
Stakeholders' assessment of Ghana's post independence educational policies

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Abstract: The study sought to assess three major post-independence educational policies of Ghana from a historical perspective. These three policies are the Education Act of 1961, the Education Reform of 1987 and the Education Reform of 2007. The study was located within the qualitative historical comparative design and involved 10 people who were selected through purposive sampling. Data were collected through interviews and documentary analysis. The findings of the study concluded that the educational policies under study came at periods when they were most needed. They were able to achieve to a large extent the dictates of their respective missions. Nevertheless, there were minor difficulties that adversely affected the achievement of some areas of their respective mandates. The study recommended that educational provision and regulation should be directed by national philosophy and not political philosophy. Plans concerning education should be the responsibility of all the stakeholders and politicians in the country, subject to review within a period agreed upon by all the stakeholders.

Keywords: Policy, Reforms, Educational, Implementation, Assessment

1. Introduction

1.1. Background to the Study

In his speech to the trainees at the Our Lady of Apostles College of Education on 15th of May, 2006, His Eminence Peter Cardinal Appiah Turkson reiterated the need for teachers to serve as manuals for the pupils. In his speech, he said that anything that is manufactured always has a manual which provides guidance for its operation. The human being rather comes into the world without a manual. He continued that the teachers are supposed to be the manual of the pupils. They are to break the seal of ignorance by turning their eye of the soul from darkness onto light (Plato as cited in Russell, 1965). They are to prepare them in such a way that they could face the challenges of the world without fear and with understanding so that the pupils could yield the maximum results thereof (Gyedu, 2007).

The various educational policies made so far have had the manifest function of helping individuals within the country acquire basic knowledge and skill that are potential in directing the lives and behaviours of the citizens in the country. Today, nations are shaping their destinies in development in their classrooms by making curricular policies that are

relevant to the development of their respective countries. That is to say that a nation's development is becoming more and more inextricably linked with the educational policies she pursues. What a nation wants to be socially, politically, economically, technologically is largely influenced by the kind of education that is offered to her members (Asiedu-Akrofi, 1978). For instance, a number of Ghanaians have acquired the proficiency in architecture and other areas of vocationally oriented activity due to the passage of the 1987 educational policy. Having celebrated the 52nd Independence Anniversary of Ghana in March, 2009, I have found it appropriate to trace the history of state-organized education in this country since the establishment of the Castle Schools by the British Colonial Administration in Ghana (known as Gold Coast before independence in March, 1957).

Granted that education is one of the most important tools for national development it becomes the responsibility of any progressive government anywhere to provide and promote sound educational policies as well as infrastructure that will help its people to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes that enable them to develop their potentials (Forojalla, 1993).

McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh (1975) state that it was not

until the last quarter of the 19th century that Ghana began to take first steps towards a state-organized education. Before then informal system of education had been the main way in which Ghanaian communities prepared their members for citizenship. It is interesting to note that in Ghana the first school was the home: the teachers were the parents and the elders in the family. The curriculum was life and learning was by observation. According to McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, the first major purpose of such education was the inculcation of good character and good health in the young members of the community. The second was to give them adequate knowledge of their history, beliefs and culture, thus enabling them to participate fully in social life. It could be seen from the foregoing comments that the purpose of informal education since the beginning of the Ghanaian society has been for national development.

Though the traditional educational system in Ghana provided special training for members of the community it would certainly not have been adequate to modern needs. The building of formal educational system started with the colonial government in the form of castle schools in the foreign endeavours of the then Gold Coast in the 1600s and later as colonial schools in the 1800s. A native of the country, Philip Quaque was trained in England at the early age of thirteen and after his graduation became the first African headmaster of the Colonial School at Cape Coast, Ghana in 1766 and held the position till his death fifty years later. The Colonial School at Cape Coast produced the first generation of English-educated Africans, which though small had great influence on the development of the country. Prominent among them was George Blankson of Anomabu, who in 1861 became the first pure African member of the Legislative Council.

