTI (NCE) programme is "to provide the basic background for those of them who may later wish to pursue their studies at higher levels". The academic performance (1993-2000) results on Table 2 refers. It was observed that those qualified to pursue higher education were quite reasonable in number. A total of 4,347 out of 4960 representing 87.6% of the products were qualified for admission into higher institutions, though they may have to improve on their O/L basic qualifications.

Table 2

Academic Performance (1993-2000) Results

	1993		1994		1995		1996	
	No of students	%	No of students	%	No of students	%	No of student	%
Merit and above	3119	92.49	428	78.96	228	83.52	247	80.46
Ordinary Pass	68	2.02	50	9.23	29	10.62	19	6.19
Absent (in one or more courses) 13.35	185	5.49	64	11.81	16	5.86	41	
Total	3372		542		273		307	

	1998		1999		2000		(Total 1993-2000)	
	No of student	%	No. of student	%	No. of student	%	No. of Student	%
Merit and above	75	76.53	30	55.55	220	70.06	4347	87.64
Ordinary Pass	02	2.04	11	20.37	71	22.6	250	5.04
Absent (in one or more courses)	21	21.43	13	24.07	23	7.33	363	7.32
Total	98		54		314		4960	100

Source: Ogun State NTI Office, Abeokuta

Research Question 3: What is the graduation rate of NTI (NCE) students?

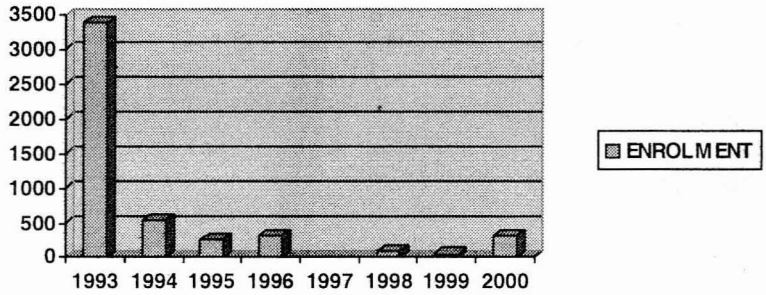

Figure 1: NTI (NCE) graduation rate

Generally, between 1993 and 2000; the programme graduated 4960 students, in which 4347 (87.6%) passed at merit and above, 250 (5.04%) students had ordinary passes while 363 (7.32%) students were absent in one or more courses.

The NTI (NCE) Programme Objective Achievement

The objectives of NTI (NCE) programme as stated in the NTI document were assessed to have been achieved fully. A look at the figure (graph) showed that the first set of graduands (1993) were more than double the total number of graduands produced between 1994 and 2000. It could be adduced that most of the Grade II certificate holders then and those who had the prescribed requirements for NCE admission were trained and upgraded. It was observed that the Federal Government's pronouncement on the minimum qualification led to the closure of TC II Training Colleges in Ogun State, leaving just one, the TC II, Ilaro. The closure of Teachers Colleges led to the shortage of teaching personnel in the state and the NTI Grade II by DLS had to come to the rescue, which now led to the present increase in the students' enrolment. In the year 2000 alone, 314 students graduated as against 98 students and 54 students that graduated in 1998 and 1999 respectively.

Going by the records, more than 800 students graduated in year 2001, while over 1000 students graduated in 2002. We can, therefore, confidentially say that one of the main objectives – "to train and upgrade all qualified Grade II Teachers to NCE level" was being achieved.

The second general objective is "to help produce the needed teachers for the successful implementation of National Policy on Education". It had been found that majority of the primary school teachers in Ogun State at the time when the study took place were NCE holders, even some of them were bachelor degree holders. It is of note that many of these teachers were NTI (NCE) products.

Conclusion

An attempt has been made to assess NTI (NCE) programme in Ogun State, with regard to the adequacy or othrwise of reading materials and the achievement of objectives. Assessment of educational programmes is a continuous stock-taking measure to determine the extent to which the objectives of the various education programmes are being achieved.

Adebusuyi (2000), referring to Okpala et al (1993) defined evaluation as process of gathering valid information on attainment of educational objectives, analysis and fashioning information to aid judgment on the effectiveness of teaching...". Effective teaching and learning which are means of actualizing human resource development in all educational

In order to remove obsolescence, periodic review of modules is essential, good printing material institutions, NTI inclusive, can only be achieved by providing required textbooks/modules and all other educational resources adequately. should be used and the modules should be made available to students as soon as each session commences.

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IMPACT OF LABOUR TURNOVER ON ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES IN LAGOS STATE, NIGERIA

D. I. Akintayo

Abstract

This study investigated the impact of labour turnover on organizational effectiveness in selected industries in Lagos State, Nigeria. This was with the view to determining the appropriate management strategies through which the problem of labour turnover could be reduced to the nearest minimum in work organizations in Nigeria. The survey research method was adopted for the study. A total of 640 respondents were selected for the study using proportionate stratified sampling technique. The major instruments used for the study were questionnaire and interview schedule. The reliability coefficient of 0.84 was obtained for the research instrument. The four hypotheses generated for the study were tested using chi-square and linear regression analysis statistical methods at 0.05 alpha levels. The finding of the study reveals that there was a significant relationship between labour turnover and organizational effectiveness. Also, a significant relationship was found between job dissatisfaction and labour turnover. There was a main effect of interaction of occupational variables and labour turnover on organizational effectiveness. Finally, a positive significant relationship was found among career mobility, labour turnover and organizational effectiveness. Based, on the findings of the study, it is recommended that the working environment of the workers need to be improved upon in order to reduce the alarming rate of labour turnover that impact organizational effectiveness. Also, career development and promotion opportunities have become a rare phenomenon in most of the organizations; individuals who feel their contributions go unrewarded often feel undervalued, which can lead to dissatisfaction and virtually an increase of unwarranted turnover.

Introduction

Early studies on organizational effectiveness particularly those conducted through the sixties tended to indicate that high rate of labour turnover leads to decrease and poor performance of the affected work organizations. In other words, increased employees rate of turnover is associated with increase in job dissatisfaction. Thus, for instance, the human relationists argued that employee's attitude has a significant relationship to employee performance, vis-à-vis organizational productivity (Ley, 1996; Marro, 1990, Steer and Mowday, 1981).

Onimode (2001) asserts that employee performance is a function of their attitude and commitment in the sense that employee high satisfaction or morale reduces turnover and cut down absenteeism and tardiness. This implies that productive efficiency which could lead to goal achievement will fluctuate with variations in employees' rate of turnover, interests and morale.

In this empirical study, Talacchi (1993) discussed the theory underlying his assumption concerning the relationship between job satisfaction, absenteeism, labour turnover and organizational size. He postulates in this respect that the degree of functional specialization varies concomitantly with size and structure. The author reported that functional specialization narrows the work content and responsibility of the job depriving it of non-material reward, such as pride, workmanship and recognition of achievement. This implies that interpersonal relation, increasing complexity of this kind together with the development of technical interests among departments and reduction in their interaction increases the potential for personal and group conflict. These factors observed by Talacchi were found to have led to low level of job satisfaction and high levels of absenteeism and labour turnover which have interacting effects on organizational effectiveness.

Adewoyin (2003) in her study found out that labour turnover had significantly influenced low achievement of organizational goals. The author reported that organizational structure, occupational variables and job dissatisfaction were related to organizational goal achievement. This implies the causal factors of labour turnover could mutually influence non-achievement of organizational goals. In essence, there are potentially more linkages in large organizations than in small units and therefore adequate communication is less likely to be achieved which could definitely lead to reduction in the level of interpersonal attraction among members. However, with this decline in attraction, absence and turnover is likely to increase and reduction in the level of organizational effectiveness is likely to surface.

In the same vein, Indik (1993), Adewoyin (2003), and Onimode (2001), presented a formulation similar to Talacchi's (1993) submission. They hypothesized that an increase in the

rate of labour turnover and absence of control and co-ordination mechanism tend to result in declined organizational performance. Also, an increase in the organizational size, structure and occupational variables increase the need for control strategies which result in the growth of bureaucratization. Impersonal models of control are however ineffective in maintaining individual 'attraction' to the organization, and as a result, levels of absence and labour turnover with interacting effects on organizational effectiveness will occur. Also, Adewoyin (2003) and Indik (1993) suggest that as size increases so does the level of role specialization; and that as a consequence, the decrease in the degree of job complexity reduces the level of job satisfaction and tends to increase absenteeism and labour turnover. This implies that there are potentially more linkages in large organizations than in small units in terms of organizational effectiveness and goal achievement.

However, the Action Society Trust Investigators (1988), and Onimode (2001) came to conclusion in their reports that there was no significant correlation between voluntary turnover rate and total absenteeism or with structure and size of the organization. Hence, it looks as if the reasons that cause workers to quit their organizations are not those that cause them to stay with their organizations, whether for sickness, job-related factors or other reasons. In other words, the correlates of labour turnover are not the same as those of organizational effectiveness (Cook, 1995).

Meanwhile the problem of organizational effectiveness can best be understood in terms of the relationship between workers' level of communication and the types of expectation from work and the structure of potential rewards in the organization. In essence, the decision to leave or stay in an organization will be dependent upon the level of rewards an individual receives in the system. On the other hand, absence behaviour can best be understood by referring not only to the level of rewards, but also to the effectiveness of interpersonal as opposed to impersonal controls in determining the level of organizational identification with goal achievement of those employees who have decided to remain in an organization (Dalton and Toder, (1988), Dalton, Toder and Sylver (1994), Mobley (1999) and Starvan and Oldhem (1998).

Against the foregoing, the problem of specifying the exact nature of

relationship between organizational structure, reward system, occupational variables and labour turnover need to be further investigated. The bulk of the research on labour turnover had focused on causes and correlates, relatively less attention had been directed to the consequence of turnover on organizational effectiveness in terms of goal achievement. Although many researchers and writers such as Mobley (1999), Onimode, 2001), Talacchi (1993) and Wachter and Kim (1999) acknowledge that 'turnover is not all bad', most do not systemically deal with the individual or organizational consequences of turnover. Of the limited researches that deal with the consequences of turnover, few have been directed towards estimating the losses to the organization.

Statement of the Problem

Against this background, the study investigated the impact of labour turnover on organizational effectiveness in terms of organizational goal achievement in selected industries in Lagos State of Nigeria. This was for the purpose of determining the appropriate management strategies that could foster continuity of service and reduction in the rate of labour turnover in service and manufacturing organizations in developing countries.

Specifically, the study sought to provide answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent does labour turnover influence organizational effectiveness?
2. Is there any relationship between job dissatisfaction and labour turnover?
3. What are the correlates of labour turnover?

Hypotheses for the study

The following four null hypotheses were generated for the purpose of the study;

i There is no significant relationship between labour turnover and organizational effectiveness

ii There is no significant relationship between job dissatisfaction and labour turnover.

iii There is no significant relationship between occupational variables and labour turnover.

iv There is no significant relationship among career mobility, labour turnover and organizational effective ness.

Methodology

Research Design

The study adopted survey research design to establish the relationship between labour turnover and organizational effectiveness.

Population and Sample Selection

The target population for the study consists of all workers in selected industries in Lagos state. Actually, it was not possible to get the whole population of 5,328 workers responding to the questionnaire to be administered. Thus a sample size of 640 was selected for the study using stratified and proportionate sampling techniques.

The proportionate sampling method was utilized to select respondents based on the population of the selected industries. The respondents were selected based on the strata of banking, communication, power and brewing industries. The purposive sampling technique was used to select workers who had spent at least three years in the selected industries. The selected industries include: First Bank of Nigeria Plc, Nigerian Telecommunication Plc, National Electric Power Authority (now Power Holding of Nigerian Plc) and Nigerian Breweries Plc.

Table 1 below shows the distribution and stratification of the respondents by industries.

Table 1

Stratification of Respondents by Industries

Industries	Population	Sample Element	Percentage
First Bank of Nigeria Plc	1,216	156	24.4
Nigerian Telecommunication Plc (NITEL)	866	100	15.6
National Electricity Power Authority (now Power Holding of Nigeria Plc)	1,230	180	28.1
Nigerian Breweries Plc	2,016	204	31.9
Total	5,328	640	100

Table 1 shows the proportional representation of the respondents according to population of each of the industries selected for the study. The population consists of 387 (60.5%) male and 253 (39.5%) female respondents; 481 (75.2%) married and 159 (24.8%) single respondents; 366 (57.2%) graduates and 274 (42.8%) non-graduates, 200 (31.3%), junior staff, 262 (40.9%) senior staff and 178 (27.8%) management staff. However, workers who had spent at least three years in the selected industries participated in the study.

Research Instrument

The major instrument utilized for the study was a set of questionnaire titled Labour Turnover and Organizational Effectiveness Scale (LTOES). The questionnaire consists of three sections, A, B and C. Section A focused on demographic information, such as: Name of organization, age, sex, educational qualification, marital status, and position held in the industry. Section B focused on correlates of labour turnover. For instance, the following factors tend to influence labour turnover: Job dissatisfaction, occupational variables (nature of the job, condition of work and hour of duty) and career mobility. Also, section C focused on consequences of labour turnover on organizational effectiveness. For instance; Labour turnover tends to: disrupt organizational goal achievement, reduction of organizational performance, reduction in workforce, disruption of job continuity, reduction in the pace of organizational productivity, etc. The modified Likert four-point response rating scale ranging from Strongly Agree (4 points), Agree (3 points), Strongly Disagree (2 points) and Disagree (1 point) was adopted for the study.

Validity of the Instrument

The instrument was standardized by using construct validity. The instruments were subjected to criticism by experts in Economics, Labour Relations, Sociology, Psychology, and Measurement and Evaluation. Their criticism and suggestions led to modification of some aspects of the items of the questionnaire.

Reliability of the Instrument

The reliability of the instrument was sought through the use of test-re-test method. The instrument was

administered on sixty-five workers in an industry in Ibadan. The reliability co-efficient of 0.84 of the instrument was obtained using Kuber Cronbach co-efficient alpha formula at 0.05 level of confidence.

Administration of the Instrument

The instruments were personally administered by the researcher with the assistance of the personnel manager(s) of each of the selected industries in Lagos State of Nigeria. The researcher explained the purpose of the study. All aspects of the instruments were carefully explained to the respondents. The administration of the questionnaire took the researcher six weeks. All completed questionnaire were to be submitted to the office of the personnel manager(s) of each of the selected industries. This made possible for researcher to secure maximum co-operation of the respondents.

However, 670 copies of the questionnaire were administered but 656 copies were returned to office of personnel managers. Out of 656 returned copies of questionnaire, only 650 were completely filled. Thus, a total of 640 copies of the questionnaire duly completed which represent 95.5% of the total number of the administered questionnaire, were collected and utilized for the purpose of the study.

Method of Data Analysis

The data collected through questionnaire were collated and analyzed using frequency count and simple percentage for demographic information. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Regression Analysis methods were utilized to test relationship between or among variables of interest at 0.05 alpha levels.

Presentation of Results

Ho_1: There is no significant relationship between labour turnover and organizational effectiveness.

Table 2
Summary of Chi-Square Contingency Table of Analysis on Relationship between Labour Turnover and Organizational Effectiveness

Response	Observed Frequency	Expected Frequency	df	Chi-Square	Critical Value	Remark
Strongly Agree	281	160	15	161.62	25.0	*Significant* (P< 0.05)
Agree	206	160				
Strongly Disagree	97	160				
Disagree	56	160				
Total	640	640				

Table 2 shows that the chi-square calculated value of 161.62 is greater than the critical value of 25.0 which was significant at 0.05 alpha level. This indicates that there seems to be a significant relationship between labour turnover and organizational effectiveness. This implies that the rate of labour turnover has had a deleterious effect on organizational effectiveness. In essence, the null hypothesis earlier postulated for the study was rejected.

Ho_2: There is no significant relationship between job dissatisfaction and labour turnover

Table 3
Summary of Chi-Square Contingency Table of Analysis on Relationship between Job Dissatisfaction and Labour Turnover

Response	Observed Frequency	Expected Frequency	df	Chi-Square	Critical Value	Remark
Strongly Agree	232	160	15	96.64	25.0	Significant (P< 0.05)
Agree	208	160				
Strongly-Disagree	160	160				
Disagree	40	160				
Total	640	640				

Table 3 above shows that the chi-square calculated value of 96.64 was greater than the critical value of 25.0 which was significant at 0.05 alpha level. This indicates that there is a significant relationship between the job dissatisfaction and labour turnover. This implies that job dissatisfaction is a determinant of labour turnover. It tends to predict whether a worker will stay or leave an organization. In essence, the null hypothesis earlier postulated for the study was rejected.

Ho_3: There is no significant relationship among occupational variables, labour turnover and organizational effectiveness.The result of the linear regression as indicated in Table 4 suggests that there was a joint prediction of organizational effectiveness by occupational variables and labour turnover ($f(3,636) = 21.68$; $P < 0.05$. All the variables independently predicted organizational effectiveness. The highest independent contribution was labour turnover ($\hat{a} = .22$) followed by occupational variables ($\hat{a} = 0.68$). The hypothesis was therefore partially supported.

Ho_4: There is no significant relationship among career mobility, labour turnover and organizational effectiveness.

Table 4
Summary of Linear Regression Showing the Relationship among Occupational Variables, Labour Turnover and Organizational Effectiveness

Variable	Beta	T	Remark
Occupational variables	0.68	2.26	Significant P(< 0.05)
Labour turnover	.216	4.23	Significant (< 0.05)
Organizational effectiveness	0.16	2.11	Significant (< 0.05)

Table 5
Summary of Linear Regression Showing the Relationship among career mobility, labour turnover and organizational effectiveness

Variable	Beta	T	P
Career mobility	0.91	1.62	< 0.05
Labour turnover	321	5.15	< 0.05
Organizational effectiveness	0.26	4.32	< 0.05

$R^2 = .30, f. (3,636) = 39.50; P < 0.05$

The result of the linear regression in Table 5 reveals that there was a joint prediction of organizational effectiveness by career mobility and labour turnover, F (3,636) = 39.50; P < 0.05. All the variables independently predicted organizational effectiveness. The highest independent contribution was labour turnover (â = .32) followed by career mobility (â = 0.91).

Discussion of Findings

The first hypothesis predicted that there is no significant relationship between labour turnover and organizational effectiveness. The findings of the study revealed that a significant relationship exists between labour turnover and organizational effectiveness. This suggests that the rate at which people are moving in and moving out, has a deleterious impact on organizational effectiveness in terms of goal achievement. This finding corroborates Mobley, Griffen, and Hand (1999) who found out that retaining worker in an organization is a key to effective management and achievement of the goal of the organization. In essence, as the rate of labour turnover increases, the level of organizational goal achievement decreases. The finding of the study also tallies with Adewoyin (2003) and Oladeji (1992) who reported that labour turnover has a negative implication on organizational goal achievement. The implication of this finding is that labour turnover, if not well controlled could possibly make workers performance

effectiveness vis-à-vis organizational goal achievement impossible.

The second hypothesis predicted a negative relationship between job dissatisfaction and labour turnover. The finding of the study revealed that a positive relationship existed between job dissatisfaction and labour turnover. This implies that lack of workers motivation and virtually, dissatisfaction with condition of service had great impact on their decision to stay or leave the organization. Also, as workers become dissatisfied, management should deem it fit to recruit any available competent hands to replace the leavers. This finding corroborates Talacchi (1993), Onimode (2001) and Adewoyin (2003) who assert that workers tend to quit the service of their industries if they felt dissatisfied with their jobs. Also, the managers could not afford to create vacuum due to some workers leaving their organizations, hence recruitment and selection of new workers to replace the leavers (Lumdonest, 1998; Morro, 1990).

The third hypothesis predicted a negative relationship among occupational variables, labour turnover and organizational effectiveness. The finding of the study revealed that occupational variables in terms of nature of job, condition of work and hours of duty had affected the interest of workers to stay in the selected organizations. In essence, occupation variables have had a significant influence on the rate of labour turnover which has also had an interacting effect on organizational effectiveness. The finding of the study emphasized the fact that the nature of job motivation and content of the job are correlates of labour turnover. This finding corroborates Porter and Steer (1993) and Indik (1993) who reported that occupational factor is a strong determinant of labour turnover since commensurate skills, knowledge and experience are required from the worker for effective job performance. The attributes if not found on the part of the worker could affect organizational effectiveness since instability of the labour could positively lead to organizational instability and ineffectiveness (Price, 1992; Steer and Mowday, 1981)

The fourth hypothesis predicted negative relationship among career mobility, labour turnover and organizational effectiveness. The finding of the study revealed that there was a strong positive relationship among career mobility,

labour turnover and organizational effectiveness. This implies that occupational mobility resulting from nature and marketability of the workers professional qualification, skills, expertise and experience has been found to have had a significant influence on the rate of labour turnover and organizational effectiveness. The implication of the finding of the study is that retention of workers predicts continuity of service and organizational stability that could engender effective service delivery. In other words, the higher the social demand for a profession in an industrial society, the higher the chance of leaving one organization for others in order to seek greener pasture. More so, the more workers move out of organization, the more the vacuum created which could render organization ineffective in terms of organizational goal achievement.