Mission schools followed the Castle Schools with the arrival of the Missions in the country. The Wesleyan and Basel Missionaries established schools in Cape Coast, Dixcove, Anomabu, Accra, all along the coast and Akropong, few miles away from the coast respectively in the 1830s and 1850s. The area now known as the Ashanti Region of Ghana began to experience some formal schooling when in 1831 two Asante princes were sent to the Cape Coast castle school to be educated at the expense of the then Governor of Gold Coast, Captain George MacClean. They were Owusu Nkwantabisa, the son of the Asantehene, Osei Yao (1824-34), and Owusu Ansah, son of his predecessor, Osei Bonsu (1800-24). The two Asante boys were later sent to England to further their education for the next three years. They returned home in 1841 as British agents. Meanwhile, the Wesleyan missionaries had moved to Kumasi, which is the capital town of Ashanti to establish mission schools there. According to McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh (1975), not only were missions regarded as the right bodies to manage education; they had more money than the government with which to do so. For example, in the same year, 1844, Thomas Birch Freeman during a single visit to Britain was able to collect 5,500 pounds for the work of the Wesleyan Mission in Gold Coast-more than the Gold Coast government's total revenue for that year. Yet the missionaries opened schools not to spread literacy or to train their students

to earn a living; they did so because they thought that schools were one of the best means of spreading the Christian faith.

The first Education Ordinance in the country was passed in 1852 under Governor Stephen Hill. It was to provide for the better education of the inhabitants of Her Majesty's forts and settlements on the Gold Coast. The year 1852 may be regarded as a watershed of projected government activity in the field of education. In that year a meeting of the governor and the principal chiefs of those territories lying between Ashanti and the Coast resolved itself into a legislative assembly and authorized the collection of a Poll Tax of one shilling per capita to be devoted to the public good in the education of the people (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975). The ordinance failed due to the refusal of the people to bear the cost of education through the Poll Tax. Another Education Ordinance in 1882 brought two categories of primary schools in the country, namely, Government and assisted schools. The latter were run by non-government bodies. One limitation of the government's policies was that they had no influence on education in Asante and the Northern Territories until the annexation of Asante by the British in 1901, and the establishment of the Northern Territories Protectorate at about the same time.

Governor Guggisberg brought improvement to the economic, health and education sectors of the country. In 1920 he established the Educationists Committee which recommendations saw tremendous expansion to the education system in the Gold Coast. Later, in the 1940s under the rule of Governor Burns the desire for compulsory education for all children in the country engineered the Accelerated Development Plan for Education in Ghana. This was to be given a big attention in post-independent Ghana under the Premiership of Dr. Kwame Nkrumah (ADP, 1951). The rapid development notwithstanding, education practices in northern Ghana present one of the many education inequalities and disparities of the system of education that the country inherited from the colonial powers. Education development in the north is very recent compared to the south. In addition, people in northern Ghana are underserved by the nation's education system. The area has few schools when compared to the number of children of school age. The northern area also has high pupil to teacher ratio, most of the teachers who are recruited lack pre-service training, and the state of school infrastructure in that part of the country is comparatively poor (Quist & Apusigah, 2003).

The ADP produced a basic education structure consisting of: six years of primary education, four years of middle school education (both terminal and continuing), and five years of secondary schooling and two years of sixth-form education for entry into university. The main strategy of ADP was to improve access to basic education by abolishing tuition fees. After independence it was still considered a priority to make basic education free and the 1961 Education Act was introduced to support this vision. In all, these policies helped to expand access to education rapidly (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975).

The ADP had its critics. Busia cited in Foster (1965) argued

that it consisted of 'ill-digested series of proposals based on political expediency' (p. 16). Others argued that rapid expansion without ensuring sufficient numbers of trained teachers was unwise because it would compromise quality. Foster (1965) held a more optimistic view, and argued that the initial dip in quality as a result of rapid expansion was to be expected and did not negate the importance of rapid education expansion. He noted that there is little doubt that the period of rapid expansion did lead to a lowering of academic standards within the primary and middle schools, but it is equally true that the emergency teacher training schemes could enable the system to recover at a rapid rate once the initial peak of enrolments was past. The opponents of the plan, in reiterating criticisms which had formerly led the British administration to proceed cautiously in the diffusion of education facilities, ignored more significant consequences of mass educational expansion (Foster, 1965).

A further criticism of the ADP was that it created a financial burden for local authorities who were expected to fund about 40 percent of teachers' salaries, with the remaining 60 percent coming from central government. The inability of local councils to discharge this responsibility contributed to some of the difficulties experienced in maintaining the quality of education provision as enrolments increased. Some of the lessons that emerged from the accelerated development of education included the importance of ensuring that teacher supply and demand meets with rapid enrolment expansion; improving the capacity of local authorities to recruit and motivate local teachers; and finally the importance of management of educational inputs (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975).

In 1961, the first conference of ministers of education of independent African countries was held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. To the African countries then just emerging from many decades of colonial rule, educational expansion was seen as a catalyst for economic development and a leveler of social inequalities (Forojalla, 1993). At this meeting a long term plan of education was made that, by 1980, all African countries would have attained free compulsory universal basic education for all children of school-age. In fact, this policy was, politically, a popular one but failed to reflect internal differences between the various African countries. The conference again referred to other disparities: first, the growing obsolescence of the curriculum content in relation to the advancing state of knowledge and the actual learning needs of students; second, the mismatch between education and development needs of the societies; third, the growing imbalances and maladjustments between education and employment, fourth, the serious educational inequalities between various social groups and fifthly, the growing gap between the rising cost of education and the funds countries would be able and willing to invest in it (Coombs, 1985).

All over the world, education is accepted as the process by which individuals acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes which enable them to develop their faculties in full. It is universally accepted that one of the benefits of good education is that it enables individuals contribute to the development and

improvement in the quality of life for themselves, their communities and the nation as a whole. This view is strongly supported by Forojalla (1993).

It is on account of the belief in the benefits of good education that successive governments of Ghana have sought to use education as vehicle for accelerating the implementation of the development policies and programmes. However, it was realized that even before the attainment of political independence in Ghana, the type of quality education system inherited from the colonial era did not address the country's needs and critical problems of development and equity. Various educational review committees emphasized this fact and proposed remedies. Significant among them was the Dzobo report of 1972-4 which set the pace for new thinking about Ghana's education system.

It is significant that, after this attainment of independence in 1957, the newly elected government of the Convention Peoples Party (CPP) took bold steps to expand and reform the educational system of the country. This was done to make our educational system more responsive and relevant to the socio-economic needs of the country (Foster, 1965).

Even before Ghana attained independence, the ADP of 1951 had been embarked upon by Nkrumah and his colleagues to reduce disparities and inequalities that had hitherto characterized the provision of educational facilities in the country. In the ADP of 1951 started the free compulsory universal basic education (FCUBE), indeed it could be said that the enthusiasm of the new government to provide financial and national education was high.

To legalise the provision of the ADP of 1951 and solve the problem that emanated from its implementation, the Education Act of 1961 was promulgated. As a result of this 'Act' the government took over certain responsibilities, which were, hitherto, borne by the missionaries and other private educational organizations (Ampadu & Mohammed, 2004). Such responsibilities include examination and appointment of teachers, the curriculum, keeping school records, payment of teachers' salaries, and provision of infrastructure and direct supervision of educational practice (Antwi, 1992; Foster, 1965).

The period of expansion 1966 to 1975 witnessed the setting of a number of committees to review the education system in the country. The National Liberation Council (NLC) government that succeeded the Nkrumah regime in the period (1966-1969), therefore, witnessed a decline in the Frafra area. The new government, however, set up a committee to examine the state of education in the country as a whole and the peculiar problems of the North (Quist & Apusigah, 2003). The report of the committee was generally accepted and formed the basis for the two-year development plan of education. The Plan spelt out in plain terms government policy for raising educational standards nationwide as well as providing special attention to deprived and underserved areas such as the Frafra in their educational development projects.

The Plan covered the period spanning mid 1968 and 1970, thus eating into the period of the Busia administration. Dr. K. A. Busia had worked in the NLC regime as the head for the

centre for civic education. The Busia administration which assumed office in August, 1969 under the Progress Party (PP) initially implemented the two-year development plan drawn by the NLC government until they were able to introduce their own one-year plan for the 1970-1972. Government policy during the two-year period was the decentralization of education, the slowing down of the rate of expansion, improving educational facilities and rebuilding of the system by emphasizing quality and the relevance of education to economic growth. These policies were re-echoed and emphasized on the one-year plan but this time with more emphasis on the consolidation of the existing facilities through improvement (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975; Quist & Apusigah, 2003).

The Dzobo Education Review Committee was set up by the Acheampong government to review the proposals that were presented in the form of the new content and structure of education. The report, among others, called for the removal of imbalances and elitism in education, stressed the importance of relating education to the socio-economic needs of the country and most importantly, of diversifying the curriculum.

The implementation of the new content and structure of education begun in 1974/1975, however, on experimental basis. In 1976, every region in the country had a Junior Secondary School (JSS). Then, in 1978, one JSS was established in every district and one was established as demonstration school for the three year post secondary teacher training college.

In 1987, the new structure and content of education for Ghana became fully operational with initial focus on the implementation of the JSS programme under the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) regime (GES, 2007).

The policy decision on the new structure and content of education was based on an earlier government white paper entitled 'the new structure and content of education' (MOE, 1974). Under the new structure, the 6-3-3-4 system was adopted. The country then had six years of primary school, three years of Junior Secondary School (JSS), three years of Senior Secondary School (SSS) and four years of tertiary education.