The finding of the study buttressed Locke (1996) and Ley (1996) who assert that occupational expertise and social demand for workers in a certain profession could influence decision of workers to move in and out of organization. This implies that once the profession in which the workers fell are socially accepted, viable and demanded, such workers tend to move in and out of the organization where economic reward is not worthwhile while in search for better organization that provides for equitable reward system.

Summary of the study

This study investigated the impact of labour turnover on organizational effectiveness. This was for the purpose of determining appropriate management strategies that could lead to reduction in the rate of labour turnover in any work organization in Nigeria.

The researcher adopted survey research design for the purpose of the study. The sample elements for the study were selected from four industries in Lagos State, namely; First Bank of Nigeria Plc, Nigeria Telecommunication Plc; National Electric Power Authority (now Power Holding of Nigeria Plc) and Nigerian Breweries Plc. The sample size of 640 was selected for the study using stratified and proportionate sampling techniques. The major instruments used for the study were questionnaire and interview schedule. The reliability co-efficient of 0.84 at 0.05 alpha was obtained for the instrument using Kuber Cronbach coefficient Alpha formulae. The data collected were collated and analyzed using chi-square and linear regression analysis statistical methods. The four null hypotheses generated for

the study were tested. The finding of the study revealed that:

i. A strong positive relationship exists between labour turnover and organizational effectiveness.
ii. Job dissatisfaction was found to have had a significant influence on labour turnover with its attendant implication on organizational effectiveness.
iii. There was a significant relationship among occupational variables, labour turnover and organizational effectiveness.
iv. There was a main effect of interaction of career mobility and labour turnover on organization effectiveness.

Conclusion

This study established the cause-effect relationship between labour turnover and organizational effectiveness. The study established the consequential effects of labour turnover on organizational effectiveness in terms of goal achievement.

The implication of the findings of the study is that given multiple causes and consequences of turnover, it has been established that, no single policy, practice or procedure could be sufficient.

Effective management of labour turnover requires examination of the entire human management process including recruitment, selection, early socialization, job design, compensation, supervision and career planning for sustainability of any result-oriented organization.

Recommendations

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

(i) The working environment of workers needs to be improved upon in order to reduce the rate of labour turnover that impact organizational effectiveness.

(ii) Career development and promotion opportunities have become rarer in most of the organizations in Nigeria, individuals who feel their contributions go unrewarded often feel undervalued which could lead to dissatisfaction and virtually an increase in unwarranted turnover. Performance management systems should therefore be seen as objective and fair in order to avoid allegation of nepotism.

(iii) Also, workers should be made to understand the performance criteria against which they are measured, otherwise they will become dissatisfied and consequently quit the organization. Effectiveness motivation strategies should therefore be designed towards equitable reward system in order to sustain the interest of the workers and retain them in the organization.

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IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL TREATMENT ON JOB SATISFACTION AMONG WORKERS IN SELECTED TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

The study investigated the impact of organizational treatment on job satisfaction among workers in selected tertiary institutions in Nigeria. This was for the purpose of ascertaining the organizational factors that could enhance job satisfaction among institutional workers in Nigeria. The study adopted the ex-post-facto research design. A total of 200 respondents were selected from some Universities in Nigeria using purposive and stratified sampling techniques. The instrument used for data collection was a set of questionnaire with reliability co-efficient of 0.79 using Cronbach Alpha formula. The four-null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level using Pearson Product Moment Correlation and t-test statistical methods. The finding of the study revealed that there was a significant relationship between organizational treatment and workers' job satisfaction. A significant relationship was also found between organizational treatment and workers' attitude to work. Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that workers' involvement in planning and implementation of organizational programmes should be encouraged in order to motivate workers and foster job satisfaction. Also, the wages and salaries of the workers should be subjected to continuous review and promptly paid in order to foster their commitment to organizational goals.

Introduction

In recent times, a surge of interest has been demonstrated on equitable reward system as it affects job-related behaviour by organizational behaviourists (Crapanzano and Randall, 1993). Fair treatment in the workplace has indeed received increased attention by various writers (Cohen, 1991 and Greenberg, 1987). Greenberg noted a growing domain of research, termed organizational justice with particular emphasis on the role of fairness in the workplace.

However, much of the early research studies on organizational justice explored employees' perception of the distributive and procedural fairness of specific organizational policies and decisions (Greenberg, 1988). For instance, researchers have examined employee perceptions of the fairness of selection and recruitment decision (Gilliland, 1993; Smither, Reilly,

Millsap, Pearman and Stoffey, 1993); performance appraisal system (Dipboye and de Pontbraind, 1981; Greenberg, 1986); job loss and lay offs (Brockner and Greenberg, 1990; Konovsky and Brockner, 1993), and even employee reactions to equitable reward in terms of satisfaction and performance. In 1990, organizational justice researchers expanded beyond the traditional procedural and distributive types of justice and began to explore the interpersonal side of organizational justice (Greenberg, 1993; Michelle, Bloom, Dake and Tanzer, 1998). In the study on interpersonal treatment at workplace, Mikula, Petrik and Tanizer (1990) reported that a considerable proportion of the injustices which were reported did not concern distributional or procedural issues in the narrow sense, but referred to the manner in which people were treated in interpersonal interactions and encounters. Similarly, Bies and Moag (1986) noted that employees are heavily influenced by interactional justice which refers to an individual's evaluation of the quality of interpersonal treatment experienced when organizational procedures are enacted.

Meanwhile, other organizational behaviour researchers have noted that a broader concept of interpersonal treatment, which includes treatment outside of organizational procedures and policies, needs further research attention (Messick, Bloom, Boldizar and Samnelson, 1985; Mikula et al., 1990). This broader concept of interpersonal treatment encompassing job satisfaction of the workers forms the focus of the present study.

Evidence shows that the perceptions of organizational treatment are related to critical job-related attitude such as job-satisfaction. Keashley, Wilson and Clement (1994) found that experiences of hostile interpersonal behaviours were related to lower job satisfaction. Further empirical evidence reports that there was a significant relationship between fair treatment at workplace and job satisfaction (Cobb and Frey, 1996, Fry and Gordon, 1989).

Furthermore researchers have also demonstrated a relationship between organizational justice and attitude to work of the employees.

Skarlicki and Folgers (1999) established that interactional justices have negative relationship with organizational relations behaviour. Such retaliational behaviour according to Hanisch and Hulins (1990, 1991) denotes work withdrawal behaviour and negative attitudes to work. Other researchers have found that perceptions of fair treatment are related to decreased turnover intentions (Keashley et, al., 1994, Konovsky and Brockner, 1993) and actual turnover (Dittrich and Currel, 1979).

Meanwhile to establish the relationship between workers' perception of fair organizational treatment and job-related attitude and behaviours, the equity theory (Adams, 1965), social exchange theory (Blan, 1964) for instance, can be used to argue for employees who have negative perceptions of interpersonal treatment and decide to lower inputs to the organization, thus resulting to low workers' productivity, to ratio of outcomes to inputs. Similarly, Willey-Moorman (1991) argues that employees might react to perceived inequalities in the organizations by decreasing the organizational citizenship behaviour.

Despite the interest of researchers in the interpersonal treatment as an aspect of organizational justice, there has been little research on the impact of organizational justice on workers' job satisfaction. Indeed, researches conducted in the area of organizational justice in Nigeria are very few, thus the need for seeking empirical evidence on organizational treatment as it affects workers' attitude to work and job satisfaction as a worthwhile academic endeavour.

Reflecting on the relationship between organizational treatment and job satisfaction, the social exchange theory can also explain this relationship. When employees perceived that they were treated positively by an organization or their leader, they were motivated, based on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), to have positive reactions, such as increased job satisfaction, positive organizational citizenship behaviours and decreased turnover (Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis- Lamastro, 1990). Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991); Malatesta and Byrne (1997), for instance, cited social-exchange theory as responsible for their findings that interactional justice was related to both commitment and citizenship behaviours.

Michelle et al. (1998) predicted that perception of fairness will be related to a variety of perceptionsabout an organization. Their findings established that organizational fair treatment had impacted the employees' conviction about the organizations they worked for. For instance, Bernstein (1997) argued that sexual harassment is a type of incivility or disrespect in an organization. This implies that work groups have norms about how supervisors and co-workers treat each other in interpersonal interaction. Moreso, norms about sexual harassment are subset of interpersonal interactions.

Empirical research findings of some researchers support the nation that perceptions of climate for sexual harassment are related to employee's experiences of sexual harassment (Hulins, Fitzgerald and Arasgow, 1996; Zichar, Munson and Hulin, 1998). These researchers found that when organizations are perceived as tolerant of sexual harassment especially, when employees believe that victims' complaints are not taken seriously or those perpetrators are not punished, satisfaction derived from the job may reduce. They further reported that the level of job satisfaction of employees in such organizations could be lower than those employees in less tolerant organizations.

Recent empirical work on perceived organizational treatment and its influence on work attitudes of working women found that women in organizations with flexible working hours report high level of job satisfaction than women from organizations where there is a rigid working hours (Hanisch and Hulins, 1991). Likewise in an organization where management communicates well with employees, the feeling that the management is communicating what is happening in the business will drive employees' direction (Bernstein, 1997). According to Hullins, Fitzgerald and Arasgow (1996), the desired work attitude and behaviour that conform with and those that extend beyond what is specified in the employment contract are associated with the nature of the relationship with the supervisor. Different perceptions from the above viewpoints may be obtained in developing countries like Nigeria. It is essential to note that in Nigeria, fiscal motivational factor and situational favourableness, with

little or no recognition for communication structure between superior and subordinate or hours of duties, are central to workers' attitude to work.

Recognitions of this fact led to theories that fulfillment of individualneeds (Maslow, 1954 cited in Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa, 1991; McCleland, 1979 cited in Hanisch and Hullins, 1990), meeting expectation (Lawler and Porter, 1968 cited in Gilliland, 1993) and receipt of positive outcomes (Vroom, 1964) resulted in positive work attitudes. Nigerian workers have been found by some researchers to have surrendered to the hegemonic power of money, and the employees can only be committed and satisfied with work condition when they are highly remunerated (Ubeku, 1987 cited in Akintayo, 2002; Anikpo, 1984 cited in Kester, 2002; Akintayo, 2003; Alarape and Akinlabi. 2000 cited in Akintayo, 2002). These authors stressed that in Nigeria, good wages and salaries play a leading role in the search for high level of employee's commitment and satisfaction. However, job status, role differentiation, gender and experience on the job were reportedto be strong determinants of perception of worker's organizational treatment and job satisfaction. (Gilliland, 1994).

Statement of the Problem

Against this background, the study investigated the workers' perception of organizational treatment and job satisfaction in tertiary institutions in South-Western Nigeria. This was with the view to ascertaining the various organizational factors that could enhance job satisfaction among industrial workers in Nigeria.

Objectives of the study

Specifically the objectives of the study are to:

Ascertain the relationship between organizational treatment and job satisfaction.

Find out the relationship between organizational treatment and workers' attitude to work in tertiary institutions.

Establish the relative effect of interpersonal treatment on workers' job satisfaction.

Determine the different perceptions of young and old respondents on the organizational treatment.

Establish the differential perceptions of male and female respondents on organizational treatment.

Hypothesis for the Study

The following four null hypotheses were generated and tested for the purpose of the study:

(1) There is no significant relationship between organizational treatment and workers' job satisfaction.

(2) There is no significant relationship between organizational treatment and attitude to work among the workforce.

(3) There is no significant difference between the perceptions of male and female respondents on organizational treatment.

(4) There is no significant difference in the perceptions of young and old respondents on organizational treatment.

Methodology

Research Design

The ex-post-facto design was adopted for the study. A total of 200 respondents were selected for the study using purposive stratified sampling techniques. Four Universities were purposively selected to represent Federal and State owned tertiary institutions in South Western Nigeria. These were the University of Ibadan, Ibadan, University of Lagos, Lagos, Ado Ekiti University, Ado Ekiti and Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago- Iwoye, Ogun-State.

Also, 128 (64%) male and 72 (36%) female respondents participated in the study. The age range of the respondents was 25-60 year with mean score of 14.36 and standard deviation of 5.02. Moreso, 108 (54%) graduate and 92 (46%) non-graduate

Research instrument

The instrument used for data collection was a set of questionnaire titled "Organizational Treatment and Job Satisfaction Scale" (OTJSS). The questionnaire consisted of 26 items, which consisted of two sections, A and B. Section A contains information on demographic characteristics of the respondents, which include: Name of institution, age, sex, marital status, highest educational qualification and working experience. Section B however contains 20 items related to organizational treatment, attitude to work and job satisfaction. The five points Likert rating scale of Strongly Agreed (SD), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Strongly Disagree (SD) and Disagree (D) was adopted for the study.

Validity of the instrument

The validity of the instrument was sought by consulting with the experts in Psychology, Sociology, Industrial Education and Measurement and Evaluation.

Also, the researchers distributed ten copies of the drafted questionnaire to specialists in the aforementioned disciplines. Their suggestions and criticism led to the modification of some items on the questionnaire. This enabled the researcher to determine the suitability of the questionnaire in measuring the variables of the study.

Reliability of the Study

The consistency of the instrument in measuring the independent and dependent variables in the study was established using Test Re-test method. The researchers administered the questionnaire to twenty workers in International schools in University of Ibadan. The data collected through pilot testing were collated and analyzed to determine the reliability co-efficient of the instrument. Thus, the reliability co-efficient of 0.79 was obtained using Cronbach alpha formula. In essence, the reliability of the research instrument was established before being finally administered on the respondents.

Administration of the instruments

The instrument was administered by the researchers. The researchers explained the purpose of the studyto the respondents. They were made to understand that all information

being provided would be treated with confidentiality and for the purpose of research only.

However, 220 copies of questionnaire were administered and 200 copies were completely filled and returned. It took the researchers three weeks toadminister and collect the questionnaire, due to the geographical location of Nigeria.

Data Analysis

The data collected through the questionnaire was collated and analyzed for the purpose of the study. The demographic information was analyzed using simple percentage and frequency counts. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation and t-test statistical methods were used to test the four null hypotheses generated for the study. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation formula was used to test hypotheses one and two and t-test statistic was utilized to test hypotheses three and four. The four null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha levels.

Presentation of Results

The results of the analyzed data were presented on the basis of the hypotheses generated for the study.

This has virtually impacted morale and attitude to work in a positive direction with overriding effects on job performance and productivity among the workforce. Thus, hypothesis one was rejected.

H01: There is no significant relationship between organizational treatment and workers' job satisfaction.

Table 1 shows that there was a significant relationship between organizational treatment and workers' job satisfaction ($r = .232$; $P < .05$). This indicates that the treatment meted out to workers in the selected Universities, in terms of trust, motivation and equitable reward had influenced job satisfaction among the workers.

Table 1
Summary of Correlation Analysis on Relationship between Organizational Treatment and Workers' Job Satisfaction

Variable	N	Mean	SD	r	P	Remark
Organizational Treatment	200	18.36	3.04	.232	.001	Significant (P <0 .05)
Job satisfaction	200	16.30	3.60			

H02: There is no significant relationship between organizational treatment and attitude to work among the workforce.

kind of organizational support and treatment provided for workers in the selected Universities in Nigeria had influenced their attitude to work in a positive direction.

Table 2
Summary of Correlation Analysis on Relationship between Organizational Treatment and Attitude to Work.

Variable	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**r**	**P**	**Remark**
Organizational Treatment	200	18.36	6.31	.152	.000	Significant (P <0 .05)
Attitude to Work	200	19.57	6.99			

Table 2 shows that there was a significant relationship between organizational treatment and attitude to work (r = .152; P < 0 .05). This indicates that the

The finding of the study implies that workers derived satisfaction in performing their duties due to effective communication climate, harmonious interpersonal relations

among the workforce and equitable reward system being operated in their organizations. Thus, hypothesis two was rejected.

H03: There is no significant difference between male and female respondents' perception on organizational treatment.

Table 3 reveals that that there was a significant difference found between male and female respondents' perception on organizational treatment in their organizations, t (198) = 4.92; P< 0.05. This implies that there was a problem of equity in the distribution of justice and rewardto male and female workers in the selected Universities. This could possibly jeopardize interpersonal relationsand job satisfaction of the workforce with far reaching effect on workers' morale, performance and productivity. Thus, hypo-thesis three was rejected.

H04: There is no significant difference between the perception of young and old respondents' on organizational treatment.

Table 4 shows that there was no significant difference found between the perception of young and old respondents on organizational treatment in their organizations, t (198) = 1.88; P> 0.05.

Table 3
Summary of t-test Analysis on Perception of Male and Female Respondents on Organizational Treatment.

Sex	N	Mean	SD	df	t	P	Remark
Male	128	17.61	2.81	198	4.92	.000	Significant (P <0 .05)
Female	72	19.69	2.99				

This indicates that both young and old respondents equally perceived organizational treatment at the same level of magnitude.

finding implies that the reward system adopted in the selected Universities has really impacted the workers' satisfaction on the job. In

Table 4
Summary of t-test Analysis on Perception of Young and Old Respondents on Organizational Treatment.

Variables	Groups	N	X	SD	df	t	P	Remark
Age	Young	< 40 yrs	.118	18.69	2.79	198	1.88	.060 Not Significant (P<0.05)
	Old	> 40 yrs.		82	17.88	3.32		

This implies that distributive justice in the selected Universities in Nigeria is adequate and encouraging. In essence, the fourth hypothesis is upheld.

Discussion of Findings

The first hypothesis predicted that there is no significant relationship.between organizational treatment and workers' job satisfaction. The hypothesis was not confirmed. The finding of the study revealed that there was a significant relationship between organizational treatment and workers' job satisfaction in the selected Universities in Nigeria. The essence, the workers perceived the reward meted out to them as equitable when they compared the strength of service being rendered to the University to the reward provided for them. The finding corroborates Keashley et al. (1994); Cobb and Frey (1990), Akintayo (2002), Fry and Gordon (1989) who reported that workers' perception of fair treatment in an organization tends to influence job satisfaction.

However, the findingof the study disagrees with Skarlicki and Folger (1999), Hanisch and Hullins (1990) who contended that interractional

justice within an organization is significantly related to organizational retaliation behaviour, such as withdrawal and turn-over behaviours. The finding of the study implies that organizational treatment tends to influence workers' satisfaction or dissatisfaction depending on favourableness of organizational climate.

The second hypothesis postulated that there is no significant relationship between organizational treatment and workers' attitude to work. The finding of the study revealed that the kind of treatment provided for workers in selected Universities, in terms of condition of service, increased wages and salaries, promotion at regular interval and conducive working environment, had impacted the attitude of the Universities' workers towards their jobs. In essence, the Universities' workers demonstrated positive attitude toward their jobs were and were virtually determined to continue to stay on and be committed to their jobs in their organizations.

The finding of the study supports the submission of Keashley et al.(1994), Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) and Dittrich and Carrel (1979) who reported that the perception of fair treatment in an organization is significantly related to decrease turn-over intentions, absenteeism and actual turnover rate among the workforce. Similarly, the finding of the study corroborates Kester (2002) and Akintayo (2003) who submits that employees might react to perceived inequalities in their organizations by decreasing their normal organizational behaviours in terms of commitment and morale at work place. This finding implies that the Universities workers' perception of organizational treatment tends to influence their commitment, effectiveness on the job and productivity at workplace.

Hypothesis three stated that there is no significant difference between the perception of male and female respondents on organizational treatment. The finding revealed that there was a significant difference between male and female respondents' perceptions of organizational treatment. Thus, the hypothesis was not confirmed. In essence, the male and female respondents perceived organizational treatment differently and unequal. This implies that the male and female respondents' contributions to the growth of their

Universities as organizations were as a result of variation in their perceptions of the equitable reward policy of their Universities. The finding of the study corroborates Gilliland (1994) who reported that job status, role differentiation and gender are correlates of workers' attitude to work. This implies that workers' attitude to work is often determined by gender differentiation. In essence, individual level of satisfaction derived from job does not only depend on organizational treatment, but rather by their gender and role differentiation.

The finding also tallies with assertions of Gilliland (1994) who reported that women in organizations with flexible working hours tend to perceive organizational treatment as fair and are more satisfied on the job than women from organization with rigid working hours. Meanwhile, the finding emphasized the effect of organizational favourableness and effective administration of wages and salaries on workers' perception of organizational treatment in the selected Universities. In essence, the problems of late payment of salaries, sexual harassment at workplace and career progression are factors that determine workers' perception of organizational treatment and their satisfaction on the job. The finding tallies with Ubeku (1987) as cited in Akintayo, 2002; Anikpo (1984) as cited in Kester, 2002, Alarape and Akinlabi (2000) as cited in Akintayo, 2003, Hullins, et al (1996) and Zickar, Munson and Hullin (1998) who reported that variations in the perception of organizational treatment among the workforce may be due to job status, effective wage and salary administration, career progression and sexual harassment experienced on the job.

The fourth hypothesis revealed that there is no significant difference in the perceptions of young and old respondents on organizational treatment. The finding revealed that there was no significant difference in perceptions of young and old respondents on organizational treatment in selected Universities. This finding indicates that the organizational treatment accorded the young and old workers in the selected Universities was equally perceived as fair and acceptable with its corresponding effect on job satisfaction. In essence, there was no strict adherence to hierarchy of authority in the course of administering organizational treatment to workers of between 25-58 years of age in the selected Universities. Thus, hypothesis four was not confirmed.