The 1987 reform became necessary as a result of a virtual collapse of the educational system prior to this time. This was due to reasons which included insufficient supply of trained and qualified teachers. Other reasons were inadequate funding of the education sector, which led to the lack of textbooks and other needed curriculum materials, lack of adequate supply of furniture and equipment and the deterioration of school buildings. The ultimate effect of all deficiencies was poor quality of teaching and poor patronage of the school system by children of school-age.

The reform was therefore launched. It was based on the principle that literacy was a basic right of every Ghanaian and that every Ghanaian needs some sense of cultural identity and dignity, needs to know his/her environment and how to protect it and needs to participate in the development efforts of the nation using the most modern scientific and technological skills and tools (Ampadu & Mohammed, 2004; 1992

Constitution; MOE, 2004).

By 1990, the focus of the reform exercise had shifted to the SSS programme. It was, however, not until the first batch of the SSS students graduated in 1993 that the weaknesses in the implementation of the reform came to the fore (MOE, 1994; 1996; 1998; 2007).

The reform had fallen short in the achievement of quality targets and exposed the education sector to public criticism. This fallen standard was exemplified in the poor results provided by the students of that educational regime. Almost all the basic schools at Bibiani in the Western Region where I studied, recorded zero pass in the final examinations conducted by the West African Examination Council. The government's response to public criticism of the reform programme was to set up the Education Reform Review Committee of 1993/1994.

The work of the committee culminated in the National Education Reform of 1994 with focus on basic education to year 2000. The forum, that is, National Education Reform of 1994 was attended by 150 representatives of various stakeholders' groups, received critical criticism from participants and also provided an opportunity for discussion of problems of the sector which were identified by the committee.

Problems identified included the following: poor quality of teaching and learning in schools as a result of ineffective teaching/learning and ineffective management practices; inadequate funding of the sector leading to inadequate supply of inputs; lack of adequate parental involvement in their children's education; poor language policy that makes English the medium of instruction after primary school class three; lack of adequate co-ordination and collaboration among the implementing divisions of GES; disappointing growth in enrolment in schools and finally, persistent low regard for and poor attitude of the Ghanaian public towards technical and vocational education (Ampadu & Mohammed, 2004).

The outcome of the public discussion of these problems as well as the 1992 Constitutional provision led to the formulation of a new basic education policy which is being implemented as free compulsory universal basic education (FCUBE). The 1992 Constitution provides that two years after parliament has first met, the government should draw a programme for the provision of FCUBE (Government of Ghana, 1992; MOE, 1996; GNAT 1996). In 1995, the FCUBE was inaugurated as an intervention into bringing quality standards into educational delivery.

Following the history of education development in Ghana as outlined above, it could be concluded that the succeeding governments of the country had never been totally satisfied with the system of education of their predecessors. It came without any iota of surprise when former President Kufour set up a committee to take stock of what had happened in education before his period of governance. With a view to making it more responsive to current challenges the report known as the Anamuah-Mensah Report of 2002 was titled 'Meeting the Challenges of Education in the Twenty-First Century' (GOG, 2002).

1.2. Statement of the Problem

From the foregoing, all the past governments of Ghana have tried in their own ways to make education more responsive to the changing trends of development globally. In order to achieve this, a number of educational policies in the form of educational reforms have been made. Despite these reforms which injected both laudable innovations and substantial resources into the education sector the public has raised serious concern about the quality of education.

The quality products of these reforms have led educationists to put forward different views on the standard that Ghanaian education has attained. Recent education standards in Ghana have been criticized by stakeholders for not being as they should be. However, the holders of this view do not indicate how they measure standards of education. There is little idea given as to what constitutes 'quality' in education or universally acceptable method of assessing such quality (Antwi, 1992).

To what extent are these assertions true? What are the factors that contribute to reform in Ghana? These are questions that are critical in our understanding of the rationale behind the various policies in our country. Yet, little literature exists on the historical assessment of education policies in the country, Ghana. It is in this light that the researcher sought to adopt a historical approach to assess the trend of post-independence education policies from the perspective of the stakeholders in Ghana.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

There has been a number of education policies in the country, all with the intention of raising the standard of education. In this study the focus is on the historical context of educational policy formulation, implementation and a critique of some of the major policies regarding education provision and delivery in the country.

This paper specifically tried to make a historical assessment of the three major post-independence education policies in the country, namely, the Education Act of 1961; the Education Reform of 1987; and the Education Reform of 2007.

1.4. Significance of the Study

A study of such a nature has a lot to offer not only to the government, policy makers and non-governmental organizations but also students pursuing a course in education policy analysis.

Firstly, the research has the strength of contributing to the existing knowledge about Ghanaian educational policies. Research in the area of educational policy analysis is scanty in the country. The findings of this study will therefore offer some information about educational policies in the country thereby contributing to the existing knowledge on educational policies in Ghana.

Secondly, it will offer students in the field of policy analysis first hand background information on education policy assessment. It will introduce students into the various processes involved in policy formulation, implementation and

evaluation. This will equip students of policy analysis with the skill to assess in their capacity some of the educational policies made in the country and also offer reliable information through writing to policy makers for consideration.

Thirdly, it will serve as a road map to the effective formulation of educational policies to policy makers. Policy makers need to assess a number of conditions before formulating policies. This study stresses the conditions that are necessary to enhancing effective formulation and implementation of any policy that is made. Policies are to be made against the backdrop of feasibility, affordability, justifiability and desirability (Kerr, 1976). The Policy makers may take a clue from this and formulate policies that are more proactive in addressing the educational needs of Ghanaians.

Finally, it will enable policy publics to appreciate the difficult nature of making policies. This will enable the policy publics to offer plausible and feasible suggestions to policy formulators and implementers. These suggestions may serve as a guide to policy makers so that they would make education policies that would impact positively on the people in the country.

2. Methodology

This chapter describes the methodology that was employed to collect data for the study. It specifically looks at the research design, the population, the sample and sampling procedure, the research instrument, the data collection procedure and the data analyses procedure.

2.1. Research Design

The study is qualitative in nature and located within the historical comparative design. Mouly (1978) states that while historical research cannot meet some of the tests of the scientific method interpreted in the specific sense of its use in the physical sciences, it qualifies as a scientific endeavour from the standpoint of its subscription to the same principles and the same general scholarship that characterize all scientific research. Historical research has been defined as the systematic and objective location, evaluation and synthesis of evidence in order to establish facts and draw conclusions about past events (Borg, 1963).

Historical research is an act of reconstruction undertaken in a spirit of critical enquiry designed to achieve a faithful representation of a previous age. In seeking data from the personal experiences and observations of others, from documents and records, researchers often have to contend with inadequate information so that their reconstructions tend to be sketches rather than portraits. Indeed, the difficulty of obtaining adequate data makes historical research one of the most taxing kinds of enquiry to conduct satisfactorily (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2005).

Reconstruction implies a holistic perspective in that the method of enquiry characterizing historical research attempts to encompass and then explain the whole realm of man's past in a perspective that greatly accents his social, cultural,

economic and intellectual development (Hill & Kerber, 1967). Ultimately, historical research is concerned with a broad view of the conditions and not necessarily the specifics which bring them about, although such a synthesis is rarely achieved without intense debate or controversy, especially, on matters of detail. The act of historical research involves the identification and limitation of a problem or an area of study; formulation of a hypothesis, the collection, organization verification, validation, analysis and selection of data; testing of the hypothesis where appropriate and writing a research report. This sequence leads to a new understanding of the past and its relevance to the present and the future.

2.2. Population

The population for the study comprised politicians who acted as the authorizing agents of the policies and real implementing agents such as Director General of the GES, Regional Directors of Education, District Directors of Education, Headmasters of SHS and Head teachers and Lecturers of tertiary institutions and teachers of basic schools.

2.3. Sample and Sampling Procedure

The historical nature of the study makes it extremely difficult to get a large sample size. Preliminary studies conducted to identify the sample for the study indicated that few people were in the system who could provide the requisite responses to the research questions. The sample included personalities that had been involved, and indeed, were or had been at the helm of affairs of education policy formulation, drawing the plans for reforms in education in both past and present times. The study constituted one past Director General, two Regional Directors, one District Director, one Headmaster, one Head Teacher, one teacher of Basic School and three University Lecturers. The sample size for the study was 10. For the purpose of this study, a purposive sampling technique was employed.

2.4. Research Instruments

The study employed interview guide and document analysis technique as instruments. The interview guide was used to solicit response from policy authorizing and implementing agents. In the interview, the interviewer reads the questions to the respondent in a face-to-face setting and records the answers.

Document analysis technique is the process of inductively establishing a categorical system for organizing open-ended information. Documents are written or printed materials that have been produced in some form or another—annual reports, artwork, bills, books, cartoons, circulars, court records, diaries, diplomas, legal records, newspapers, magazines, notebooks and others. They may be handwritten, printed, typewritten, published or unpublished intended for private or public consumption. They may be original works or copies. In short, documents refer to any kind of information that exists in some type of written or printed form (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

For the document analysis, 2002-2004 Anamuah Mensah's

report and GNAT News Letter called the "Teacher" were the primary document sources used.