The finding of the study supports the assertion of Gilliland (1994), Akintayo (2003) and Kester (2002) who contended that job status, age and working tend to influence the perception of the organizational treatment among the workforce. The position and job status of the workers tend to be determined by the length of service which could be related to the pattern of promotion through the rank and file with implication for their ages. In other words, workers who had put in more than ten years in service in an organization cannot be found in the same position with workers with three years of working experiences. Even their ages will be different. Thus, the old and young respondents in terms of age and length of service, despite their job status, still equally perceived organizational treatment as fair and encouraging in selected Universities. This finding implies that organizational justice seems to be favourably distributed in the selected tertiary institutions in Nigeria.

Conclusion

The study established that organizational treatment is a correlate of workers' job satisfaction. Since workers have mortgaged their lives by investing their talents and skills in the business of their respective tertiary institutions for achievement of the set up goals, their rewards must be at par with their levels of participation, performance and productivity. In other words, equitable reward system in the selected tertiary institutions in Nigeria must be internalized in the organizational policy for sustainability of their interest and retention of labour, especially in this period of rapid changing working environment.

Recommendations

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

(1) Workers' participation in planning and implementation of the organizational programmes should be encouraged in order to facilitate the sense of belongingness and motivation on the part of the workers.

(2) Administration of wages and salaries of workers should be made effective and subjected to continuous review and be promptly paid in order to meet their needs and to enable them adjust to changing environment.

This in essence will definitely enhance workers' satisfaction on the job and their commitment to their jobs.

(3) The condition of service and working environment should be made attractive and conducive respectively. This will infact discourage labour dissatisfaction and turnover intentions in any organizations.

(4) Labour education and training should be encouraged in organizations. Workers should be exposed to re-engineering of skills, especially in the period of technological change. This will enable the workers to perform their duties with ease and be independent of much supervision from the boss.

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THE ART OF HOW NOT TO GOVERN A UNIVERSITY WELL

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Abstract

The art of how not to govern a university well is an exploratory and evaluative work of the ills plaguing many universities. These ills manifest themselves mostly in misplaced use of power by people in authority over colleagues. The study focuses on the expected roles of chairmen of councils, vice-chancellors and registrars. Chancellors are left out merely because their roles are ceremonial in nature and incumbents seldom delve into day to day administrative matters until and unless there is a looming crisis. The evaluation emphasizes the need for proper use of discretionary power and a commitment to work with the statutes and committees designed to mobilize the finest ideas for collective decision-making processes in universities. The work also looks at the expected qualities of these key players in the lives of universities and how a commitment to leadership by example can instill discipline and order in the intellectual, research and social engagement of universities as communities of scholars. The study concludes that respect for senior academics and professional non-teaching staff builds teams that protect and defend internal and external intrusions into academic pursuits and autonomy. Such licence promotes the search, dissemination and defence of the truth. The work stresses the usefulness of academic freedom in speaking about anything and dealing fairly, firmly and calmly with problems which have potential to malign university managersand dent the images of scholastic institutions within the international community.

Introduction

The high concentration of brainy people in universities makes them very difficult organizations to manage although it is often expected that higher education will make people humble and tolerant of authority, the reverse is often equally also true in practice. Evidence from the universities suggests that academics are often intolerant towards one of their kind ordering them about like pupils before their head teacher. The exercise of authority in a university over peers holding similar or better qualifications often poses considerable challenges to principal officers. University Managers practically often need more knowledge and better skills than those whom they manage.

This work looks at grey areas that often bother the managers of universities. It looks at the false steps of university authorities in the hope that if these could be avoided, the pursuit of the creation and dissemination of knowledge

through teaching, research, extension and service could make universities more effective and relevant in the globalized economy.

The Vice-Chancellor

The Vice-Chancellor's job is so complex that it is a wonder how many of them survive it. They are expected to have very thick skins to take in the vituperations and vilifications of their colleagues with nonchalant ease. Vice-chancellor should be able to decipher which exuberant ways of student and staff should be ignored and which should be appropriately sanctioned. In the words of Kerr (1966, pp. 29-30) and Ojo (1987, p. 1) a vice-chancellor must "be a friend of students, a colleague of faculty, a good fellow with alumni, a sound administrator with the state legislature, a friend of industry and agriculture, a persuasive diplomat with donors, a champion of education generally, a supporter of the professions, a spokesman to the press, a scholar in his own rights ..."

To find all or almost all these qualities in one person is often a rare human feat. A vice-chancellor who possesses most of these qualities and performs to the satisfaction of most stakeholder will be very close to nomination for beatification on route to canonization when called by his Make if he or she is a Catholic. Addae-Mensah (2000, p.64) recounts a story told by Professor Don Aitkins of Camberra University when God himself led a welcoming party to receive the 1st Vice-Chancellor in Heaven while the 72nd Pope had been waiting for six months to have an appointment with God. The story suggests that the "sins" of vice-chancellors are so many that they are not frequent candidates for heaven.

The job of vice –chancellors entails a depth of understanding the statutes, committee system and the interests of various groups within a university. As chief executive officers, they must understand that although convocation will expect clear visions and directions, they would not be dictated to without resentment. A vice-chancellor must not be as soft as banana to be easily smashed underfoot; he or she must demonstrate sufficient firmness and courage that he is not a leader also following someone else as his leader. He or she must also not allow himself/herself to be pushed from behind instead of leading. A vice chancellor should respect opinions from the committees if he/she expects convocation to feed him/her with

ideas on challenges and the way forward. Armstrong (1994, p. 118) says a vice-chancellor must figure out what to personally attend to and what to delegate in order that more time can be spent on policy formulation and implementation processes. In particular, a vice-chancellor must remember that he/she is responsible to council for the day to day administration of the university and must endeavour to brief council on the finances, acquisition of properties, professorial and professorial equivalent appointments, review of statutes and have a devotion to the improvement of the conditions of service for the various constituencies of a university.

A vice-chancellor must also ensure that the reputation of a university does not suffer under his leadership. As the chief executive, a vice-chancellor must ensure quality in teaching, research and university consultancies. Among other things, a vice-chancellor must ensure that lecturers are qualified and that equipment, laboratories, libraries and lecture rooms are of high standard to promote teaching, learning and research.

Chambers (1983, p.8) suggests that vice-chancellors must keenly watch over professors because of their proclivity "to take on more and more and complete less and less, complete it less and less well, and as they become more eminent, are less and less likely to be told their work is bad". Furthermore, they should ensure that, a university's relation with neighbouring communities, quality of graduates and publications from staff should be high enough to earn the university some national and international respectability. Vice-chancellors, according to Chambers (1983, 53) should seek relevance in the communities they find themselves by ensuring that research work does not remain "unprocessed, or if processed unanalyzed, or if analyzed, not written up, or if written up not read, or if read not remembered, or if remembered not used or acted upon". Vice-chancellors who fail to ensure these minimum demands risk the support of their academic colleagues. Stakeholders will call them names; but these names may sometimes bear deficiencies for which they may seek remedies or form alliances to improve the conditions of service for the various constituencies.

Universities are bureaucracies and not gerontocracies. A quick and decisive way to kill a university is to run it as if it is a gerontocracy; where age rather than merit is the major determinant for authority and responsibility. When this appears to happen, the young and talented see no future and may leave the organization. Older dons are certainly needed to mentor the young ones in research and consultancies, but young men with talent should not be sidelined on mere account of their youthfulness. The old need the young and the young need the old.

Chief executives who behave like "one-man orchestras" will realize much later that their followers have deserted them without any word. When committees cannot meet and friends cannot penetrate the steel walls between them and the chief executive, they will retreat. The retreat compels chief executives to take on more jobs personally; complaining that colleagues are not helping and colleagues also complaining that chief executives are not delegating.

The Registrar

The Registrar is expected to coordinate and thereby serve as the pivot around which all pursuits of the university should smoothly roll out from. The Registrar serves as the chief scribe for the Academic Board the sub-committees of the Academic Board, the Council and its sub-committees and other statutory committees established by the founding Law and Statutes. Where the Registrar is assisted by some deputies to fulfill these secretarial roles, one expects a Registrar to ensure that the quality of minutes reflects the deliberations; and that procedures and interpretations of precedents and policies are consistent and in tandem with the founding Law and Statutes. The Registrar must advise the vice-chancellor truthfully and carefully and also prepare agendas for meetings to enable the Vice Chancellor keep the deliberations focused. A Registrar may also personally take minutes, edit others, implement decision taken at meetings and assist the chief executive to implement his/her vision for the university. A registrar should keep an eye on the

use of the University seal to authenticate important documents, report on vacancies arising for filling, watch for fair practices in times of admissions, promote the training of all staff categories and organize interviews for persons deserving appointment and/or promotion in a university. Above all, a good Registrar will ensure uninterrupted municipal services to ensure that deserving staff have some minimum conveniences to concentrate on research or intellectual disputations that can lead to concentrate on research or intellectual disputations that can lead to clearer insights on existing dogmas or new discoveries.

A failure to oil the wheels of bureaucracy by an inept Registrar can impede the engagement of others and disrupt a university's focus on efficiency and excellence in the pursuit, defence and the promotion of truth. A sure recipe to run-down a university is to appoint registrars who do not understand the inner workings of such institutions for some other considerations other than merit.

It is important to note that because of the crucial role of a Registrar for excellent results from a university, it is expected that Search Parties will settle for candidates who have had exposure at many sections of the Registry. This becomes more crucial when the sitting vice-chancellor has not had progression from departmental headship through deanship to pro-vice-chancellorship. Daniel (1999, 9.63) calls candidates for registrarship with exposure in only one area of the Registry as "one-eyed" registrars.

The Role of Council Chairmen

In some countries the chairmen of university councils are called Visitors. They are not career staff of the universities they preside over. They are appointed by a government to preside over the policy making processes, appointment of top management in the universities and ensure probity, transparency and accountability, All tenure positions; professors and professorial equivalents need prior approval of council before appointments. Where the exigencies require action in order not to lose a particular candidate whose loss could cause irreparable damage to an institution, the recruitment must be reported tothe council at the earliest opportunity for a ratification of the decision.

I have focused on the roles of Chairmen of Councils instead of the powers of Council itself because a

Chairman who exercises powers far in excess of what is vested in his or her Council would soon see agitation from the Vice-Chancellor, the councilors and all stakeholders his actions affect.

It is worthy to not that chairmen of councils wield enormous powers in the universities. They wield considerable power on whether sitting vice-chancellors can get second terms or not. They can mobilize opinions against vice-chancellors who do not want to defer but want to be independent-minded. The enormous powers of one university council in Ghana was put to play when Council overruled the recommendations of the Search Committee at KNUST and appointed Prof. J.S.K. Ayim over Prof. E. A. Sarpong to the position of vice-Chancellor. Prof. Sarpong sent the matter to court and the court ruled that Council has the ultimate power to appoint any of the recommended candidates and not necessarily sticking to the order of merit presented by the Search Party.

At the University of Development Studies, staff watched speechlessly as the Wemah Council sent Prof. Bening, the Vice-Chancellor on leave in 2001, after he failed to secure a second term as a Vice-Chancellor. As Bening least expected to be asked to proceed on leave to pave the way for the appointment of his replacement, he appeared devastated and unprepared for such a sudden turn of events. In the recent examination malpractices unearthed by the Mfodwo Committee (2005) at Legon, the Vice-Chancellor (VC), Prof. Asenso-Okyere was sent on leave by the Chairman of Council for the involvement of his biological son in the leakage of questions. Although the VC pleaded that he was ignorant of his son's involvement and that the vast and complex nature of the University made it impossible for him to detect malpractices, the Council as a body nevertheless endorsed the leave. Many sympathizers cited verses from the Bible that the iniquities of the fathers shall be visited on the sons but not rather the iniquities of sons upon fathers. The Mfodwo Committee which investigated the examination leakage submitted its report to a disciplinary committee – the Mensah-Bonsu Committee. The Convocation of the University subsequently became divided over the delayed release of the Mensah-Bonsu Report. The estranged Vice-Chancellor sought to return by force to work but was restrained by the Chairman of Council. Eventually, the Vice-Chancellor

was restored and later retired to put the matter to rest.

The above examples point to a need to use power carefully and responsibly with a view to correct but not sanction in a manner that may suggest that there were hidden motives. When one can't put a finger on some direct malfeasance, then sanctions should be such that worthy men would not run from responsibility when they are approached by search parties.

Vicious Cycle of Executive Failure

When top management like Vice-Chancellors and Registrars are too busy to spend some time with new appointees to let them know what exactly is expected of them, the new appointees soon get the feeling that any performance is good enough. Work delegated without clear instructions or effective supervision soon gets redone. It may be faster and easier for instance to rewrite a badly written speech than to attempt to edit it. When poor supervision and mentoring results in poor work being redone to performance specifications, then the failure to supervise or train subordinates results in a cycle if failures referred to as the vicious cycle of executive failure. In the service sector in which universities find themselves, a failure to meet performance expectations from employers or parents or peers can coast her a reputation earned through the sweat of earlier staff. Vice-Chancellors and registrars who expect excellence from support staff but hesitate to spend money on training will fail to achieve competitive outcomes. Since good subordinates don't grow on trees but are carefully nurtured to perfection, one way to achieve excellence is to invest in human resource development so that vital skills acquired can be sharpened over time.

Roseman (1997, 90 – 91) suggests that successful leaders need to be able to recognize performers from pretenders and drones and adapt the right strategies to motivate workers. He refers to negative behaviours that impede performance as the "six Ws". These are withdrawing, wandering, wailing, warring, worrying and winding down. The withdrawers are those who feel alienated, neglected and rejected. The wanderers are those who feel bored, indifferent and uncommitted to anything. The wailers are those who feel hurt, complain about everything, feel unappreciated and are envious of the successes of their peers.

The warring ones are workers who feel hostile and vindictive at the workplace. The worrying ones are those who feel threatened at the workplace. Lastly, those winding down are previously hard workers who have become frustrated and despondent about everything around them. Such dead-end workers affect the morale of the more hopeful ones with time. Periodic appraisals can lead to rematches of competencies, Expectation and jobs. Being able to identify mismatches and ensuring a fit between people and jobs leads not just to increase effectiveness but staff promotability.

Bogue (1987, p.125) cites Walker's work (1979) that "in the real social administrative milieu, with all its complexities the person who needs a tidy administration with neat closures and a cast of clearly identified villains and heroes will not fare well". Critics of a leader may become ardent supporters when the leader's course is right.

Intolerance for Dissent

Universities in general, are places where very simple matters can be made to look so complex through arguments, without the disputants resorting to blows. Intolerance for dissent or controversies heightens the resolve of academics to resist the tendency to stifle liberal discussions of ideas to distill truth from falsehoods and validity from invalidity. A man who loses his sense of self-control in the middle of an argument may be pitied, but a man who habitually jumps about, shouting hoarse at the slightest disagreement is considered a danger to be held in check by all men of reason. A good leader in a university system needs not be begged before he accepts peer advice. Subordinates do not lend a helping hand to leaders unless leaders first give indication that they are concerned about the welfare of their followers.

Servant leadership, according to Greenleaf (1977), is what attracts subordinates in academia to show commitment. A leader who shows considerable respect for his peers and clients when he is placed above them gets so much more for his humility. The leader who does not know how to apologize, has no sense of sorrow or remorse or uses his power to suggest that he spurns the very people by whom he climbed to the top, will meet the wrath of those who helped him to climb soon enough, as surely as day follows night. Cleveland (1972, p.22) suggests that chief executives of universities should promote

"enough loud and cheerful arguments among members so that all possible outcomes are analyzed ..., moral dilemmas are illuminated and the public effects are analytically examined". Some amount of dissent and laughter is good to release tension among academics periodically. Rigidity is an enemy of leadership

There is a great need for patience in dealing with only the parameters form their different professional backgrounds often leads to different conclusions from the same premises. Bogue (1985, pp.64 – 65) explains the tendency for profound arguments in universities in the following differences in professional outlooks:

> Scientists will want and experiment and philosophers a logical argument. Lawyers will want an adversarial hearing and theologians a reference to the scripture. Sociologists will want an opinion poll and artists a panel for judges. Engineers will want a systems study and economists a costs/ benefits analysis.

Most academics have come to expect and enjoy such diversity in looking at problems and look forward to such engagements. Universities are expected to create fora for such discourses to sharpen dons in their pursuits.

Subordinates of chief executives must also realize that chief executives are human and not angels. Walker (1981, pp.26 – 27) points out that. It is the work of the president to mediate and arrive at creative solutions. It is the job of a president to create an environment where dialectical change is encouraged, where people deal with one another not a s scoundrels but as colleagues, and where the different interests and perspectives may be compromised in ways that resolve tension and permit action". Walker (1979 : p.154) further notes that university authorities should avoid the tendency "to assign self serving motives to others and more noble motives to themselves." The subordinate is not necessarily a bad person whenever performance does not meet expectations.

Vice-chancellors and other principal officers of universities must cultivate a sense of angelic calmness that allows for maximum participation of staff in the committee system. It is only in allowing debate that fools can be

separated from those who are wise. Hedde, Brigance and Powell (1968, p.217) cite Aristotle that: " If it is a disgrace to a man who cannot defend himself in bodily form, it would be absurd not to think him disgraced if he cannot defend himself with reason in speech". We live in a verbal world; the witty and articulate as well as the dull-witted should both have their ways for industrial peace. This is one scourge of democracy.

It is important for leaders to remember that performers always make mistakes because their levels of assignments match their capabilities. When subordinates are not making mistakes, then they have been assigned tasks far below their capabilities and are not feeling challenged on the job. As the Peter Principle teaches us: " Every man rises to his level of incompetence" (Peter 1972). Every coach also needs a coach periodically. Truth fully, managing intellectuals is like looking after ducks; it is very difficult to get them move in one direction. The manner in which appointments, assignments, rewards and sanctions are used can make or unmake an unsuspecting leadership through scathing criticisms.

Not Knowing Who Knows What

Not knowing who knows what can be very costly to any Vice-Chancellor or Registrar. Knowing who knows what is helpful in recommending staff for committees and commissions outside a university. The exposure is helpful in building the confidence, reputation and networks of those who get noticed. There is need, therefore, to constantly peruse the curriculum vitae of staff to recall their areas of expertise for both internal and external assignments.

A curriculum vitae database shows at a glance all the available human resource capabilities. Using the CV as the first port of call is not only objective but makes a chief executive a Theory Y manager. The Theory Y manager views the positives sides of staff, believing that the negative sides are due to environmental influence. University politics, in the main, is majoritarian politics as positions such as Deanship, Vice-Deanship and Pro-Vice-Chancellor are by elections. Since controversial matters at the committee level are frequently decided by the vote, it is important who gets elected to what committee or position.

Lank (1999, p. 26) observes that knowing subordinates well prevents misassigments, putting incompatbles into one team,

overloading a few people and mismatching persons and tasks by the taskmaster. People who habitually perceive their way of doing things as the only best way (persistent personal programmers) run down universities because they because they show no confidence in the collegial decision-making system. A leader who does not trust any subordinate will realize rather too late that no subordinate too trusts him. To be able to motivate most subordinates well, one must know their anxieties, needs and expectations. If it only then that strategies to meet these can be worked upon for increased productivity. As a satisfied need does not motivate, concern for people and results should lead managers to the hopes and aspirations of subordinates. Hampton, Summer and Webber (1987, p.463) cite the work of Kerr that: "Whether dealing with monkeys, rats or human beings, it is hardly controversial to state that most organisms seek information concerning what activities are rewarded and the seek to do (or at least pretend to do) these things, often to the virtual exclusion of the activities not rewarded". To motivate and subordinate, you must know him so well to deal with the issues which impede his giving off his best. Life-long learning continually raises the talents and performance of subordinates to available jobs for the best results.

Misuse of Discretionary Powers

Chief executives of universities have considerable discretionary powers. The learned community of peers expects that chief executives will always exercise this discretion cautiously. In particular, it is expected that vice-chancellors will use their powers to recruit and promote judiciously. It is also expected that they would be gender sensitive, just and averse to playing the ethnic card in all their endeavours. Universities expect nothing short of merit in appointments of staff and admission of students to various programmes. If a vice-chancellor vacillates in the interpretation of rules and application of sanctions, this shall earn him some resentment; he will see the rough sides of some tongues. Vice-Chancellors who discriminate will before long be on a collision course with moralists who have their sights on everything and everybody except themselves.

The leadership of any university that wants industrial peace must also not ignore the concerns and demands of unionized constituencies in the university. The

quality of graduates and research publications being among the products of a university, extreme care must be attached to teaching, learning examinations and publications to protect the reputation, integrity of lecturers and the dignity of her graduates and promotes. Daniel (1999 , p.106) cites Kwapong as saying that, the production of " illiterate graduates" should not be countenanced. Similarly, staff should be recruited only to complete approved staffing establishments. Recruitments perceived to be hand-outs to ethnic snoopers will eventually disable CEOs from embarking on moral crusades to stamp discipline at intervals. A situation where due diligence cannot place a finger on what several staff do for their wages and where they work; plain cases of sponsored malignant vagrancy will eventually ruin any deterrmined university authority. When bigotry, flattery and sycophancy are tolerated, they breed their types ceaselessly to the point where perpetrators undercut each other and taste the filthy brews they have in the past administered to others to promote their selfish interests.