2.5. Data Collection Procedure

Data was collected via interviews conducted with targeted respondents with all protocols of seeking their permission duly done. Tape recordings of interview proceedings were done.

On the average, the interviews lasted for 35-45 minutes. Most of the interviews took place in the office. The interview with the past Director General took place in his house and the interview with the teacher in the basic school took place under the shade of a tree on the school compound. The rest of the interviews were done in the offices of the respective respondents. The interviews were conducted within the time period of nine and eleven in the morning.

3. Results and Discussion

This chapter presents the results of the study and discusses them. Since the data were collected through interviews and the document analyses technique, I used both the interpretive approach and the critical discourse analysis technique to do the analyses of the data collected (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2005). It must be stated here that some of the issues covered under this chapter have already been noted in some documents used as part of the literature review. I am justified in making interviews about those areas again in order to substantiate the veracity of the information and also have a feel of people who were really involved in the process of formulation and implementation of the policies.

Question 1. What situations Necessitated the three major Educational Policies that have been implemented in Ghana since Independence?

To provide answer to this research question, three operational questions were raised. The first question was "what in your opinion were some of the circumstances that led to the passage of the three major education policies under study?" The second operational question required the respondents to indicate whether the circumstances needed a change. The third question was "how in your opinion were the policies able to address such circumstances adequately?"

In the first operational question, the researcher wanted to know what might have prompted the formulation of the policies under study, what needed to be corrected and changed so that the education system would be in line with the current trend of development. For the 1961 Education Act, the response to the question was derived mainly from the document analyses technique. One respondent (a lecturer) was able to provide some information during the interview. The respondent said that "Ghana had just woken up from the sleep of colonialization and therefore needed to put a system in place to regulate her education in the country". The respondent continued that after Guggisberg, "there had been no education law or system to regulate the activities of education in the country". The Education Act of 1961 was passed to streamline the provision of education and also factor

the recommendations made as a result of the Addisa Ababa conference concerning the giving of free compulsory universal basic education into our educational plan. Another thing worth mentioning was the secularization of education. The churches had total control over their schools and were giving admission to students based upon their religious affiliation. Other people were being denied of access to education based upon this activity of the churches. Lastly, before independence, Cape Coast was part of Togoland and was under the supervision of one individual. Effectiveness of educational supervision was at very low ebb. There was the need therefore to invest education into the hands of one minister to be solely responsible for educational matters in the then Gold Coast. The Minister of Education was therefore given enough power by the Act to regulate operations of education in the country (Antwi, 1992).

For the 1987 Education Reform, one Lecturer said that “in 1970, there were a lot of problems with the educational system”. The system which was there was pursuing the grammar type of education, forgetting about other important elements; the skill development component and the vocational component necessary for national development. The Dzobo committee was formed in 1972 and they came out with their report in 1974 and they recommended a reform of the system. They recommended the reduction of the duration of pre-university education and expansion of the curriculum to include technical, vocational education right from primary to the tertiary level. This was not implemented because of lack of political will and finances. The six year primary was, however, put in place. But in 1987, the revolutionary regime had the political will to implement the recommendations of the report, to streamline the educational structure, which hitherto, was starting and ending anywhere. Lines of progression in the earlier system were not helping anybody. It was very difficult to get to the higher level with that type of grammar education (Ampadu & Mohammed, 2004).

The 2007 Education Reform had the focus of reviewing education to pay heed to the demands of education in the 21st century. According to a speech given by Professor Jophus Anamuah-Mensah, the guest speaker at the opening ceremony of the Consultative Council for Teachers' Associations (CCTA) annual general meeting at GNAT Hall Cape Coast on the 13th February, 2008, many issues resulted in the call for a review of the education system. These included: poor performance of pupils/students in national and public assessment; virtual collapse of the school system, about 50% of JHS leavers are pushed out of the educational system with no employable skills; similarly, about 40% leave SHS with no knowledge or skills for either further education or employment; the need to be part of the global knowledge system and economy and finally, readiness of the school system for employment. He continued that one important understanding we need to have is that the current reformation in education is about change, it is about producing people with a new mindset and renewed purpose in life, it is about making Ghana a global player in the global knowledge economy. Based on these contextual and global issues, a new vision for education was conceptualized

(GNAT, 2009). Three respondents also said the “earlier policies had neglected the kindergarten education which was an essential part in the development of the child”. Another circumstance was the issue of distance education. The universities are not able to absorb the very many students who qualify to enter the university for the regular school admission. “How do we offer university education to people who could not be absorbed by the universities?” one Lecturer asked. This and many others like the emphasis on technical vocational education and apprenticeship training that had been started by the 1987 education reform but in a failed manner, according to a District Director of Education, called for this reform review.