To run a university well demands a commitment to the truth, exercise of due diligence and a refrain from the manipulation of workers through half-truths and divided-and-rule tactics. The huge numbers of exuberant youth now massed up at the universities in Ghana because of pre-tertiary reforms make the clarion call of Mintzberg (1975) for interpersonal, informational and decisional skills very instructive. The duty to lobby for funds, equipment and a positive presentation of ongoing engagements also demands communicating with governments, politicians, media and internal and external publics as stakeholders. As a community of scholars involved in knowing and defending the truth, universities frown upon dishonest disclosures or deliberate manipulation of facts for selfish ends. A selfless chief executive should seek to expand the area where most of what he knows is also known by the constituencies he deals with. He must have not pretences about allowing his peers know him well to reduce any facades; the staff will be helpful by disclosing his inadequacies to reduce blind spots for him which wait as traps for him. A forthright chief executive will strive to reduce the area of the unknown between him and his constituencies and not engage in deceit and pretences to make himself appear like a mystical figure from some other planet on this earth. This is what Joseph Luft and Harry Ingram sought to portray in what has come to be known as the JOHARI window.

Daniel (1999, p.106) suggests rather humorously that a chief executive of a university should not only be capable of giving "unflinching support" but " flinching support" occasionally to all stakeholders without a sense of remorse depending on what is at stake. Diplomacy is a useful management tool.

The Socializing Function

Of all the multiple attributes of an effective Vice-Chancellor, one that touches the hearts of any community of scholars is the role of a father-figure in the university. A Vice-Chancellor's inadequacies in other areas may be excusable, but those expected of him with regard to social occasions are noticed and recalled as mortal "sins" whenever trouble begins to brew during his tenure.

Among the effective executives I have known and worked with, there are extroverts and aloof, retiring men, some even morbidly shy. Some are eccentrics, some painfully correct conformists. Some are fat and some are lean. Some are worriers and some are relaxed. Some drink quite heavily and some are total abstainers. Some are men mackerel.... Some are scholars and serious students, others almost unlettered. Some are scholars and serious students, others almost unlettered. Some have broad interests, others know nothing except their narrow area and care for little else. Some of them are self-cerntred, if not indeed selfish. But there are also some who are generous of heart and mind. These are men who live only for their work, and others whose main interests lie outside ....

In almost every orfganisation, universities inclusive, there are very popular personalities. A leader's association with such personalities tend to bring tremendous goodwill. These are the socio-metric stars of every organization. There are further also some people nobody wants to associate with in any organization. These are the sociometric rejects. The latter group of staff may nevertheless have special expertise that could be tapped by an observant leader. The mark of a great leader is to recognize the potential of such least preferred worker and log-on to their strengths for the health of any university. Avoiding such people may lead such deviants turning their mischievous ways on unsuspecting chief executives.

Conclusion

I have discussed the attributes of Vice-Chancellors, the roles of the chairmen of councils, Vice-Chancellors and registrars as well as the expectations of the major constituencies of universities with regard to their welfare. The work also examined the benefits of knowing the areas of expertise of subordinates, the folly of poor instruction and supervision by chief executives resulting in executive failure, the intolerance of leaders to voices of dissent and the importance of treating equal as equals.

Attention to social functions by principal officers is perceived as sensitivity to community concerns; these bring in considerable goodwill to university leaders who engage in them. The work points out that flattery and sycophancy decisively wreak havoc when the perpetrators themselves eventually become victims of their evil ways. The best way of running a university is to eschew the ways that break-up teams, encourage the pursuit of truth, proper use of discretion andhonest disclosure of facts to the various constituencies that exist. Managing intellectuals is not like issuing out directives to ordinary folks who are psychologically tuned to obey, even if grudgingly, the authorities they find above them. Avoidance of the pitfalls mentioned may not win the game for managements of universities, but the presence of most of these pitfalls will surely bring some leaderships to their knees in more ways than many can anticipate.

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IMPROVING THE USE OF COMPETENCE-BASED TRAINING (CBT) IN POLYTECHNIC EDUCATION IN GHANA: AN EVALUATION OF THE CIVIL ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT OF TAKORADI POLYTECHNIC

By

S. O. Apori and M. A.Nkrumah

ABSTRACT

Quality Polytechnic education and training is expected to equip students with consistent, high quality training and education that can be delivered and recognized across territorial boundaries. Currently, the ongoing restructuring of the labour markets and significant changes in occupational structures and skill requirements have strongly challenged the quality and performance of vocational education in Ghana. Further, substantial concern is being raised about how Polytechnic education can influence employment and the school to work transition. This research explores these new changes and demands.

A major objective of the study was to investigate how the department could improve the effectiveness of the already existing mechanisms for CBT at Takoradi Polytechnic and maximize the effectiveness of Polytechnic-industry collaborations. There were in total 181 respondents; from the industries and Takoradi Polytechnic. Three different sets of questionnaires and an interview guide were used to collect data the respondents. Descriptive statistics were used to present the data after which evaluation criteria were used to make value judgment about the quality of the polytechnic education. The study showed that the level of practical training is not satisfactory, and there is a limited relationship between the polytechnic and the industry. Hence there is the need to: redesign the curriculum giving more attention to practical training; improve the practical knowledge of the staff; make real life research a core activity of the department; and develop other better ways of connecting the polytechnic with the industries other than students' attachment using the CBT approach..

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to systematically assess, evaluate and improve the quality of the already existing mechanisms for competency based education at Takoradi Polytechnic. The study also intended to investigate how an effective polytechnic-industry collaboration can be built and sustained in Ghana. This is necessary because school self evaluation provides information to

decision makers for judging decision alternatives (Stufflebeam et al., 1971). Acknowledging the importance of school self evaluation, it was worthwhile to assess and evaluate the performance of the competency based training (CBT) approach used by the Civil Engineering Department at Takoradi Polytechnic in order to improve the quality of polytechnic education in Ghana.

Background to the Study

Existing literature is enriched with materials on competency based education and training and school-industry relationships. CBT seeks to match educational training with employer and employee needs (Field & Drysdale, 1991). It promotes high-quality academic and career preparation and bridges the gap between what is learned at school and what is required in the workplace (Hoerner & Wehrley, 1995). Competency-based training have the following characteristics: knowledge is developed in more diverse contexts; knowledge production is investigator-initiated, discipline-based, problem-focused and interdisciplinary. CBT is informed by the view that global economic and technological changes require workers to exhibit a broader range of skills at work, specifically, flexible and adaptable skills. Hence, CBT requires the development of broad, generic, skills and a close link between academic learning and professional practice. It attempts to move vocational and technical education to a point where qualifications can be gained through assessment of competency standards, instead of a course of study or consistency in curricula. Some key characteristics include specified training and assessment outcomes; industrial involvement in defining outcomes; competency standards or, more commonly, competencies, as the expression of these outcomes; and the training programmes are based on industrial competency standards. Unlike competency based education which explores 'new ways; competency-based training focuses on competencies in specific practices, practices that reside within current circumstances and conditions (Wenger, 1998,)

According to Nsiah Gyabaah (2005), Polytechnics in Ghana have witnessed significant increases in students' enrolments, however the government's budget for the

educational sector decreased by minus 11.3% in the tertiary sub-sector between 1991/1992 and 1999/2000 academic years. This has resulted in low quality education, insufficient equipment, and inadequate classroom areas among others. A JICA report (2001) observed that many managerial difficulties such as lack of systems to monitor the employment status of graduates, lack of school self evaluation system to measure the performance of the polytechnics, limited relations with the industrial sectors and lack of motivation schemes for teachers entangle polytechnic education in Ghana.

Nijhuis (2005), writing on a Netherlands initiated school improvement programme in Ghana, contended that Polytechnics in Ghana tend to rely on foreign books which are often not suited for the Ghanaian context. Further, industrial attachments for students are not well structured and supervised. The same report also indicates that nearly 30% of the polytechnic graduates could not find appropriate jobs after graduation and therefore shifted into other schemes or had to begin their academic career all over again. Another research by the Vrije University, in the Netherlands on Ghana showed that the polytechnics have problems related to equipment and quality of education. The same study also revealed that teachers lacked counseling skills. Moreover, there is a weak link between the polytechnics and the industries resulting in few jobs for the polytechnic graduates.

Atakpa et al., (2007) evaluating the CBT programme for the same Civil Engineering programme at Takoradi Polytechnic reported that the students are satisfied with the curriculum rationale and content, however, the students complained about heavy work loads. The same report stated that the traditional method of lecturing is used and students are not given enough opportunity to practice the skills learnt for mastery at the required level. Also there were problems with students' assessment. Misko (2001), argued that there are formal and informal mechanisms which enable schools to link up with the industry. Formal linkages have a direct impact on what happens in the classroom by specifying what must be delivered. Informal mechanisms are often those arrangements established to enable the implementation of certain policies and legislation. According to the same research, the industries have the formal role of identifying

competencies and standards that must be delivered by schools. This calls for the development of industry competency standards, which would form the basis of the curricula. The linkage must also specify the responsibilities of employers, teachers and trainees with respect to how they must behave in the workplace.

From the point of view of Smith & Wilson (2002), any effective long-term school-stakeholder collaboration requires not only broad involvement, but also continuous nurturing of partnerships, so that all the partners recognize and appreciate the long-term benefits and risks for themselves and, more importantly, for students. Burrows et al. (2001), contended that the first step in developing effective stakeholder collaborations is taking stock of the range of partners in the given community. It is important to engage partners early in the process in order to foster a sense of empowerment and ability to influence and shape the system. Moreover, different partners require different types of support or reassurances in sustaining the relationship.

According to Hall (1996), sound policies have the potential of enhancing school-industry relationships and these of course bring mutual benefits to all concerned. Sound policies help bring about the paradigm shift needed to engage polytechnics in the required change processes. Edwards (2001) suggested that efficient and effective public policy development should be systematic and collaborative if better policy outcomes are to be achieved in the future. King et. al. (2000), further called for the identification of strengths and weaknesses in existing programmes as a way of improving the quality of education. Nijhuis (2005) has suggested improvement in equipment such as ITC facilities, textbooks and equity in terms of salary between polytechnics and universities. Also, the polytechnics should be given institutional autonomy and there should be improvements in the relationship between the industries and the polytechnic, equipment and infrastructure. The same study also recommended the need to organize fund raising activities to generate own income instead of relying on the government. The Danish Evaluation Report (2005) suggested that schools should increase their communication with the companies by offering regular opportunities for practical training.

Research Questions

The research was guided by the following research questions:

1. What is the quality of polytechnic education in Ghana?
2. How can an effective polytechnic-industry relationship be built and sustained in Ghana?
3. What modifications need to be done in order to improve the quality of CBT approach?

Methodology

To investigate the quality of polytechnic education in Ghana and how polytechnics can effectively link up with the industries, data was collected from both internal and external stakeholders. Various data collection methods and respondents were employed. The case study approach was employed for an in-depth study of the issues involved.

Population and Sample

Participants were taken from Takoradi Polytechnic and some industries. The study involved seven staff members and 118 students from the Civil Engineering Department of Takoradi Polytechnic; 35 past students and 25 employers (from 21 companies). Industries in four regions of Ghana (Central, Greater Accra, Volta and Western were involved. The research was carried out in the Civil Engineering Department because the department is currently using the Competency Based Training (CBT) approach. It is also about to evaluate its activities under the ongoing Netherlands government's project with the Polytechnics in Ghana. The stakeholders considered included: students, teachers, alumni, and employers. The polytechnic views the students as their primary customers who receive their educational services; employers as stakeholders who hire the students; and department members as stakeholders who teach students the knowledge needed to perform the job. The four regions of Ghana were chosen because they are perhaps closer to each other and helped to collect much data within time (6 weeks).

Data Collection

There was an interview guide in addition to four different structured questionnaires for lecturers, alumni and employers. The questionnaires were pre-tested at Takoradi Polytechnic (staff and students) and Ghana Ports and Harbor Authority (employers and alumni). The needed changes were then made.

The following data collection methods were used:

Interview: An interview guide was used to obtain information on the context of polytechnic education, the quality of education, the implementation of the competency based education, quality assurance and suggestions for improvement from the head of department. The interview data served a supplementary role to the structured questionnaires and provided an in-depth view of the polytechnic education system.

Document Analysis: Students' records and administrative documents were studied to obtain information on staff proportions, qualifications and student population

Questionnaires –Four different types of semi-structured questionnaires were prepared for employers, alumni, lecturers and students. These dealt with the quality of education, the implementation of the competency based education, inadequacies in the programme and suggestions for improvement.

The Civil Engineering Department, the Head of Department, lecturers and students (all second and third year students) were chosen purposively. The department was chosen because it was about to evaluate its curriculum under the ongoing Netherlands govern-ment's project with the Polytechnics in Ghana. Snowball sampling strategy was adopted in choosing respondents from the alumni and employers. Few respondents chosen accidentally or with the aid of the department, or the liaison office were asked to recommend other people who qualify as respondents and were willing to participate in the research. This process was continued until the required number of respondents was reached.

Data Analysis

After the data collection, a series of activities were carried out. First the data was coded. The codes adopted were as follows: strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, undecided =3, agree = 4, and strongly agree = 5. Excel computer programme was used to do the analysis. The appropriate number for each datum was placed in the appropriate data file for the analysis. For open ended questions, the following procedure was adopted: the gathered data was read in the context of the setting and the purpose of the research; chunks of data that demonstrate

some commonalities were identified; it was worked through once again to identify patterns, themes, differences and then it was reported on.

Summaries of all responses under each quality indicator were then given, thus illustrating the percentage that strongly agreed, agreed, were undecided, disagreed or strongly disagreed. Strongly agree and agree were then combined to form one strand of response and the same was done for strongly disagree and disagree; undecided also formed another strand of response. This approach was appropriate for easy application of the evaluation criteria. The evaluation criteria were then used to make value judgment about the quality of each quality indicator and component. A summary of the weaknesses and strengths of the programme were then given in written form and by using descriptive statistics. The criteria below were adopted:

If 40% or more of the respondents averagely rate strongly disagree/ disagree = Not acceptable

If 40% or more of the respondents averagely rate undecided = Just acceptable.

If less than 50% of the respondents averagely rate strongly agree/agree = Weak

If 50 - 59% of the respondents averagely rate strongly agree/agree = Satisfactory

If 60 - 69% of the respondents averagely rate strongly agree/agree = Good

If 70 - 79% of the respondents averagely rate strongly agree/agree = Very Good

If 80 - 100% of the respondents averagely rate strongly agree/agree = Excellent

If 40% or more of the participants on the average strongly disagreed/ disagreed with statements about the quality of an indicator/component, it implied that, that quality indicator/ component was very weak and not acceptable. A quality indicator/ component was judged just acceptable if, 40% or more of the respondents were undecided. A quality component/indicator was

considered satisfactory if 50-69% of the respondents strongly agreed/ agreed with statements on it. If 70-79% of the respondents rated strongly agree/agree, a quality indicator/component was judged very good and finally if 80-100% of the participants rate strongly agree/ agree it implied that, that quality indicator/component was excellent.

Results and Discussion

The research involved twenty-one companies, members of staff and students (second and third years) of the Department of the Civil Engineering of Takoradi Polytechnic. The respondents outside the school (employers and alumni) were fifty–six; fifty–two males and four females. They were engineers, managers, supervisors, surveyors, and training assistants. Four of the employers had masters' degrees, nine had first degrees and 12 had diploma certificates. Those from Takoradi Polytechnic were made up of seven members of staff (all males, including the Head of Department) and 118 students; 117 males and a female. Three of the staff members including the head of department, had master's degrees; one had a first degree; two had diploma certificates; whilst one member of staff did not indicate his qualification.

General Overview of Quality Indicators

The general state of the curriculum is satisfactory. Stakeholders generally considered the quality of the entire programme, the preconditions and the output to be satisfactory. Further, they indicated that the quality of the educational processes used in achieving the stated outcome and the satisfaction of stakeholders were good.However they were dissatisfied with the organization of the programme and the level of research.

In the same way, quality assurance was seen to be weak and the quality of facilities used in achieving the desired outcomes was not acceptable. Also the quality of guidance and counseling services rendered to students was not acceptable. Table 1 presents the details.

Table 1

General Overview of Quality Indicators

Quality Indicator	Average / %			Remarks
	SA / A	U	SD /D	
CBT Programme	53	15	32	Satisfactory
Preconditions	58	10	32	Satisfactory
Process	60	4	36	Good
Output	59	16	25	Satisfactory
Satisfaction	69	12	19	Good

SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; U=Undecided; D=Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree

Source: Field Work, 2008

Programme

Considering the programme in general, the study showed that the quality of the curriculum rationale and design were good, and that of the content was satisfactory.

However, stakeholders were dissatisfied with the implementation of the programme and the quality of research. The major aspects considered were: the curriculum rationale, design, content, organization and research (Table 2).

Table 2

General Overview of Quality Components - Programme

Quality indicator	SA/A	U	SD/D	Remarks
Rationale	64	17	19	Good
Curriculum Design	72	14	14	Very good
Content Adequacy	55	17	28	Satisfactory
Organisation	28	13	59	Not acceptable
Research	46	14	40	Weak

SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; U=Undecided; D=Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree

Source: Field Work, 2008

Table 3

General Overview of Quality Components - Preconditions

Quality indicator	SA/Agree	U	SD/D	Remarks
Quality Assurance	49	19	32	Weak
Student Intake	100	0	0	Excellent
Staff Intake	53	9	38	
Satisfactory Facilities	30	12	58	Not acceptable

SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; U=Undecided; D=Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree

Source: Field Work, 2008

Process

The details of the quality component process are presented in table 5. The research divided the entire process used in achieving the stated goals into six parts: efficient use of time, quality of teaching, teaching load, study load, assessment/feedback, and guidance and counseling.

The study revealed that the programme makes efficient use of time and the quality of teaching is satisfactory. Also, the teaching load and the quality of assessment/ feedback are good. Further, the research showed that the programme is weak when it comes to guidance and counseling services and students are overloaded with work.

Table 4

General Overview of the Quality Components - Process

Quality indicator	Average /% SA/A	U	SD/D	Remarks
Efficient use of time	52	12	36	Satisfactory
Quality of Teaching	57	19	24	Satisfactory
Teaching Load	60	4	36	Good
Study Load	37	20	43	Not acceptable
Assessment/Feedback	62	15	23	Good
Guidance/ Counseling	33	17	50	Not acceptable

Table 5

General Overview of Quality Components – Output/Satisfaction

Quality indicator	Average			Remarks
	SA/A	U	SD/D	
Output	53	16	31	Satisfactory
School to Work Transition				
Satisfaction	47	20	33	Weak
Employers	82	10	8	Excellent
Alumni	69	7	24	Good
Staff	80	14	6	Excellent
Student	46	15	39	Just acceptable

SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; U=Undecided; D=Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree

Source: Field Work, 2008

Discussion

Almost all the respondents were concerned about the level of professional practical training for students. It was asserted that practical work is gradually being relegated to the background. This was attributed to inadequate facilities (e.g. workshops, laboratories, etc); teaching/learning materials (lap tops computers, power point projectors, drawing studio and laboratory equipment); and lack of regular evaluation of the programme. In fact, the polytechnic can not make changes in the curriculum without the consent of the National Board for Professional and Technician Examination (NAPTEX) which is quite bureaucratic. Mention was also made of the fact that curriculum does not adequately address real practical work and there are inadequate modern and relevant textbooks in the library. As a result, too much emphasis was placed on theory. Practical sessions and supportive staff during practical lessons were inadequate in addition to the fact that some of the laboratories are not in proper working condition. The obvious alternative has been too much reliance on the industries for

The results of this research also showed that the relationship between the polytechnics and the industries in Ghana was quite weak. Nijhuis (2005) confirms this by saying that there is a weak link between the polytechnics and the industries in Ghana and this has resulted in few jobs for the polytechnic graduates. In a similar way, the Danish evaluation report (2005) indicated that the contact between schools and companies offering practical training is quite modest. The situation in Ghana can be explained by the fact that, there are currently few functioning industries in Ghana and the importance of effective stakeholder collaboration has not been very much nurtured and realized. Also to some extent, the relationship between the polytechnics and the industries is restrained by limited available resources.

Mayer et al. (2001), observed that programme quality is enhanced when teachers have high academic skills, teach in the field in which they are trained, and have more than a few years of experience. The study showed that out of the seven staff respondents, only three of them qualified as lecturers (the minimum qualification for a lecturer in any Polytechnic in Ghana is a master's degree) despite the fact that many of them were experienced teachers. It was also indicated that the quality of the facilities used for the intended outcome is very weak. This is in consonance with what Nsiah Gyabaah (2005) found. He reported that the Polytechnics in Ghana have insufficient equipment, and inadequate classroom areas etc. Another research by the Vrije University on Ghana showed that the polytechnics in Ghana have problems related to equipment. Hirakawa et al. (2005) argued that even if teachers learn practical skills with new kits and equipment, they cannot transfer the same practical lessons to their students without the necessary kits and equipment. They went on to explain that in the aspect of equipment, some of the equipment have not been utilized because of lack of repairers and inadequate financial resources. This same reason explains the situation in Ghana.

The study further indicated that quality assurance is weak in the programme. This finding is very important because of the role quality assurance plays. According to Mayer, Mullen, and Moore (2001), quality assurance provides fact-based external confidence to stakeholders that educational

certificates would meet their needs and expectations. At the time of the research, there was no official contact between the department and the alumni and/or the industry, even though sometimes when lecturers visit students on attachment they unofficially come into contact with them. Also most of the students have not taken part in any form of school self evaluation despite the fact that they deemed it necessary. Recently, a quality assurance unit was set up but its presence is yet to be felt. Partly because of lack of rapport between the polytechnic and the labour market, only a majority of those employed (48.3%) indicated that they found a job easily after graduation and are satisfied with their current jobs. This is similar to what Nijhuis (2005) found. She stated that 30% of the polytechnic graduates in Ghana could not find appropriate jobs after school and therefore shifted into other schemes or had to begin their academic career all over again. These findings are in contrast to a student outcome survey conducted by NCVER (2005) which showed that 75% of the graduates employed were satisfied with their jobs. The partial difference between the two studies is explained by the fact that, there are few industries in Ghana and hence the vast majority of the workforce in Ghana is in the services and the agricultural sectors. Unfortunately, most of the services are bureaucratic when it comes to employment and are limited with respect to facilities. Also the per capita income of Ghana is about 5% (Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union COMEDAF, 2007) and this limits employment creation. On the other hand, many young people are added to the labour force each year and this makes employment more difficult. The difficulty in finding jobs have injected in most workers the attitude of 'let take it like that' even though they do not have job satisfaction.

The need to develop and sustain the relationship between the industries and the polytechnics was very much emphasized. According to Misko (2005), the purpose, benefits and roles of each partner must be clearly defined and made known to all concerned at the beginning of the relationship. He further stated that the industries should have the formal role of identifying competencies and standards that must be delivered by schools. This of course, calls for the development of industry competency standards, which would form the basis of the curricula. The responsibilities of teachers and trainees with respect

to how they must behave in the workplace must also be specified. Atchoarena et al., (2002) also stated that the school authorities should call upon employer associations to collaborate with training institutions in defining together the training to be adapted in order to meet their needs. A Danish evaluation report (2005) further suggested that information on employment, qualifications and training needs from professional organizations should be solicited.

In modifying the programme as a way of meeting employer needs collaboration with the industries was emphasized. Hirakawa et al. (2005) also recommends strengthening stakeholder collaborations for improved educational quality. For instance an informal communication approach, such as visits to the companies at the beginning of a new practical training period by a regular contact person for a more focused discussion about the programme can be employed. In deed this requires appropriate resources but the institution can embark on activities meant to internally generate income instead of relying solely on the government. From here, the curriculum can be redesigned/review using relevant experts in the field so that much attention would be given to practical training and employer needs.

Conclusion

The research sought to improve the quality of Polytechnic education in Ghana by investigating how the effectiveness of polytechnic-industry collaborations can be maximized and how the use of CBT approach in the Ghanaian polytechnic context can be improved. From the finding of the study, a number of conclusions were drawn in accordance with the research questions as indicated below:

What is the quality of polytechnic education in Ghana? The study revealed that generally the quality of all the quality indicators (programme, pre-conditions, process, output and satisfaction) was satisfactory or better. However, stakeholders were dissatisfied with the organization of the programme, quality assurance and research. Moreover the programme lacked regular evaluation.

How can an effective polytechnic-industry relationship be built and sustained in Ghana? The study showed that there is the need for the polytechnics to liaise with the industries to determine qualifications, and competency standards, instead of relying so much on the curriculum. They can

also partner each other in research and other mutually beneficial activities. Also the relationship needs to be nurtured in other to sustain it.

What modifications need to be done in order to improve the quality CBT approach? Prominent among the recommended modifications were the need to: regularly redesign/review the polytechnic curriculum, improve facilities, improve relationship with industries and improve monitoring systems.

Implications

The consideration of these issues forms the basis for recommendations for future policy development, implementation, improvement and research.

Policy makers

Sound policies will help bring about the paradigm shift needed to engage polytechnics in the required change processes. This should be done systematically and collaboratively.

The culture of regular school self evaluation should be institutionalized in all Polytechnics in Ghana. Also, other school self evaluation methods such as peer review could be adopted.

Research should be made a core activity for both staff and students in higher vocational education. Special attention should be given to relevant real life problems and their solutions. Also the research skills of staff should be an important component of staff assessment and promotion.

Polytechnics

The polytechnics should liaise with the industries to determine qualifications, outcomes and competency standards, instead of relying solely on the curriculum. The ethics of a profession should be an important part of the curriculum.

The Polytechnic should develop partnerships with the industries by way of consultancy, collaborative research, development projects, joint training programmes, and job placements in addition to student internship. In doing these the polytechnics can create opportunities for staff and students to be at the frontiers of new industry knowledge and trends.

When students are on attachment, there should be regular follow ups on them and their assessment should have both theoretical and practical aspects.

A management board should be set up in every polytechnic to oversee the use, regular and routine checks on school facilities and equipment (E.g. laboratory, workshops or equipment).

The conditions of service of polytechnic workers, especially lecturers should be improved as a way of motivating and retaining quality staff in the polytechnics.

Research

The research findings underscore an area in which further research is needed and this is recommended for further research.

A long-term follow-up research on students' outcomes is necessary, to learn more about the relative effectiveness of competency based training on students and employment. This research could not conduct a long-term study on student outcomes because of time. Hence, the ideal study should examine the benefits the students might have gained from competency based education and training (CBT), years after graduation. Information about their employment status, further education, income level and evidence of the connection between CBT on these outcomes should be examined. This study is important because currently, the department has plans of running new programmes using the CBT approach. It would be worthwhile to find out the cost effectiveness of this approach in order to judge alternative approaches.

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Problems Associated with the Management of Performance Appraisals in Universities: The Case of Ghanaian Public Sector Universities

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ABSTRACT

The use of performance appraisal, a preserve of the private sector organisations, has now become wide spread and has grown to include previously untouched organisations and occupational hierarchies such as secretarial and administrative staff in both the public and private sectors. However, very little has been reported in the literature concerning the perceptions and experiences of the universities in developing countries relating to performance appraisals. This study therefore sought to explore performance appraisal systems in the Ghanaian public sector universities to consider the perceptions and experiences of the administrative staff about the problems associated with the performance appraisal systems of the universities.

The study adopted an exploratory, descriptive and evaluative triangulation case study approach and generated data through semi-structured interviews and self-completing questionnaires from 401 university employees in Ghana from four of the six public sector universities. Both quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis in the form of frequencies, percentages, means, graphs and content analysis were used to analyse the data.

The results indicate that generally the perceptions of the administrative staff concerning the effectiveness of the present performance appraisal systems of the universities were skewed towards dissatisfaction because they lacked essential characteristics of an effective performance appraisal system. These include lack of clearly formulated and defined policies and objectives, performance measures, effective staff participation and training and development that could make them effective. The study concludes that there is a need for the universities to recognise their employees as valued resources and treat them as a source of competitive advantage which have to be strategically managed to achieve improved employee performance and development as well as the effectiveness of the universities.

Introduction

Human resource (HR) is the organisation's most crucial resource whose behaviours, talents and aspirations affect the other resources that the organisation uses, the organisational efficiency and its effectiveness (Holbrook Jr, 2002; Murphy and Cleveland, 1995). To this end, performance appraisal has occupied the attention of human resource management (HRM), organisational behaviour and industrial psychology researchers for some time now. This is because the performances of the individuals within the organisations improve with

definite goals and feedback on their performance complemented by an adequate reward system (Lawrence, 1986).

Performance Appraisal which is variously termed performance review, annual appraisal, performance evaluation, employee evaluation and merit evaluation (Sanguine 2003) is an ongoing process of evaluation and management of both the behaviours and outcomes of employees in the workplace (Gobbler, 2002), the collection and analysis of data on the overall capabilities and potentials of individual worker in an attempt to make decision in tune with a purpose (Bratton and Gold, 1999). It is an observation and measurement of employee performance against pre-determined job related standards, for purposes delineated by the organisation (Schuler and Jackson,1987) Essentially, performance appraisal is about measuring, monitoring and enhancing the performance of employees as a contributor to the overall organisational performance (Agyenim-Boateng, 2006). It is not "a stand alone process but an approach to creating a shared vision of the purposes and aims of the organisation, helping each individual employee to understand and share the workload to achieve those aims" (Martinez and Martineau, 2001:1). To achieve this, there is the need for precise determination of activities to be accomplished by the employees. Such activities need to target the accomplishment of organisational effectiveness as well as an agreement between the employee and the employer on what to do and how to do it. Performance appraisal is therefore a systematic and coordinated assessment of employees' current and past performance relative to their performance standards. It involves identifying, measuring and developing human performance in the organisation. The process involves setting work standards, assessing the employees' actual work performance relative to these standards and providing feedback to employees with the view to motivating them to eliminate performance deficiencies or to continue to perform above par. Thus, an effective performance appraisal system (PAS) needs to measure current performance levels and contain mechanisms for reinforcing strengths, identifying weaknesses, and feeding the information back to the employees and organisation in an attempt to improve present and future individual and organisational effectiveness.

There are a variety of reasons why organisations introduce performance appraisal and this sometimes creates conflict as to what the objectives of performance appraisal are. However, the most usual rationalisation and justification for performance appraisal is to improve individual employees'

performance in the organisation (Bratton and Gold, 1999) in an attempt to improve the overall organisational performance and effectiveness. Under such a broad purpose come a number of varied purposes. Among other things, performance appraisal marches the achievements of the employees with the expected results in order for management to make a decision on such matters as promotion, salary reviews and conditions of service, job redesign, redeployment and reposting. The data also help in self-assessment and personnel management research. The process is a vehicle for validating and refining organisational actions such as employee selection, training, reward and other management practices. In addition, the data are used for succession planning and employee development or to institute discipline or discharge procedures (Billikopf, 2003). Performance Appraisal therefore assesses the work accomplished in relation to the goals and objectives of the organisation to determine whether the activities accomplished have in any way contributed to the organisational success. The data acquired therefore, help to improve individual performance in the organisation with the view to improving the organisational performance and effectiveness (Martinez and Martineau, 2001; Bratton and Gold, 1999).

Performance appraisal which hitherto used to be the preserve of the private sector, has become widespread and an important cornerstone of HRM practice that is capable of channelling the energies of employees towards the achievement of organisational efficiency and effectiveness (Masterson and Taylor, 1996; Lee,

(1996). It has now been extended to new work settings like education and health sectors and is a central element in the concept of performance management (Redman et al., 2000; Fletcher, 1997). It has grown to include previously untouched organisations and occupational hierarchy such as secretarial and administrative employees in both the public and private sectors. New forms of performance appraisal systems (PAS) such as competency based, upward appraisal, 360 degree and team appraisals have also been introduced recently.

Employees of the public sector universities (academic and administrative) like other employees in the public sector expect to be appraised and not to be evaluated (Analoui and Fell, 2002). However, very little seem to be known about performance appraisal in the public sector, including the universities, and about the people who are appraised there in the literature. The empirical evidence on how employees in the public sector universities in general and university administrative employees in developing countries in particular, respond to the processes involved in performance appraisal in

the universities has remained scarce and sparse (Analoui and Fell, 2002; Redman et al., 2000). This study, therefore, was an exploration into the role and effectiveness of PAS, an aspect of Human Resource Management (HRM), in universities with special emphasis on the Ghanaian public sector universities. In other words, the present study sought to generate empirical data to analyse and assess the role and effectiveness of the PAS in the Ghanaian public sector universities.

Method

The study adopted an exploratory, descriptive and evaluative case study approach that combined both quantitative and qualitative methods of social science research (Blaikie, 2003, Yin, 1989). The empirical data was obtained through the use of self-completing questionnaires and semi-structured interview guide from 401 university employees, who were both purposively and randomly selected.

The questionnaires were used to gather data from the junior and senior administrative employees (Staff) and the front line managers (FLMs) such as Assistant Registrars and Senior Assistant Registrars while the semi-structured interview-guides were used to gather data from the senior management personnel in the universities (see Table 1). The questionnaires were personally distributed in all the universities by the researcher and four trained research assistants while the interviews were conducted by the researcher. The senior management personnel and the front line managers were included in the study in order to cross check their views with the senior and junior administrative employees (Staff) of the universities who were the main respondents for the study.

Table 1

The Sample for the Study

Universities[1]	Staff	FLM	Senior Mangement
UCC	119	14	3
KNUST	99	10	3
UEW	75	13	3
UG	49	11	2
Sub Total	342	48	11
Grand Total	**342+48+11=401**		

Source: Field Data

[1] Four public sector universities in Ghana were involved in the study. These were University of Ghana, Legon (UG); University of Education, Winneba (UEW); University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast (UCC); and Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi (KNUST).

The results indicated that generally the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities had not been effective because they faced a number of systemic and implementational problems. This article discusses some of the major problems facing the effective implementation and effectiveness of the PAS in the Ghanaians public sector universities.

Results

The results of the study indicated that the public sector universities had policies that guided the implementation and management of the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities and these were known to the administrative employees of the universities. Almost 60 percent (59.1%) of the respondents affirmed that they were aware that the universities had policies guiding the implementation of their PAS. Similarly, a high percentage of the FLM (75%) confirmed that they were aware that the universities had performance appraisal policies (PAPr) in place for the management of the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities (see Table 2).

However, the data showed that the policies had not been effectively communicated to both the employees and their supervisors. For example, 62.3 percent of the employees and 41.6 percent of their supervisors who were aware of the policies stated that the policies had not been communicated to them neither had they been educated on the policies.

The data showed that the respondents lacked knowledge of the objectives of the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities. At the operational (Staff) and supervisory (FLMs) levels, majority of the respondents were not aware of what the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities sought to achieve.

Table 2
Respondents' Awareness of Performance Appraisal Policies and Procedures

Awareness of policy	Staff (N= 342)		FLM (N= 48)	
	No	%	No	%
Aware	201	59.1	36	75
Not Aware	141	41.3	12	25
Total	342	100	48	100

Source: Field Data

As many as 77.8 percent of the staff and 64.6 percent of their supervisors were not aware of what constituted the objectives of the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities.

The results showed that the supervisors used a variety of processes in assessing the performances of the administrative employees of the Ghanaian public sector universities (see Table 3). While as many as 17.5 percent of the employees did not know how their performances were assessed, 49.5 percent of them stated that their performances were assessed by their supervisors who only filled in the performance appraisal forms (PAFs) and requested the staff to sign a portion to indicate their consent of the assessment. Close to 23 percent (22.6%) of the employees claimed that they filled in the Part I of the PAFs while their supervisors treated the rest as confidential reports. This situation was confirmed by the supervisors. For example, 29.2 percent of the supervisors stated that the performances of the employees were assessed by supervisors filling in the PAFs and requesting the employees to sign portions to indicate their consent, while 17.6 percent stated that the employees were requested to fill in Part I of the PAFs and supervisors treated the rest as confidential document. Only 2.1 percent of the employees and 8.3 percent of the supervisors stated that the performances of the employees were assessed through performance interviews.

Table 3
Process of the Universities' Performance Appraisal Systems

Process	Staff (N= 342)		FLM (N= 48)	
	No.	%	No	%
Supervisors fill in PAFs for staff to consent	168	49.9	14	29.2
Staff fill in Part I of the PAFs while the rest are treated as confidential report	77	22.6	7	14.6
Interview between supervisors and staff	7	2.1	4	8.3
PAFs treated as confidential filled in by only supervisors	30	8.9	-	-
Not Known	60	17.5	23	47.9
Total	342	100	48	100

Source: Field Data

The results also indicated that the staff of the Ghanaian public sector universities were assessed by a variety of assessors who were all in supervisory positions. The performances of 65.2 percent of the staff of the universities were assessed by the heads of department, 20.8 percent by their immediate supervisors who were either Principal[1] or Chief[2] Administrative Assistants while the Faculty Officers[3] assessed the performances of only 2.3 percent of the staff (see Table 4).

The results showed that both the employees and their supervisors had not been given enough training to ensure the effective management of the performance appraisal process. The results at the operational level (Staff) showed that only 22.2 percent had been trained in the management of the performance appraisal process of the universities while as many as 77.8 percent had not had any form of training in the management of performance appraisal. At the supervisory level, the results were similar to that of the operational level. Only 22.9 percent of the supervisors had been trained in the management of performance appraisal process.

Table 4
Sources of Performance Information in the Universities (N= 342).

Appraisers	No.	%
Heads of Department	223	65.2
Deans	10	2.9
Immediate Supervisors	71	20.8
Faculty Officers	8	2.3
Not Known	30	8.8
Total	342	100

Source: Field Data

(Footnotes)

[1] This is the penultimate senior rank among the universities' senior staff

[2] This is the most senior rank among the universities' senior staff

[3] These are the Assistant Registrars who are in charge of the Academic Faculties.

The results further revealed that the administrative employees of the universities did receive some form of performance feedback on their performances. At the operational level, 57.9 percent had received both formal and informal feedback on their performances. Out of this number, 27.5 percent received formal feedback from their Human Resource Divisions while 48.3 percent received informal feedback from their supervisors. The data also demonstrated that the formal feedback was received once a year while the informal feedback ranged from daily basis, once a month to any time a performance mistake was made.

The data showed that the universities used their performance appraisal results (PAR) in three main decision areas to ensure the effective management of their human resources at the operational level. These were i) rewards; ii) employee rotation and transfers; and iii) Training and career development. More than half of the respondents (56%) reported that the universities used their PAR in deciding on the employees that should be promoted, given salary increase or other forms of rewards. About 16 percent (15.5%) confirmed that the universities used their PAR in taking decisions concerning training and development needs of the employees and universities while 4.6 percent stated that the PAR were used in transferring and rotating employees within the universities (see Table 5).

Table 5

Means of Applying the Universities' Performance Appraisal Results (N= 342)

Have you received any training in performance appraisal management?	No.	%
Promotion decisions	71	20.7
Remuneration Decisions	101	29.7
Staff Motivation and other rewards Decisions	16	4.6
Training and Career Development Decisions	27	7.9
No Idea	74	21.6
Total	342	100

Source: Field Data

Discussion

Lack of Communication of policies to employees

The study has revealed that all the Ghanaian public sector universities had annual employee PAS in place. These PAS of the universities were said to be guided by formal policies and procedures. The PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities were first introduced in the 1970s as Annual Confidential Reports (ACR) in which the employees were denied access to the results. The secrecy surrounding the annual confidential reports led to many abuses such as favouritism and victimisation. This resulted in loss of credibility of the ACR (Ghana Civil Service, 1991). As a result of the Ghana Civil Service Reform Programme in the 1990s (CSRP: 1987-1992), all the public organisations including the universities and the Ghana Civil Service replaced their ACR with a 'Semi-Open' annual PAS.

The results of the study however, clearly showed that even though a large proportion of the respondents were aware of the existence of the policies on PAS of the universities, their knowledge was very limited as the universities had failed to effectively communicate their policiesto the employees and their supervisors. In bureaucratic institutions, especially in the developing countries, information flow is a major problem. Employees may have knowledge about the existence of policies which may concern them and their work but may hardly be fully educated on those issues as indicated by the data. For example, in the study, it was realised that a high percentage of the employees (59.1) and their supervisors (75%) were aware of the policies on performance appraisals policies but only a few (21.8%) had ever seen or been educated on the policies. This was not limited only to employees and their supervisors. Some management personnel who were supposed to be the custodians of the policies had very limited knowledge of the policies. For example, one interviewee stated:

'I have been looking for the policy ever since I assumed this position. I have not seen the document, but it has not been taken seriously by the Heads of Department who are expected to assess the performance of their employees'.

This finding is similar to what Analoui and Fell (2002) found concerning the PAS of the administrative staff of University of Bradford. In that study, the researchers found that even though the respondents had knowledge of a draft performance policy for the PAS of the University,

their knowledge was limited as no one could state what was in the policy document. This is an indication that universities in general and universities in Ghana in particular, have not taken the appraisal of their administrative employees very seriously as they have done in the case of their academic employees.

Lack of awareness of the objectives of the Performance appraisal systems

Compounding the problem of lack of communication of the policies is the problem of lack of awareness of the objectives of the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities among the personnel of the universities. The documentary evidence revealed that the stated objectives of the PAS of the universities were: a) To find out whether the employees were performing as expected; b) to set targets for the ensuing year; c) to determine which employee merited salary increase, promotion or re-assignment; and d) to identify training and development needs of the universities and their employees. However, the results indicated that generally, both the employees and their supervisors did not recognise these as the objectives of the PAS of the universities as a large proportion of the respondents (77.5% of the employees and 54.6 percent of the supervisors) were not aware of the objectives of the PAS of the universities

This was also not limited only to the employees and their supervisors. Almost all the interviewees displayed lack of awareness of the objectives of the PAS as the following responses indicate:

"*Most employees have positive perceptions about the* PAS *because they are management's tools for measuring who should merit pay increase and promotion*". They aim at *"assessing past results which is used for salary increases and indirectly for promotion, however, from the way the system is managed, I am not sure whether the employees and heads of department are aware of these objectives*".