Looking at the circumstances that led to the implementation of the policies in succession, it could be seen that each successive policy came to make up for what was missing in the earlier one. The 1961 was not so much on the curriculum, so the 1987 came in with the content and the structure of education. The 1987 also left out kindergarten education, and the 2007 looking at this loop hole brought into the review the significance of kindergarten education and also the need to give global touch to our education system.

The second operational question asked the respondents to indicate whether the circumstances needed a change and also provide reasons for their answer. This question tried to find out if the circumstances were essential in bringing a reform that would involve a lot of money, time and political will to see to its implementation. To this question, all the respondents answered in the affirmative. For instance, a Head Master of a certain SHS, asked “how do you drive if you have no driver, the minister of education was the driver for education in the country. It was very much necessary that it was passed because the churches were having extreme dominion over schools they had established and it was not helping anybody. “Access to education was supposed to be for all and not a chosen few because they belong to a particular church, he exclaimed”.

For the 1987 reform, the reason for answering in the affirmative was that, ‘we needed a comprehensive programme. You don't leave the vocational technical education into the hands of the private sector alone’ said a Lecturer. The government must be involved. “We need the scientist and those with psychomotor skills to develop. The reform of 1987 was directed towards this achievement”, he continued.

According to one respondent, “the 2007 reform was necessary because of what it desired to achieve mainly in the area of kindergarten education which was very much essential in the total development of the early child. Another reason given for this reform was its emphasis on science and technical, vocational and apprenticeship training. Added to this was the need for distance education to give free access to people who could not stay in the university but would like to combine working with education (GNAT, 2009).

Looking at the foregoing discussion, it could be seen that all the policies made successively were necessary because they all came to respond to a deficiency found in the earlier policies. It indicates that our education system should be reviewed to cater for a particular need within a particular history. No one

policy is enough for a number of years. It must be stated however that, educational policy should not be made randomly, but be made when a deficiency in the earlier policy warrants a new policy.

The third operational question was "how, in your, opinion were the policies able to address such circumstances adequately?" This question wanted to find out if the policies made were relevant in addressing their respective circumstances. To this question, all the respondents on the various policies answered in the affirmative. Their variations came in reaction to the adjective 'adequately'. For the 1961 Education Act, a Regional Director of Education said "it addressed the circumstances but in an extreme manner". The respondent continued that too much power was invested into the hands of the Minister and this could lead to abuses. For the 1987, one Head Teacher was of the view that there was something missing in the education that was being pursued in the country. He said, "the reform really addressed and took charge of that. We wanted to avoid the elitist or the grammar type of education". One District Director of Education believed that the 1987 education reform addressed the circumstances adequately. For the 2007 reform, the reason for the adequate address of the circumstances was envisaged in the extension of the structure of basic education from nine years to eleven years. "Kindergarten education has become an integral part of the basic education. A course of study has been mounted in the colleges of education and the universities to train teachers for such kindergarten education "said by one Lecturer. "Distance education is being offered by almost all the universities in the country to provide university education to every person who wants to combine education with work. The curriculum has also changed to reflect vocationally oriented subjects", she continued.

Question 2. What Plans were made towards the Implementation of each Policy Selected?

A lot has been written on this in the literature review. I therefore presented only those areas that reflected the personal experience of people who were involved in the implementation. For the 1961 Act, it was revealed by one of respondents that a lot of primary schools were opened coupled with the opening of secondary schools. This confession goes to confirm what Antwi, (1992) wrote on this issue. The opening of the primary schools was as a result of the FCUBE policy the Act wanted to pursue. "Added to the opening of schools was the printing of books to be used by the students" said by a Lecturer. There was again training of teachers to upgrade themselves to rise to the challenges of the teaching during the period (Antwi, 1992).