Another interviewee responded by asking:

"*Who but the Human Resource people knows anything about the PAS? Looking at how the forms are filled, people only fill in the forms as an obligation*".

With the exception of the interviewees of UEW, all the interviewees expressed different views about what

a) Setting targets for the employees for the coming year; b) Documenting the agreed objectives, and c) Acting as a source for building up training needs of the university.

They agreed that broadly the PAS of the university had two objectives to:

i) E*nable the university achieve her broad objectives, and ii) Enable employees have job satisfaction and develop their careers.*

Thus, the results indicated that the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities lacked clearly defined standards against which employees' performances were assessed which had been communicated to the personnel (Wilson, 2002; Swan, 1991).

The use of variety of processes

A variety of processes were used in the assessment of the performances of the administrative employees of the universities. The official appraisal process of the universities is a two-way process. By the calendar of the universities, the PAFs leave the Human Resource Divisions at the beginning of the appraisal period (usually October) to the Departments and return to the Human Resource Divisions after the PAFs had been completed (December ending). At the departments, the PAFs are distributed to employees (in some universities) to fill in Part I (usually providing factual demographic information such as name and present grade) and returned the PAFs to their immediate supervisors. Arrangements are then made for performance appraisal interviews (PAIs) for open and frank discussion of the performances of the employees and completion of PAIs forms. After the completion, the employees sign a portion on the PAFs to indicate that they had taken part in the discussions, seen the reports of the supervisors and either agreed or disagreed with the report. A copy of the report is then sent to the Human Resource Divisions for further action (usually salary increase, transfer or caution) while a copy is kept on the personal files of the employees at the departments/sections/units. Thus, the performance appraisal process (PAPr) centres on PAIs between supervisors and the employees.

The study however revealed that in practice, only a handful of the appraisers followed the official process (2.1%) of assessing employees through PAIs. The majority of appraisers (72%) either filled in the PAFs and requested employees to sign their portions or

requested the employees to fill in Part I of the PAFs and treated the rest as confidential reports or treated the appraisals as strictly confidential reports (7.1%). It is observed that employees were either satisfied with this trend of affairs or were 'coerced' into accepting it. For example, when asked whether there had been situations where some employees had challenged their assessments or the manner in which they were assessed, interviewees seemed argued of following:

"That rarely happens, for the employees either have confidence in their heads of department or decided not to challenge the PAR because normally no specific actions followed the assessment"; or "Employees only complain when the negative remarks adversely affected their promotions and salary increases. I think they normally do not complain because nothing good comes out of their complaints. Management's best action in such circumstances would be to transfer the employees to new departments or sections"

Thus, employees accepted the situation either because they saw the process only as a political process with no performance value or to protect their positions in the departments or the universities. This is similar to sentiments expressed by the employees of the Ghana Cooperative Bank about their PAS. In a study by Amoah and Nartey (1998) the Bank's employees generally perceived their PAS as one of 'jokes' and a 'ritual of no performance significance' (Amoah and Nartey, 1998: 18) hence they did not attach the much needed seriousness to completing and submitting the forms. In many instances, the employees refused to fill in the forms as nothing worth while came out of earlier ones submitted to management. Indeed, the study found that the PAS of the Bank had lost its credibility in the eyes of majority of the employees. This suggests that even though the PAPr of the Ghanaian public sector universities were being used perhaps, as a management tool for control of employees (Bratton and Gold, 1999) thus, suggesting that management was in control of the performances of the employees, the PAS might have lost their credibility in the eyes of majority of the employees of the universities. It is interesting to note that some of the respondents from the Divisions of Human Resource which were supposed to be the implementers of the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities were themselves not assessed through the officially laid down procedures. It is therefore assumed that the Human Resource Divisions would lack the moral courage to encourage others to follow the laid down procedure.

Sources of performance information

Related to the above is the problem of relying on supervisors as the only source of performance information. New sources of performance appraisal information such as peer appraisal, self-appraisal and 360 degree appraisal are yet to gain roots in most developing countries including Ghana, especially within the public sector. In all the universities, the immediate supervisors (Deans, Heads of Departments or Faculty Officers) acted as the sources of performance information. In other words, there was only one source of performance information, the supervisor. Even though this is observed to be a good HRM practice as the immediate supervisors are best placed to assess the performances of their employees, the system has a number of defects especially in situations where the reports were classified as confidential to the appraisees and were not countersigned by any senior officer. The situation is also flawed as there were no opportunities for the employees to appeal against their appraisal results. In these situations, the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities were likely to suffer from Halo Effect[1], the Doppelganger effect[2], rater leniency or strictness[3], Crony Effect[4] (Willison, 2002; Rotunda and Sacketh, 1999;

Amoah and Nartey, 1998; Smither, 1988; Wexley and Yuki, 1977; Dorman, 1961; Guilford, 1954). Even though these are 'ordinary' problems of performance appraisal, they are likely to be made complex considering the kind of social network that exist in Ghana. By their adherence to the dictates of kinship system, the average appraiser in the developing countries, especially Ghana, would be inclined to 'temper justice with mercy' when it comes to assessing people who hail from the same clan/tribe or have good relationships with them.

Lack of training for stakeholders

The Ghanaian public sector universities also lacked any serious training programmes that were based on or influenced by their PAR. In addition, there were no systematic training programme in place to train the personnel in both general management and management of the PAPr of the universities. Even though the employees agreed that training in performance appraisal had positive

[5] where an employee's strengths in one area are spread to other areas
[6] where all the rating reflects the similarity of character or behaviour of the appraiser and the appraisee
[7] where all employees are rated either high or low
[8] where the closeness of the relationship between appraiser and appraisee distorts the assessment of all the other criteria).

effects on their work performance (36.6%), knowledge of work (41.0%), management skills (12.7%) and improvement in their appraisal skills (10.0%), they had not been exposed to any meaningful training in performance appraisal procedures.

The Ghanaian public sector universities did not see training as a continuous process that should concern the employees throughout their careers, something that applies to everyone whether a generalist administrator, a technical, a professional officer, junior or very senior officer. They also did not see training as being an integral part of the total administrative system of the universities aimed at making the universities more effective (Reilly, 1979). Training programmes are most effective when they follow a systematic process. The training programmes for performance appraisal of the stakeholders therefore, could follow a systematic process that begins with an explanation of the philosophies, policies and objectives of the PAS of the universities, mechanisms of the rating system, the frequency of the appraisal, parties involved in the PAPr, standards to be assessed, benefits to the stakeholders, and others. Appraisers have to be made aware of the problems and weaknesses of the PAS in order to avoid them. The Ghanaian public sector universities need to focus their training on eliminating the subjectivity errors such as halo effects and reccency which are often made by appraisers (Willison, 2002). The training sessions should not only be a period of providing information to the employees and management personnel but also a process of skill acquisition. Participants need to be encouraged to practise, for example, how to fill in the PAFs, keep a log of observed behaviours and conduct the appraisal interviews. The issue of training the appraisers is very important as appraisers' training has generally been shown to be effective in reducing rating errors, especially if they are extensive and allow for practice (Landy and Farr, 1980). The Ghanaian public sector universities may need to take their training in performance appraisal programmes seriously if the PAPr are not to be seen as a set of rituals that have not much performance effect.

Linking the appraisal to rewards.

The results indicated that the universities linked their PAR with their reward systems. Even though the universities hardly analysed their PAR, the appraisal results influenced decisions of management on the promotions and salary increases. The respondents believed that the Ghanaian public sector universities mostly used their PAR in deciding on

employees that should be promoted or given salary increase (80%). This view was also apparent from the interview data. From the interviews it was realised that:

"*Most employees have positive perceptions about the PAS because they see them as management's tool for measuring who should merit pay increase and promotion*".

It is therefore not for nothing that the employees regarded the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities as managements tool for distributing rewards and punishment to deserving employees. This gives an indication that the Ghanaian public sector universities used their PAS as a management tool for controlling employees (Bratton and Gold, 1999). Even though the universities PAR influenced the decisions of management on promotions and salary increases, the systems, like that of the Ghana Co-operative Bank, did not recognise 'an out of turn promotion' for situations of consistent and exceptional employee performance which could be a motivation for continuous improve performance (Amoah and Nartey, 1998).

Thus, the results of the PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities did not affect the human resource development (HRD) programmes of the universities as they were not fully integrated into the HRD programmes of the universities. This conclusion is supported by the interview data. For example, in an answer to a question about how the PAR influenced the training programmes of the universities, the interviewees were unanimous that the universities did not organise training in performance appraisals for the employees neither did the PAR influenced the training programmes of the universities very much as the following responses indicate:

"The university uses two types of training programmes: In house and Out of house. Concerning out of house training, in the past, employees were given the chance to choose the kind of training they wanted to undertake. Now, the Training Board through the heads of department/unit/section determines the critical training areas and requests interested employees to apply for sponsorship. About the in house training, it is global in nature. The Training and Development manager looks at the system and where complaints are coming from and decides on whom to train and on what subjects/topics". "The PAR are not used as the basis for training because no seriousness is attached to the system, no

motivation to work. People could have been made to work if we have performance standards."

Conclusion

Theoretically, the problems of performance appraisal are supposed to be universal and limited to the intrinsic nature of the job in question, as revealed through the careful job analysis (Blunt and Popoola, 1985). For most part, the particularities of organisational life in the western world bear this expectation although, as Beveridge (1975) and Child (1980) make clear, they are, from appraisal point of view, rarely straight forward. In Africa and Ghana for that matter, however, ordinary problems of performance appraisal are exacerbated by a number of other considerations (Blunt and Popoola, 1985). All the problems listed above as hindering the successful implementation of PAS of the Ghanaian public sector universities as well as those in other organisations in developing countries could be summed up in the problem of 'particularism'. This is the problem of considering the relationships between the appraisers and the appraisees instead of basing the appraisals on what the employees have accomplished within the stated period of time. As the Ghanaian public sector universities used the supervisors as the only source of performance information and in situations where the reports were not countersigned by other senior management personnel, it is possible that people who received good appraisal results were those who were closely related to the appraisers in terms of kinship or ethnicity or those who maintained good relationship with them. Thus, the actual job performance in terms of what the individual workers and the universities were expected to accomplish would scarcely be taken into account (Price, 1975).

It is observed that these and other problems associated with PAS in both the developed and developing countries are not insurmountable. First, supervisors and their employees need to know and understand the problems. They have to be made aware of these problems and how they affect their operations in the universities as well as how to avoid or minimise them. Second, the problems could be solved or reduced by selecting the right appraisal method (s) (Miller, 1985) as each method has its own advantages and disadvantages. For example, the ranking methods avoid the problem of central tendency but can cause ill feelings when performances of employees are in fact all 'high'. Rater training can also be an effective way of solving most of these problems. Even though training is not a panacea,

it can be used to reduce the problems of Halo Effect, Crony Effect, Doppelganger Effect as well as Veblen Effect. In addition, the raters can be trained to appreciate the reason(s) of the PAS, how to use critical incidents techniques in rating, how to do proper follow ups and behave during PAIs (Miller, 1985; Banrian, 1975; Hobbe, 1957).

Attempts at solving the problem could be summed up as:

'One way to achieve this is to design an appraisal scheme where the emphasis is on development, to use a 'safe' approach, which recognizes achievements and supports professional development and avoids the issue of accuracy and rating of performance' (Wilson (2002: 621).

In other words, there is the need for the Ghanaian public sector universities to develop and implement an effective PAS by selecting the right appraisal method (Miller, 1985) and instituting rater training to help solve the problems associated with the implementation and management of their PAS in order to derive the benefits associated with the use of PAS in the universities.

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INSTRUCTIONAL LANGUAGE DILEMMA AND CHALLENGES IN GHANA'S EDUCATION SYSTEM: ANY PROSPECTS?

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ABSTRACT

Language plays a pivotal role in educational provision and its quality as it is the main medium that facilitates communication between the learner and the teacher. Since the introduction of the first official school language policy in 1925, there has been the dilemma of what nature the policy is to take, spanning from first language as medium of instruction for the first three years of primary school, through first language usage for the first year only to an all–English usage throughout school. The study was a baseline cross-sectional survey on the perceptions of stakeholers on the language of instruction in Ghanaian basic schools. Eighty seven respondent comprising 36 pupils, 36 parents, nine teachers and three heads from three basic schools and six tutors from a college of education, were interviewd on their views and perception on the use of the local language as medium of instruction in basic schools.

The literature and the present study reveal that currently stakeholders will not support one exclusive language, English or Ghanaian first language, as medium of instruction at the early stages of school due to entrenched perceptions, notwithstanding whatever possible advantages there may be. The obvious choice is a mother tongue-based bilingual arrangement that effectively combines the advantages of Ghanaian first language and English. But its success calls for commitment by policymakers and the other stakeholders.

Introduction

Language is perhaps the most important communication tool in educational provision. It facilities the transmission process of educational content both in its oral and written forms. Particularly, in its oral form, language is indispensable in the interaction between the learner and the teacher. But in the written form, it conveys graphically messages and ideas from the teacher to the learner and the learner to the teacher.

In recent times there has been a lot of public outcry about the quality of education in Ghana. One often hears that standards of education have fallen. WAEC examiners' reports on Basic Education Certificate Examinations, for instance, seem to confirm this general notion. Quite a good number of the students reportedly show the lack of understanding of the questions due obviously to their poor English language background and proficiency since basically all questions are in English (WAEC, 2008). At the bottom of this picture is the issue of language and communication. It is when the questions communicate clearly to

they were not to be denationalized. Rather the best attributes of modern civilization were to be skillfully crafted onto their national characteristics as exemplified in their own language. To give impetus to the implementation of the education language policy, emphasis was placed on the training of teachers in the local languages and the expansion of Teacher Training Colleges in the country. Achimota Teacher Training College was at the forefront in training teachers in the local languages.

Right at the dawn of the introduction of school language policy into Ghana's formal education system, opposition and criticisms began to be experienced. Some educated elite and nationalists expressed reservations about the use of Ghanaian local languages in education in the country. Prominent among the critics were such nationalists like Sir Ofori Atta I, Sir Tsibu Darko and J.E Casely-Hayford who expressed the suspicion that the policy was an attempt by the British colonial administration to give Africans an inferior type of education that was likely to hold back advancement into higher education. They attacked particularly Achimota Teacher Training College as preparing graduates for a life of servitude to the colonial masters and for confinement to tribal life. They rather urged more use of the English language, proposing an educational adaptation that blended English education with the Gold Coast culture.

However, missionary groups that were leading in the provision of education in the country like the Basel Mission countered the nationalist argument and declared their support for the language policy. They viewed effective vernacular teaching at the lower level of schooling as an essential foundation for the satisfactory teaching and learning of English and other subjects at the upper levels.

Between 1925 and 1951, the policy was successfully implemented with Ghanaian language used as the medium of instruction at the lower primary and English taught as a subject. To further strengthen the implementation of the language policy of education, Twi and Fante were recognized as school certificate subjects from the 1930 academic year and included in the Secondary Cambridge Local Examination syndicate for overseas School Certificate Examination. Ewe and Ga were added to the local languages examined in 1935.

The policy on the use of a local language as medium of instruction at

the entire three-year lower primary continued until 1951 when Kwame Nkrumah, on his appointment as head of government business, introduced the Accelerated Development Plan (ADP) of education.

In the ADP, the school instructional language policy was revised to have the use of local language to cover only the first year of primary schooling. English was the language of instruction throughout the rest of the child's education with the local language taught as a subject on the time table. Measures were also outlined to ensure the success of the school instructional language policy among which was the training of more qualified teachers who would be able to handle the entire programme obviously including the effective use of the local language at the beginning of primary education.

Unfortunately at the gaining of independence in 1957, the indigenous government reversed the entire school instructional language policy with English used as the medium of instruction right from the beginning of primary education. Ghanaian language could be used in the first year only in newly established schools. In all other schools, it was a subject of study on the time table. This continued until 1966 when a military government took over affairs in the country. The Kwapong Committee set up by the military government to review education recommended a reversal to the earliest school instructional policy of using a local language as medium of instruction in the first three years of schooling. However, the government rejected the recommendation and rather endorsed the use of local language in the first year only. The constitutional government that came to power in 1969 implemented fully the Kwapong Committee recommendation. Thus between 1970 and 1974 a local language was used as medium of instruction for the first three years and where found necessary, up to the end of primary school. From 1974, the policy was revised again to restrict the use of local language medium of instruction at the lower primary only while English was to be used thereafter. The policy was stable from 1974 up to 2002, with all the major policy pronouncements or actions that came up during those years, reemphasizing the policy or reechoing it. For instance, the operational guidelines for the implementation of the 1987 Educational Reform affirmed that "the local Ghanaian language should be the medium of instruction for the first three years of primary school. English shall be learnt as a subject

from the first year at school and shall gradually become the medium of instruction from primary four" (MOE, 1988, p.6).

The Education Reform Review Committee of 1994 gave a hint of supporting the language policy when it recommended the intensification of training of Ghanaian language teachers, adding that the posting of newly trained teachers should as far as possible consider their ability to teach the Ghanaian language where they were posted (MOE, 1996).

However, in 2002, the government gave approval to abolish the use of Ghanaian language as medium of instruction for the use of English throughout all the levels of education. This policy change generated a lot of debate in the country much of which was an expression of disapproval to the change. In 2007, the government introduced a new educational reform which, among other issues, prescribed the use of both English and a Ghanaian language instructional delivery at the lower primary. This was based on a government White Paper released in 2004 on the Anamua-Mensah Education Review Committee Report that had been presented in 2002. The White Paper stated the government's acceptance of the recommendation that both the first home language of the child and Ghana's official language, English, should be used as the language of instruction at the kindergarten and primary level. The White Paper acknowledged that generally children learn faster if early education is conducted in a familiar language. But it also observed that early and routine acquaintance with second or even more languages confer on children great advantages in their lifelong proficiency in those languages. Thus an equally early exposure to English, which is Ghana's official language, will enable the learners to benefit from this lifelong proficiency among other advantages. Consequently, since September 2007, the school instructional policy in the country has been the use of both a local language and English as instructional languages and subjects at school right from the start of school at the pre-primary level till the end of the lower primary. From the fourth grade onwards, English is the medium of instruction while the local language is studied as a subject on the time table.

Benefits in First Language Usage

The introduction of the school language policy over the years to use the local language as a medium

of instruction in the early years of schooling has been based on the belief and recognition of the practical usefulness of the child's first language, the mother tongue (UNESCO 2005, Agbedor, 1994, MOE, 1988). Since the child already has some vocabulary in the first language, he is able to formulate and express his ideas quite meaningfully in his early years in this language. He will therefore be able to learn more quickly at the early years through the mother tongue than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium. Indeed the first language constitutes the system of meaningful signs needed for understanding and expression in the early years of a person's life. It is also recognized as a means of identifying with members of the community to which one belongs. Language is the natural and necessary expression of the mental heritage of a people and that the use of the mother tongue at school during the instructional process will deepen the child's love and respect for the mental heritage of his own people.

The University of Ife in Nigeria conducted an experimental study on the use of the mother tongue in primary school in which selected schools used Yoruba as the medium of instruction for the first six years of primary education and compared with regular schools where English was basically the medium of instruction for the same period. At the end of the study, pupils in the Ife project were found to score higher than their counterparts in the regular schools both academically and cognitively. It was further revealed that the pupils who were taught in Yoruba were no less skilled in English than those who were taught in English throughout the primary school. The conclusion drawn from the outcome of the study was that children who are taught in their first language gain academic success, in addition to gaining emotional, cognitive, cultural and socio-psychological advantages (Fafunwa, McCauley & Soyinka, 1975).

Again, before a child enters school he has acquired quite an amount of first language phonology, vocabulary, syntax, semantics etc, but the process would not be complete before reaching the school age. From age six when the child enters school, he still needs to develop the first language by the gradual acquisition of the complex rules of morphology and syntax, elaboration of speech act, expansion of vocabulary, as well as the special uses of language for the various subject areas (Agbedor, 1994). Thus when the child's

classroom in the early years at school does not offer him this opportunity, he will forfeit these possibilities and grow up being functionally handicapped in his own first language. It is this handicap that shows up in many a Ghanaian adult unable to construct whole sentences in the local language without having to mix them up with some English words.

A study cited by Agbedor (1994) showed further that the lack of continuing cognitive development of the first language during second language acquisition may lead to lowered proficiency levels in the second language and in general cognitive academic growth. The continuous cognitive development of the first language is therefore necessary for enhancing the development of second language and general academic growth. Perhaps, as observed by Andoh-Kumi (1994), this accounts for the fall in English language proficiency levels of students below the adopted threshold during the period after independence (1957 – 1966) when the English language was made the medium of instruction throughout school. On the other hand during the 1940s when the mother tongue occupied an important place in the curriculum, English as a subject did not suffer (Boadi, 1976).

Another importance of the use of the local language as a medium of instruction that seems to be lost sight of is the opportunity for the language itself to develop. Language grows through contact and exposure to the challenges and dynamics of everyday life. By the use of the local languages in education, they will be challenged by scientific and modern technology including modern agricultural practices to adopt and thereby grow and develop. The non-use of the local languages in education tends to put a freeze on the languages to develop functionally.

Challenges to Instructional Language Policy Implementation in Ghana

The various instructional language policies of Ghana have been bedeviled with a number of challenges that have adversely affected their success at implementation since the first promulgation of one in 1925 by the Guggisberg colonial administration. One notable challenge is that there does not seem to be the political will to ensure the full implementation of the language policies whenever they are promulgated. Apart from the statements introducing the policies or re-echoing them, there have not been any clearly defined

measures outlined towards their effective implementation. For instance, a cursory observation across the rural schools which are in the majority in the country indicates that only pockets of the schools make any attempt to use English as the medium of instruction in the upper primary classes. Teachers generally use the local language throughout the primary school and even in some of the junior high schools. Eventually, pupils in the schools perform poorly in English language and in the other subject areas, a situation which is erroneously blamed on the policy to use the first language as medium of instruction at the lower primary (Boadi, 1976).

Directly relating to the above challenge is the calibre of teachers found in most of the rural schools. A good number of the rural teachers had been untrained until the recent country-wide attempt to train all the untrained teachers in the basic schools. Most of these teachers have very weak background in the English language. A study by Andoh-Kumi (2003) in the West Akim District of the Eastern Region of Ghana revealed that none of the teachers in the schools involved in the study had a credit pass in English. Since most teachers in the rural schools do not have good passes in English, they are likely to demonstrate poor proficiency in its use both orally and written in the classroom. This obviously will negatively impact on the performance of their pupils in all the subject areas both at the lower and upper primary classes.

Another aspect of the teacher factor is the lack of qualified teachers who are able to speak the language of the community where they teach. Whereas the policy of the MOE stipulates that the posting of teachers should take into account their ability to communicate in and teach the Ghanaian language of the community where they are posted (MOE, 1996), this remains an ideal rather than the practice. Evidently teachers are posted and transferred to basic schools irrespective of their linguistic background. For those who are able to communicate in these local languages, most lack the capacity to teach effectively in them due to the lack of effective training in that respect. Indeed merely being able to speak a Ghanaian language does not mean one can teach in it, as noted by Prof Ameyaw-Akumfi (2002), when he was arguing for the introduction of an all- English medium primary education in Ghana. The training provided by the teacher training colleges in the dominant

Ghanaian languages of their specific locations is quite minimal and does not equip the teacher trainees with enough competence and confidence to be able to teach effectively in them. This is against the background of the colleges admitting candidates from all over the country irrespective of their linguistic background.

A major drawback in the effective implementation of Ghana's instructional language policies has been the lack of resources to facilitate the implementation. Except for issues relating to aspects of the particular Ghanaian languages themselves such as grammar, syntax, literature (stories, poems), which are written in the various Ghanaian languages, virtually all content areas are written in English right from the pre-primary level. There are no textbooks written in the local languages of the various subject areas. The individual teachers who themselves have very weak background in the local languages have to struggle for ways to express concepts in Mathematics, Science, Geography, Environmental Studies, etc. in the local language. This poses a great challenge to the teachers.

Ghana's multilingual character hasalso been another issue that has threatened the effective implementation of school language policies in the country. It is estimated that there are more than 40 languages spoken in Ghana. Some estimate them to be between 45 and 80. Consequently some argue that it is impossible to use them as languages of instruction across the country (Agbedor, 1994). However, it can be observed that these languages may be grouped into about 10 broad areas or families to which the various languages can conveniently relate. These are Fante, Twi, Ga, Ewe, Nzema, and Guan for the seven regions of southern Ghana, and Dagbani, Dagaare, Kasem and Gurune for the three northern regions. It should therefore not be too difficult to work with these as languages of instruction for basic schools. All across the country, people who speak minority languages have been able to communicate quite effectively in and with the dominant languages to which their languages share close affinity.

Another challenge that seems to play a leading role in the ineffectiveness of Ghana's instructional policies is the obvious halfhearted attitudes shown towards the use of the Ghanaian

languages in educational communication by various stakeholders in the provision of education in the country (government, parents, community members, teachers and pupils alike), a situation obviously based on the cherished perceptions held about the Ghanaian languages vis-a-vis the English language. The English language by its international status is held in Ghana as a language of prestige, and mere oral fluency in it is seen by many as a mark of intelligence and scholarship. This perception has been held since the colonial times to date. Boadi (1976) noted that in the first report of the Advisory Committee on Native Education in Tropical Africa that was released in 1927, it was observed that ***the natives were desirous of hearing English.*** It was for this reason that although they were recommending the use of the indigenous language in education, they stressed that English should be taught in all schools in the country.

It will also be recalled that the nationalists stood against the first introduction of the policy on the use of the indigenous language as a medium of instruction and the subsequent training of teachers, particularly at the Achimota Teacher Training College for effective implementation of the policy in the schools. Their argument was that teaching in the local language was tantamount to providing an inferior type of education that was preparing graduates for a life of servitude to the colonial masters and confinement to tribal life. Today, many parents prefer their children being taught in English rather than in a Ghanaian language right from the beginning of school. In addition to the cherished perception that ability to speak English is a mark of prestige and academic intelligence, there is also the belief that being taught in English will ensure children's better performance in academic work. The latter perception has largely been informed by evidences of academic achievement as indicated by examination results which consistently reveal private school pupils' superior performance over those of public schools (Opare, 1998; EARC, 2003).

One major characteristic of the private schools is their strict use of the English language in all communications by both pupils and teachers. Many attribute their superior performance in examinations to this strict use of English in communications. As noted by Andoh-Kumi (1994), these private schools remain the average Ghanaian parent's ideal school and

therefore they feel unhappy about the idea of using local language in their children's education as they think that will make the products of the private schools continue to have an edge over their children in their quest for places in secondary and higher education. Of course, those who cherish this perception have ignored or perhaps are not aware of the other inputs of educational provision such as the availability of adequate teaching and learning resources, parental show of concern and commitment in meeting the needs of their wards, effective teacher time on task backed by regular supervision (call it regular administrative presence) etc. which are normal features of the private schools unlike the public schools where the opposite is the case in many of the aspects.

It is a truism to say that a good knowledge of and proficiency in an internationally acceptable form of English is needed for effective participation in today's competitive world as well as in government, commerce and official business. A good grasp of the English language will enhance ability to understand and apply concepts in Science, Mathematics and all other disciplines. Again the English language occupies a unique position as a unifying force that binds the peoples of the over 40 linguistic groups together as one people with a common destiny. Any undue emphasis on particular local languages will have the potential to whip up ethnocentric sentiments that are likely to result in inter-ethnic conflicts and eventually divide the ranks of the Ghanaian populace.

Baseline Study on Language and Literacy: Purpose of Study

A baseline cross-sectional survey was conducted in the Central Region of Ghana in 2006 by the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) of the University of Cape Coast on the use of the local language as medium of instruction in basic schools. The purpose of the study was to find out the current perceptions of stakeholders regarding the language of instruction in Ghanaian basic schools. Questions that guided the study included: How stakeholders view the use of the local language as medium of instruction in basic schools; What language they prefer as language of instruction in basic schools; and, What they perceive as the current challenges associated with using local language as medium of instruction in schools.

Method

One rural and one urban public schools as well as one private school were selected to participate in the study. The study which is part of an ongoing DFID-sponsored ***Edqual*** project on improving language and literacy in low income countries, involved pupils and teachers of primary classes 3 and 4, as well as parents, educators and education officials. There are three components of the ***Edqual*** study, namely, observation of classroom instructions, pupil tests, and interview of stakeholders on perceptions and views on instructional language. The relevant component for this presentation is the interview of stakeholders.

Six pupils, three males and three females, were randomly selected from each of primary classes 3 and 4 in each of the three selected schools totaling 36, a parent each of the 36 selected pupils, all the teachers of the classes involved and the heads of the 3 schools, giving a total of 9 teachers and heads, as well as 6 teacher training college tutors. There were altogether 87 participants. Structured interview schedules of similar items were used to interview each of the selected participants. The interviewers comprised two lecturers of the University and six other researchers who are part of the local research team of the ***Edqual*** project.

Study Findings

The findings of the study are reported according to the various categories of the respondents. The respondents were teachers, head teachers, teacher educators, pupils and parents.

Teachers. Teachers from the private school indicated that the use of the local language alone in lower primary was not good because of the differing backgrounds of the pupils. However, most of their counterparts from the public schools were of the view that the use of the local language as medium of instruction is a very good idea because it will help the pupils to understand lessons in the classroom. Both groups were in favor of using both English and the local language in teaching at the lower primary.

All the teachers interviewed indicated that the language of all textbooks throughout the primary level is English (except those on the local language as a subject) and that the situation poses some challenges since teachers must translate the English language to the local language during lessons. The

teachers indicated that it is sometimes very difficult to translate from the English language to the local language. They all recommended the use of both local and English languages as media of instruction throughout the primary level and said that they used both local language and English in teaching so as to facilitate easy understanding of lessons by pupils in the classroom.

Head Teachers. All the heads interviewed indicated that using the local language throughout the lower primary level was a good idea but it becomes a problem when the pupils are from different language backgrounds. Thus although some teachers in their schools were using the local language, others had resorted to an all English usage. All the head teachers interviewed cited the problem of translating from English to the local language as a major hindrance to the effective implementation of the language policy. They also cited the lack of in-service training by the Ghana Education Service (GES) in the use of the local languages in teaching.

Teacher educators. Majority of the respondents supported the use of first language as a medium of instruction at the lower primary school. They explained that the use of the first language at the lower primary will enable pupils to pick and understand certain concepts more easily. Most of the teacher educators interviewed conceded that they did not have enough resources to adequately prepare teachers.

The respondents indicated that teaching and learning materials were not available. They also indicated that the number of years students spent to receive instruction in the local language was inadequate. The teacher educators further mentioned the difficulty of translating certain concepts from English to the local language as a major challenge to the effective implementation of a local language policy. Majority of them recommended the use of both the first language and English at the lower primary level because it would enable pupils to learn better from the beginning.

Parents. While majority of the parent respondents from the rural areas opted for the use of the local language at the lower primary level, most of those from the urban areas advocated for a mixture of both the local language and English. The parents from the urban areas who were against the use of the local language gave reasons such as

English becoming difficult for the pupils to use in the upper levels if they do not start using it in their early years at school, pupils performing poorly in final examinations, and teachers finding it difficult to explain some terminologies in the first language alone. One of them remarked, "What joy will it be to be a native who is learning everything in one's native language alone?"

Pupils. Most pupils in the public schools indicated that they preferred instruction in local language since it made them understand lessons better. Most of the pupils in the private school on the other hand stated that they wanted to be instructed in both the first language and English. They indicated that the use of the first language made them understand lessons better whereas the use of English will make them fluent in the language. Although most pupils said that they were comfortable using local language and understood lessons better in the local language, they wished to be instructed in English in order to be fluent in the language.

Conclusions and Prospects for Successful Language Policy

It seems obvious from the literature and the findings from the current study that regardless of whatever advantages there are, a purely mother tongue instructional language arrangement for lower primary or even primary one alone cannot receive much support from stakeholders due to the entrenched perceptions held by different stakeholders. This is heightened by the generally poor performance of public basic school pupils in examinations as against the relatively better performance of their counterparts in private basic schools. The stakeholders are not prepared for other explanations that may be responsible for the poor performance in the public schools including parents' own poor attitudes towards the education of children in the public schools.

On the other hand the demerits of an all-English medium arrangement which include the loss of touch with the cultural heritage, lack of growth of the local languages, the high potential for dropout in the early years, the difficulty of enforcement particularly in the rural areas, etc. are very far-reaching. Unfortunately many stakeholders are not able to realise these as they are not quite obvious at the initial stages and are further discouraged by the poor results of the public schools. Consequently, it is not a better choice either.

The obvious choice at the present stage is a compromise arrangement that combines both the mother tongue and the English language advantages. Bilingual arrangement is therefore the appropriate choice which is able to capture the benefits of both the mother tongue medium and the English language medium. In that case therefore, the current school language policy that came into effect in September 2007 seems to be the beginning of reaching a permanent solution to the dilemmas that have existed since the introduction of the first school language policy in 1925.

Merits of a Bilingual arrangement. It is observed that bilingual schooling offers significant pedagogical advantages as have been reported consistently in the academic literature (Baker 2001; Cummins 2000; CAL 2001). The effectiveness is heightened when it is mother tongue-based, particularly at the early stages. Mother tongue-based bilingual programmes use the learner's first language to teach beginning reading and writing skills along with academic content. The second or foreign language is taught systematically so that the learner gradually transfers skills from the familiar language to the unfamiliar one.

(1) Combining a familiar language with an unfamiliar one facilitates an understanding of sound-symbol or meaning-symbol correspondence. Learning to read is most efficient when students know the language and can employ psycholinguistic guessing strategies. Similarly, pupils can communicate through writing as soon as they understand the rules of the orthographic (or other written) system of their language.

(2) Since content area instruction is provided in the first language, the learning of new concepts is not postponed until children become competent in the second language. Bilingual instructions allow teachers and students to interact naturally and negotiate meanings together, creating participatory learning environments that are conducive to cognitive as well as linguistic development.

(3) Explicit teaching of the second language beginning with oral skills as offered in bilingual classrooms allows students to learn the

new language through communication rather than memorization.

(4) Transfer of linguistic and cognitive skills is facilitated in bilingual programmes. Once pupils have basic literacy skills in the first language and communicative skills in the second language, they can begin reading and writing in the second language, efficiently transferring the literacy skills they have acquired in the familiar language.

(5) Students' learning can be accurately assessed in bilingual classrooms. When students can express themselves, the teacher can diagnose what has been learned, what remains to be taught and which students need further assistance.

(6) The affective domain, involving confidence, self-esteem and identity, is strengthened by the use of the first language, increasing motivation and initiative as well as creativity. First language classrooms allow children to be themselves and develop their personalities as well as their intellects.

(7) Students become bilingual and biliterate. Bilingual programmes encourage learners to understand, speak, read and write in more than one language.

A bilingual arrangement in Ghanaian basic schools means a combination of the use of both a Ghanaian local language and the English language. This arrangement will effectively address the concerns revealed in the entrenched perceptions and views held by stakeholders.

Policy Implications and Actions

In order for the policy to work to produce results culminating in improved learning outcomes as evidenced in appreciable general academic standards among products of the schools and improved examination results, pragmatic measures need to be put in place.

1. Government needs to show commitment in ensuring the provision of resources in the various languages. Particularly, textbooks in the various subject areas need to be translated and

published and supplied to the various schools for use by the teachers. This will enable the teachers to use the local language more effectively as they will no more need to struggle to translate concepts from the English language.

Government should ensure that initial teacher training incorporates methodologies in effective teaching in the local languages. More language education specialists need to be trained at the Universities of Cape Coast and Winneba and sent to the Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs) to train the teachers in language teaching and usage. Each TTC needs to have specialists in more than one language area to enable the students with different linguistic backgrounds to benefit from.

2. It is observed that a good number of the teachers especially in the rural schools, many of whom are untrained, have the tendency to use only the local language at all times if left alone. To these teachers, English is heavy (***Brofoyedur***). These teachers need consistent support and encourage-ment in using the English language particularly while at school both in class and out of class.

To address this concern, the Basic Education Directorate of the GES in collaboration with other departments or agencies need to organize intensive in-service training workshops in communicative skills in the English language for all teachers at the initial stages. For some of the teachers, this will only be a good revision but it will surely impact positively on their performance. They will also be equipped to support their colleagues who have weaknesses in a more organized and systematic way. For the others, who may be the vast majority, there will definitely be new learning needed for the implementation of the policy.

Thereafter, School Heads and Circuit Supervisors will need to continue organizing regular workshops on the basics of simple English grammar and oral and written language usage for especially the rural teachers with support from specialists from the Education offices, Senior High Schools or Teacher Training Colleges. This will help the teachers to steadily improve their proficiency in English usage.

3. Similar in-service training workshops should be conducted for the teachers in the grammar and use of the local languages. Particularly at the initial stages there should be an intensification of these workshops to ensure that the teachers have built a firm foundation for the effective implementation of the language policy.
4. Especially at the lower primary, teachers need to be encouraged to use both the English and local languages in their teaching. Leanings to one or the other may be permitted given the linguistic background of the teacher and other considerations but not a complete use of one only. At the upper primary level, while the bilingual mode may still be permitted at class 4, there should be more English than the first language. By class 6 the medium of instruction should have become exclusively English. To this end, the GES needs to ensure that Circuit Supervisors visit the schools regularly and who in turn will ensure that teachers effectively use the bilingual mode in their instructional process.

5. School heads must be more proactive in their leadership and supervisory practices to collaborate the efforts of the education officials. They need to pay quick visits to the classrooms on regular basis to ensure that the teachers are using the bilingual mode and to note their needs so that appropriate help can be organized for them. Ithould be part of their daily schedules to visit some classrooms even if they are themselves class teachers. They need not to stay long in any one classroom.

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Their regular presence in the classrooms is what matters to motivate the teachers to make the effort to do the right thing. The heads must also be exemplary in endeavouring to use the English language on regular basis in order to encourage the other teachers to use it.

Conclusion

It cannot be gainsaid that the success of the language policy will significantly impact on the quality of education in the country and thereby improve educational standards which today stakeholdersconsider to have fallen. Quality education is not only found in the output and outcomes but also in the inputs and the process. Language plays a pivotal role in the process factor and therefore demands a much more urgent attention than it has hitherto received if quality education is to be achieved. At the same time, it is to be noted that educational provision is a combination and interplay of all the various factors. The recognition of these factors and their effective engagement in the educational process will inevitably affect the implementation of the school language policy.

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COMPETENCES AND COMPETENCIES FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL LEADERSHIP PRACTICE: HOW FAR DO THEY TRAVEL?

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Abstract

The quest for quality in education has necessitated the need for innovative leadership in Ghanaian schools. In pursuit of this, teacher educational institutions have through the traditional and distance education systems revised their programmes to ensure that appropriate leadership qualities are developed in teachers to enable them provide the needed classroom and school level leadership for facilitating teaching and learning in schools. Achieving this feat requires relevant leadership competences. In this paper, we explore some indicators of leadership competences within the Ghanaian cultural context. Drawing on literature from Western authors, and an interpretive study involving thirty Ghanaian primary headteachers, we contrast competences from competencies and conclude with a discussion on the interplay of the two notions in shaping the professional performance of primary school headteachers in the country.

Introduction

In the professional development of managers or administrators or leaders, in both business and learning organisations, 'competency-based training has become the received wisdom on approaches' (Torrington & Hall, 1998 p.422). Similarly, within the educational sector, 'competence' continues to dominate discourses about professional development; yet '*the* language of competence' defies a single definition (Derek 1993 p. 31-34). Derek attributes this misunderstanding to 'spelling variations' that reflect in US-based and UK-based origins of 'competence/y' models. He explains that whereas the US model speaks of *competency* or *competencies*, the UK model uses *competence* and *competences*. Contrary to Derek's simplified US-UK differentiation of the terms, UK-based writers such as MacBeath and Myers (1999 pp.1-22) and Constable and McCormick (1987, cited by Torrington and Hall, 1998 p.418) use both *competence(s) and competency (competencies)* in their literature with differentiated meanings. Unlike Derek, they differentiate between the words in terms of the meanings they convey not simply in terms of a US-UK spelling divide.

In examining competences for enhancing headteachers' leadership in Ghanaian basic schools it is essential therefore that we clearly establish the differences and similarities between the two concepts. In doing so, we explore meanings that thirty headteachers within the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem (KEEA) municipality attach to competences they require for leadership practices; with the aim of establishing the extent to which Westernised indicators of headteacher competences are similar to that of Ghana.

The study

The study was guided by an interpretive research design. The 'interpretive' tradition of social enquiry, according to Denzin & Lincoln (2005), assumes that actions have meaning in relation to the understandings, purposes and intentions of the actor, and the actor's interpretations of the significance of the context of the action. It enables the researcher to put him/herself in the shoes of the individual and by that learn through the process of interaction what individual's perception, interpretations and the meanings he/she attaches to his/her action are (Adler & Adler, 1987). Using semi-structured interviews and focus group discussion, the study sought to explore how thirty purposively selected primary school headteachers within the KEEA municipality perceive competences they require for their leadership practices in schools. Data were also gathered from literature drawn from the United Kingdom.

Indicator Anatomy of Headteacher Leadership Competences

As we mentioned earlier in the introduction, the concept of *competence* is very illusive and confusing. The confusion emanates from the different use of language and contrasting points of emphasis. For example, while Torrington and Hall (1998) locate *competence* within an individual's 'general ability to do something', MacBeath and Myers (1999) locate it 'in an organisational context' (p.2). Similarly, the former emphasise a 'specific' process towards achieving competence in their definition of *competency,* while the latter emphasise 'an individual's personal qualities'. Thus, while Torrington and Hall, suggest that *competence* connotes a 'general' phenomenon and *competency* a 'specific' phenomenon; MacBeath and Myers (1999) see *competence* as an 'organizational' phenomenon and *competency* a personal

phenomenon. Following these complex definitional contrasts, we sought to understand indicators that have characterised the notion of competence in related UK-based literature to enable us to formulate a contextual definition for competence.