As for the 1987 educational reform, a Lecturer who was a real member of the implementing committee was very much happy to speak to this. This was guessed from his quick responds and a sigh of joy that was given when the question was asked. 'We need to review the curriculum and expand the curriculum' he said. A committee was put in place to take charge of vocational, technical component and also to produce the curriculum material needed. The curriculum was designed for JSS linking up with primary, SSS curriculum linking up

with the tertiary level. "Structure was changed from the confused system of 17 years to 12 years" said the Lecturer. In order to put the new structure in place, a committee was put in place to mobilize resources, human, material and financial for the implementation. Getting the necessary materials, what were left were teachers to teach. "The teachers in the system were inadequate. Those on the ground also needed training. Retraining of the teachers was embarked upon" said the Lecturer. Assistance was needed from development partners. "World Bank gave financial donations to implement 6-3-3-4 and more also, the 6-3-3 structure" the Lecturer said happily. 6-3-3-4 indicates; six years of primary education, three years of JSS, three years of SSS and four years of tertiary education. "The first face was responsible for this implementation" the Lecturer said. The curriculum materials were produced and made available to the students. "The central committee was responsible for that" the Lecturer added. Invitations were given to publishers and they intern identified potential writers. 'Because we wanted the materials to be Ghanaian in character, 50 percent of the writers were to be Ghanaians' the Lecturer continued. At this time cost sharing was the system allowing all the stakeholders to make their respective contributions.

Two of the respondents confirmed exactly what the documents itself provided as plans towards the implementation of 2007 Education Reform.

From the above information on the plans made towards the implementation of the policies under study, it could be envisaged that the essential plans were made towards the implementation of these respective policies. The policies were very much prepared for smooth take off as far as the information given is concerned. It is not far from the truth that any implementation of any policy of some sort would be free from inevitable challenges as could be seen from the literature review on the implementation of policies. It must be added in a haste that before any policy is implemented there is every need to provide the necessary equipments needed for the successful implementation of the programme.

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

In Ghana there is a hot debate concerning which education policy is able to satisfy our educational system. In the face of the many policies made concerning education, our country's educational system has not achieved much as compared to the intention of the policies made. It stands to reason that our educational policies be assessed to find out their areas of successes and challenges and also suggest possible ways of making our educational system responsive to the current needs of our society. To this end, I sought to adopt a historical approach to assessing the trend of post-independence educational policies in Ghana.

4.1. Conclusions

A major conclusion from the findings is that no educational policy irrespective of where and who makes it is capable of addressing all its conditions and mandates. The educational policies under study came at periods when they were most

needed. They were able to achieve to a large extent the dictates of their respective missions. The act of 1961 increased school enrolment because of the policies emphasis on FCUBE. However, it brought about a serious confrontation between the churches and the government over the administration of the mission schools.

The Education Reform of 1987 also introduced vocational and technical education into the educational system. It is astonishing to realize that the country was flooded with half cooked JSS graduate after they had written the Basic Education Certificate Examination. Education Reform of 2007 sought to make education more responsive to the needs of the 21st century.

The major challenge of all the policies in their implementation was inadequate finance. Nevertheless, the policies were able to achieve their basic mandates. It was universally agreed among the respondents that educational policies should be guided by national philosophy and not political philosophy.

4.2. Recommendations

The study revealed that the 1987 Educational Reform did not achieve maximum support from the relevant publics because of the abrupt manner of implementation. Policies should therefore have a gradual way in the implementation of our educational policies. The gradual implementation will reveal inadvertent or unnecessary bottlenecks associated with the policies. This will ensure a successful implementation.

Second, our educational programmes should not be based on external handouts. Every society has its own needs and aspirations. We need to look at our nation and provide the kind of education that suits our situation so that the educational system would not provide people who would be alien on their own soil (Nyerere, cited in Forojalla 1993). Ghana needs an education that is Ghanaian in orientation and our educational policies should reflect that by placing much emphasis on the local languages.

Third, all stakeholders of education should be brought into the diagram of decision making concerning educational provision and regulation. This will ensure commitment on the part of the stakeholders as said by Asiedu-Akrofi (1978) that students get committed to decisions that they were part in formulating. Teachers, non governmental organizations, pupils and religious organizations should all be consulted in educational regulation. Educational partnership should be promoted. The religious organizations should collaborate with the government in the provision of education.

Fourth, kindergarten education should be given the much needed support because it is essential in the development of the child. What happens to the child at the initial stages of his development has a lot of consequences on the final growth and development of the child. The government and individual should collaborate in providing kindergarten education as attachment to all primary schools in the country. This will help the early child to access kindergarten education before entering class one.

4.3. Suggestion for Future Research

A number of educational reforms have been made with the prime motive of bringing quality improvement in educational delivery in the country. The study concentrated on the assessment of educational policies with the lenses of the stakeholders in education in Ghana.

This study did not take a serious look into the impact of educational policy on educational delivery in the country. The study therefore suggests that further study be made into the impact of education policy on education delivery in Ghana.

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