Leadership competence: The UK indicator model

In the context of the United Kingdom, West-Burham and O'Sullivan (1998p 9-15) assert that the National Educational Assessment Centre (NEAC) has developed a competency framework, under four headings with corresponding competence indicators: *administrative* (problem analysis, judgement, organisational ability and decisiveness); *interpersonal* (leadership, sensitivity, stress tolerance); *communicative* (oral communication and written communication) and *personal breadth* (range of interest, personal motivation and educational values). The NEAC competency framework, according to the writers, has greatly influenced the current national standards set for the professional development of both headteachers and teachers.

Yet, can we say that these standards could work in the context of every school? The fact that even within the business enterprise, there is no agreement as to what constitutes competence suggests that generic indicators of competences can only provide a framework for the determination of specific competences in organisations. Hence Derek (1998) cautions, 'it is important that you do not leap on this bandwagon *(generic competence framework)* and become a disciple of the movement without a proper assessment of organizational and individual management development needs in your school' (p.115).

The work of MacBeath and Myers (1999) in Denmark, England and Scotland in which primary school pupils' and teachers' as well as parents' views were sought about headship 'competences' seem to affirm the fact that although there is nothing wrong having generic competences for headteachers, the relevance of such 'competences' might differ from school to school and society to society, in terms of emphasis. Table 1 illustrates indicators identified by the writers.

Table 1:
MacBeath and Myers: Headteacher competencies – a view from the Industrial Society

Clusters	Competence Indicators
'The human side'	• Supporting other people • Recognising individual effort • Promoting other people's self-esteem • Developing other people • Minimising anxiety
Leader as reflective and empathic listener	• Seeking to understand before making judgements • Listening to individual ideas and problems • Actively encouraging feedback
Empowerment	• Giving those doing the work the power to make decisions
Personal modelling of behaviour	• Demonstrating personal integrity • Practising what they preach • Showing enthusiasm
Directive category	• Providing direction • Taking decisions • Agreeing targets • Promoting understanding of the key issues
Managing change	• Looking at possible future challenges • Encouraging new ways of doing things • Treating mistakes as learning opportunities
Teamworking	• Encouraging teamwork

The discussion, so far, suggests that people hold divergent opinions on the concept of competence. Attempts by some writers to resolve the problem by distinguishing between *competency* and *competence* still show divergence in opinion. This seems to suggest that , in practice, the concepts are embedded in an individual. Hence, it may be argued that the dichotomy, which writers have supported with convincing arguments in the literature, constitutes a theoretical abstraction more than something that is distinguishable in day to day practice. We also wonder if the competence indicators listed in Table 1 will be similar to meanings that Ghanaian headteachers attach to the concept.

Leadership competence indicators: The Ghanaian Headteachers' Perspectives

Views expressed by the KEEA headteachers as they talked about skills, knowledge and abilities they considered necessary for efficiently performing their professional task, suggest that they do not differentiate between their personal qualities (*competency*) from their abilities to perform (*competence*). They mentioned sixteen major competences which they thought they needed for accomplishing their leadership tasks. In Table 2, we have categorised these competences under four main clusters. In the categorisation, we have referred to a word, 'capacity', that some headteachers used in place of 'competence'. Merriam-Webster Incorporated (1999) defines 'capacity', among other things, as 'character'; 'ability; 'power of mind'. In this light, the headteachers' association of capacity with professional certification and experience through rank, may imply that they viewed 'capacity' as an embodiment of all relevant personal characters, abilities and knowledge that give the headteacher the confidence to perform. It further implies that, although the word 'capacity' is often used to describe the capability of organizations to satisfy the needs and demands of consumers, it may also be used to describe competences and competencies or either of the two terms. In the subsequent section, therefore, the reader should understand 'capacity' either as an embodiment of both *competence* and *competency* or as synonymous with either *competence* or *competency*. Table 2 presents the competence indicators that were mentioned by the headteachers:

Table 2:

KEEA headteachers' perspectives of primary heads' competences

Clusters	Competence indicators
Administrative capacity	Ability to keep school records e.g. filing documents, maintaining school finance records, keeping admission records, the log book etc.,
Professional capacity	Ability to manage pupil assessment, knowledge of teacher appraisal techniques, knowledge of pupil teaching techniques, knowledge of techniques for teaching adults, ability to vet teachers' lesson notes, knowledge about leadership, acquisition of higher academic knowledge, ability to counsel.
Personal capacity	Fairness and firmness, tolerance, patience,commitment to work
Interpersonal capacity	Ability to relate well with staff, pupils, parents, the SMC, circuit officers. Ability to promote teamwork, ability to conduct successful staff meeting, and possession of lobbying skills.

A critical consideration of the clusters and indicators of competence listed in Table 2 shows some differences. The contents of the first two, *administrative* and *professional capacities* (category A), seem to have direct focus on task-related knowledge, abilities and skills that, from the headteachers perspective, were important in primary school leadership. The third and the fourth, *personal* and *interpersonal capacities* (category B), on the other hand, focus on human qualities that, in their opinion, could influence their ability to succeed as headteachers. Following this observation, we have, through a synthesis of the various ideas emerging from the discussion on the competency-competence debate, defined competence as *an all-embracing concept that describes the*

knowledge, understanding, skills and/or attitudes that headteachers require for successfully coping with, and accomplishing the challenging tasks they have to fulfil in the primary school to guide our discussion of the competences identified by the headteachers. We have no doubt that the reader may find our definition imperfect. Our concern though is not to prescribe the appropriate definition for *competence* but to provide a working definition that clarifies rather than confuses and, perhaps, provokes further debate on the subject.

What goes into Headteacher Competences in Ghana

Although the headteachers in our study suggested that they do not draw lines between their abilities and personal qualities while conceptualising their competences, the categorisation in Table 2 indicates that contents of their conceptualisation focus on two main issues. The first issue focuses on *task-related knowledge, abilities and skills* while the second focuses on *human qualities.*

Task-related Competences for Headteachers

The task-related competences identified that emerged from the study related to administrative and professional capacities.

Administrative capacity, within this context, is limited to competences related to the keeping and maintenance of records towards the achievement of the school's goals. An important competence that was mentioned by the headteachers is the ability to properly manage records, especially financial records, in their schools. The GES' job description for primary heads confirms the centrality of the headteachers' financial task by emphasising: *'as a headteacher you need to be able to manage Primary school funds using modern financial techniques. This means that you should develop the habit of keeping simple books of account in an acceptable way'* (Ministry of Education, 1994 pp.112). Accomplishing this task was however a source of dilemma for the headteachers. Twenty-four (80%) of them expressed great concern about their incompetence in handling financial records in the school. Their concerns are reflected in a remark made by one of them as follows: *'As for the keeping of records, the challenge is too much. We have to keep records on the capitation grant, children's attendance and many others but the capitation grant one is very difficult ... it is really a problem for us'*. This implies that

a headteacher requires skills and knowledge that would enable him/her keep proper records of monies they receive and/or spend in order that they would be able to account for them.

They also require skills in managing non-financial school records. Twelve (40%) of them said they needed skills and knowledge in filing circulars and other correspondence, filing pupils' admission register and recording events properly in the logbook.

The Headteachers' Handbook (Ministry of Education, 1994) identifies *keeping admission records* as an important task the GES requires of primary school headteachers in Ghana. Heads are required to provide accurate information about pupils because it is the document which proves that a pupil has been admitted to the school. Specific indicators of competence that the GES expects headteachers to exhibit in keeping admission records are contained in 'special rules'. The GES expects headteachers to record data on pupils they admit *promptly* and *accurately*. To be able to exhibit the competence of 'promptness' and 'accuracy' in recording the expected information on pupils, the headteacher needs *competency*.

We find these 'underlying characteristics' implicit in the statement, '*an entry should be made in the register for each pupil on the first day on which s/he attends the school*'. In our opinion, the headteachers' ability to fulfil this rule would largely depend on inherent personal qualities such as 'honesty', 'fairness' and 'commitment'.

In terms of professional capacity, the headteacher is required to have the knowledge and skills in managing pupil assessment. Although, in practice, it is the classroom teacher who is directly involved in assessing pupils, some of the headteachers thought it was essential for them, as leaders, to acquire the skills of assessment. This, they said, would help them provide the necessary school-based guidance to teachers on their staff in terms of conducting pupils' continuous assessment. As one headteacher argued, '*though it's the work of teachers, you as head must be skilled in it before you can supervise somebody in doing that*'. The headteacher's role in managing pupil assessment in the school is illuminated by the Ministry of Education (MOE) as follows:

> As a headteacher you will need to train your teachers on some of the informal and formal assessment methods. They will also need to be informed on the continuous assessment record keeping system. The example you set and your own attitude in this respect will influence them greatly. Remember that well conducted pupils' assessment motivates pupils and teachers. It also has a positive effect on the quality of teaching and learning (MOE, 1994: pp.182, 184)

A parallel of this is found in England. As Dean (1995 pp.127-128) explains, the demands of the National Curriculum's assessment have made it obligatory for every school and every teacher to keep records of each child's progress. This obligation, she further suggests, places much responsibility on the headteacher: 'it is the responsibility of the headteacher to see that adequate records are kept, that appropriate records are passed on to the next stage of education and that parents are informed of their children's progress'.

Competence in pedagogical and andragogical skills (skills for teaching the young and adults) also emerged as an important need for some headteachers. This was evident in comments such as '*you need to know more about teaching methods for student teachers and children*' and '*you must be conversant with the curriculum yourself and know exactly what goes on in each classroom*'. Justifying the need for heads to acquire pedagogical competence, one referred to the Ghana Education Service's practice of making headteachers mentors for teacher trainees in its school-based initial teacher training policy and stressed that they needed relevant knowledge and skills 'in the actual act of teaching'.

One thing that intrigues us is the headteachers' emphasis on the idea of gaining competence in 'teaching leadership' instead of 'learning leadership', when the current thinking about developing school leaders emphasize *Leadership for learning*. Their emphasis on 'teaching' raises two issues: *political* and *conceptual*. Politically, it seems the headteachers' quest for competence in teaching both pupils and adults was not only to enable them perform roles as instructional leaders and mentors efficiently but,

is considered as a developing individual' and that teachers are really promoting learning through their teaching.

Dean (1995. 42) suggests that one way by which the headteacher can effectively 'monitor the progress of each child is by looking at records and reports and at teachers' notes and at the work of children'. Dean's mention of the need for headteachers to look at teachers' notes strengthens the KEEA headteachers desire for appropriate knowledge and skills in vetting teachers' lesson notebooks. It is essential that the headteacher ensures that teachers' lesson plans clearly state objectives that reflect the learning needs of the child as well as the topic and must clearly spell out the learning processes pupils would be going through. Dean further suggests that teaching plans should demonstrate how the following elements interact towards promoting learning: 'the teacher, the pupil (learner), the set of intended learning outcomes (concepts, understanding, skill and attitudes to be learnt by pupils, the learning/ teaching process (activities to be performed by pupils) and context (including resources which may offer as well as limit possibilities for learning and its promotion). Besides, the head needs to ensure that classroom teaching is not carried out merely for its sake, but for the sake of enhancing learning. This point is crucial to the headteachers' monitoring task because, as Tomlinson (1995) observes, 'an activity isn't a case of teaching just because it's done in a classroom or by a teacher – it's whether or not the action is in the service of learning [...]'. He/she needs to be guided by the basic fact that 'teaching is activity designed to promote learning' (p.9).

Another strategy, identified by Harrison (in Bowring-Carr and West-Burnham 1999), is the headteacher's ability to inform his/ her work with research findings. This is an issue that we find very relevant to the KEEA headteachers' desire for increasing their professional knowledge. Lessons from a British school, the Queen Elizabeth Grammar School suggests that research methodology is a course that those concerned with the professional development of headteachers should not neglect. This is because pedagogical decisions that are informed by research findings, especially the school's own action research, are more likely to address real pedagogical issues on the ground. Moreover, developing skills in action research may help to create an investigative spirit in the headteachers and thereby improve

their information retrieval skills. Once such a competence is built in the headteacher, we foresee that there would be an improvement in their reading habits that will, in turn, help them to acquire knowledge about other strategies necessary for improving teaching/learning such as appraisal and counselling.

Ways of assisting teachers to learn

'The choice of appropriate techniques to facilitate and support learning' is a major issue in managing professional learning (West-Burnham and O'Sullivan, 1998:65). Since primary school teachers within the KEEA district fall within the category of adults, it implies that they have some experiences that the headteachers need to help them to develop. In this context, the headeachers' ability to promote experiential learning (EL) is important because 'student experience have always been central to adult education' (Brah and Hoy, 1989, in Weil and McGil, p.71). What the headteachers need in order to facilitate their handling of teacher learning is, therefore, a clear understanding of what constitutes EL.

According to Henry (in Weil and McGil, p.27), EL is viewed differently by different people because the term 'experience' is so broad that it becomes difficult to associate the phrase 'experiential learning' with any particular type of learning. Hence, while Gibbs (1987) looks at EL in terms of four types of activities: planning for experience, increasing awareness, reviewing and reflecting on experience and providing substitute experiences, Boud and Pascoe (1978, ibid.) stress the centrality of autonomy, learner control and relevance to activities in the 'real world'. Nevertheless, Henry explains that experiential theorists and educational practitioners seem to agree that experiential learning 'is definitely not the mere memorizing of abstract theoretical knowledge, especially if taught by traditional formal methods of instruction such as lecturing and reading from books' (ibid.). She further suggests that people seem to agree that experiential learning seeks to ensure that individuals can 'do' rather than merely 'know', but 'differ in their emphasis on what skills enable the desired quality of 'do-ability'.

In the light of the problem of definition, we have specifically limited the concept of experiential learning, within the context of this work , *to the type of learning that one acquires as a result of one's*

active involvement in a given activity and utilization of related previously acquired knowledge through a minimal external influence. We must acknowledge that the idea of *minimal* as it appears in our definition is relative because what may seem to be a minimal external influence to teacher 'A' may not be the same for teacher 'B'.

Just as getting a universally acceptable definition for experiential learning is problematic, it is equally difficult to prescribe a particular approach to it. West-Burnham and O'Sullivan, identify action research as one strategy by which the headteacher could improve their teachers' learning. Hitchcock and Hughes (1995:27) explain that the purpose of an action research is to improve a situation through active intervention and in collaboration with the parties involved. It does not simply contribute to knowledge, but provides practitioner-relevant information. West-Burnham and O'Sullivan also explain that action research provides a professionally valid technique, which enhances the actual process of work. It does not 'diminish or detract from, the core purpose' of the research; hence they stress 'it is highly cost effective and congruent with the notion of teacher as learner accepting personal responsibility for improvement'.

Human Quality-related Competences

Of late, employers in both business and service organizations have increasingly attached importance to the type of people they recruit as leaders. This is because, as Thompson (2001 p.357) put it, *'it is people who ultimately determine whether or not competitive advantage is created and sustained'*. Without the right type of people, the writer suggests, organizations cannot meet 'the needs and expectations of their customers more effectively than their competitors'. Hence guidelines for writing references on behalf of job seekers, for example, often emphasise information about the applicant's character, attitudes and other personal qualities. These constitute capacities that exemplify, what MacBeath and Myers (1999p.2) refer to as competencies: *'personal qualities that people bring to their task and infuse the job they do with new meaning and direction'*.

The foregoing discussion underscore the relevance of the headteacher' emphasis on the importance of personal and interpersonal qualities in their work.

Some headteachers in our study identified *fairness and firmness* as well as tolerance and patience as pertinent competencies they needed. Being fair is a competency that emerged in MacBeath's (1998p 91) study into expectations of school leaders as well. The researcher reported, among other things, that most parents and teachers who took part in the study expected the headteacher to 'act fairly at all times'. Gardner's (2000) list of qualities of a good leader also affirms the importance of the personal qualities mentioned by the headteachers. She identified the following as essential personal qualities: firmness, faithfulness, honesty, respectfulness, tolerance, empathy, selflessness, sympathetic, patience, transparency, disciplined, firmness, and visionary. Personal competencies, such as these are very important because they could help the headteacher to build and maintain good interpersonal relations with those he/she interacts with in and outside the school. As the MOE (1994) puts it: *'certain personal qualities will help you build and maintain good relationships'; hence 'it is important that you are friendly with your staff, parents and members of the community. Moreover, you will meet people with different opinions so be patient, tactful and tolerant'* (p.31).

It is, perhaps, in this light that 16 (53%) of the headteachers emphasised that they needed skills that would enable them relate well with the public. One female head explained that relating well with the public was essential because the school could not operate without the support of the community: *'you have to deal with the SMC, the PTA, the Chief so that they can help you in times of need.'* Another emphasised the need for heads to maintain good relations with *'especially those who matter in the community' because they would be in the position of supporting you to achieve your objectives'*. The reasons for which the headteachers required competence in building good public relations, connotes a transactional leadership approach to school-public relations. This trend has a parallel in the business industry where customer relations are considered as a viable tool for enhancing the sale of goods. This reflects in LeBoeuf's (1987 p.46) article on *They'll buy much more when they buy you* in which he advises:

> In any business, people who deal directly with the customers can make or break the business. Make a good impression and the customer buys, multiplies, and comes back. It's as

> simple as that. And the more service-oriented the business is, the more crucial it becomes to have front-line people who know how to sell themselves'.

Thus, dealing with public affairs and maintaining good relations with the public have become integral part of the job of primary school headteachers in Ghana for two basic reasons. First, because the primary school system in Ghana does not have a public relations officer attached to schools. Yet, the head teacher needs to receive parents, interact with opinion leaders in the community, receive visitors and explain school issues that are of public concern. Moreover, basic schools in Ghana have, since the introduction of the 1987 Educational Reform become community-based. The community, through the SMCs, support the schools financially; hence, as the headteachers argued above, it was essential that the school, through the headteacher, initiates and maintains good relations with the public.

Another dimension of inter personal relations identified by the head-teachers is internal human relations. This involves the establishment of relationship between the headteacher and other members of the school: the teacher, pupils, and food vendors in the school. This, according to the headteachers, was necessary because they could not run the school alone. As one male head put it, *'what the community expects the school to do is so numerous and time-consuming that the headteacher alone cannot meet these expectations ... without teamwork, your work will be difficult"*. The importance of building teamwork in schools has been emphasised by writers in the field of school leadership. For example, Dean (1995:74) asserts that *'the school where the staff work as a team taking decisions together is more successful than the school where all decisions are made by the teacher'*. The question however is, 'what should the headteacher do to promote teamwork in the school? As illustrated in Table 3, Fullan and Hargreaves (1991p.3) have suggested the following as characteristics that are necessary for creating team spirit or *interactive professionalism* (as Fullan and Hargreaves put it) in the school:

Table 3:

Characteristics of team-oriented schools

Fullan and Hargreaves' interactive Professionalism	Critchel and Casey's features of properly functioning team
It occurs when:	**When**
• Teachers are allowed greater powers of discretion in making decisions; • Teachers make these decisions with their colleagues; • Joint decisions extend beyond sharing of resources, ideas and other immediate practicalities to critical reflection on the purpose and value of what feelings) teachers teach and how; are reviewed • Teachers are committed to norms of continuous improvement in the school; • Teachers are more fundamentally accountable as they open their classroom doors and engage in dialogue, action and assessment of their work with other adults inside and outside their schools	• People care for each other • People are open and truthful • There is a high level of trust • Decisions are made by consensus • There is a strong team commitment • Conflict is faced up to and worked through • People really listen to ideas and to feelings • Process issues (tasks and

Source: Dean (1995 p.75).

Conclusion

One clear message that emerges from this paper is that the notion of competence vary according to cultural and linguistic contexts. As a result divergent opinions exist on the concept. To some writers competence can be distinguished from *competency*; while others use competence to describe both personal qualities and professional capacities for leadership performance. It also emerged that competence could be understood from two perspectives: generic and specific. The *generic* perspective encompasses both personal

qualities and non-personal abilities while the *specific* perspective limits itself to non-personal abilities, with personal qualities being referred to as competency. The discussion further suggested that although the competence-competency dichotomy simplifies the understanding of the concepts, in practice, the two concepts do not operate differently in an individual. The distinction is therefore, for the sake of convenience and for academic argument. It has also been seen from the discussion that while some indicators of competence are common between Westernised primary school indicators and that of Ghanaian headteachers, differences exist, especially in terms of contents of competencies when indexed to what headteachers do in schools.

Headteachers in our study were concerned with two main competences: those that relate directly to tasks they perform: administrative and professional competences and those that influence their task performance indirectly: personal and interpersonal competencies. Ability to manage school finance, specifically, the ability to keep financial records was given much premium by the heads. In addition, they needed to develop their pedagogical and andragogical skills. School-based research (action research) and teamwork also emerged as important tools by which the processes of learning could be improved by headteachers.

We conlude by arguing that the difference between 'competence's and competencies', as suggested by English Writers does not travel far. Headteachers in our study did not consciously differentiate between the two notions in their leadership activities.

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NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

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