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FOREWORD

The floating of a journal for educational managers has been conceived with excellence in mind. The journal aspires to achieve high quality not only in documenting existing knowledge in the field of educational management but also in publishing research findings designed to extend the frontiers of knowledge in the field.

In its attempt to achieve these formidable but laudable goals the journal will obviously require the unflinching support of researchers, practitioners and students in the area of managerial sciences as a whole, and in the area of management theory as applied to the educational enterprise in particular.

In many of the developing societies including Ghana radical changes, reforms and innovations in their educational systems have been planned or effected in the recent past. It is my hope that the experiences of people working in these systems will be made available through this medium in the future. It is in this regard that I am now calling upon all parties world-wide, interested in the area of educational management to pool the knowledge resources available to them to make the JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT a paradign of excellence and veritable leader in its field.

Professor S. K. Adjepong,
Vice Chancellor, U.C.C.,
Cape Coast..

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The Governing Board of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) gave approval for the floating of a journal of educational management at the beginning of 1996/97 academic year and the journal started calling for articles in June 1998.

The goal of the journal is to advance the discipline of education management by providing a medium for exchange of ideas among scholars and practitioners in Ghana and elsewhere, within and across a variety of educational organizations. In particular, the journal intends to address issues regarding the strategic art of designing the future course of action in the educational enterprise with a view to optimising the use of resources, the interactive processes that ensure commitment, the cultural requirements for modifying norms and beliefs, the administrative values that promote efficiency and effectiveness, and the evaluation procedures that review performances and monitor outcomes.

The establishment of the journal was not without the usual teething problems that often plague the maiden issue of most journals. The long delay in producing this issue is the testimony. It is therefore meet to acknowledge the wisdom, understanding and patience of all those who stood by us during those uncertain times. Our special appreciation goes to our two external advisory editors. Professor Larry Sackney promptly accepted the call to serve and was one of the earliest to contribute to the papers. Dr. Patricia Bower, who had rendered a full year's selfless service to the IEPA has been sending us the latest editions of APA format. Dr. Isaac Amuah of Music department who is the graphic consultant for JEM has laboured vigorously to get the publication conform to APA format. His contributions are deeply appreciated. Our secretarial staff, Joyce Yeboah, Victoria Amosah-Mensah and Felicia Bassaw Quansah, who worked meritoriously to get the articles camera-ready deserve a pat on their backs. It goes without saying that without the blessing and full participation of the Governing Board for IEPA, the journal would not have seen the light of day. The Institute fully appreciates the role of its governing board in making the dream a reality.

It is congratulations we have for all the contributors to the maiden issue of this internationally recognized academic journal. Thank you all for bringing it into being.

Mr. S. K. Atakpa
Director of IEPA and
Chairman, Board of Editors.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The first paper in this journal presents the findings of a baseline survey study conducted by members of staff of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration of U.C.C., on the state of some crucial elements of school management in Ghana. The findings reported by S. K. Atakpa and Y.A. Ankomah which may apply in many schools of the developing world, surely deserve the notice of those who are called upon to manage education in those countries. Academic freedom is a controversial subject both inside and outside the ivory tower. P. K. Arhin questions the wheretofore of "ivory towerism" and "cosmopolitan professionalism" by exploring the frontiers of academic freedom, its rights, limitations and practical value. Resources can be unnecessarily committed to putting up more buildings and expanding teaching spaces in higher institutions when existing ones have not been put into maximum use. S. O. Owolabi proposes a simple way of assessing the use of rooms and scheduling course work to maximize the use of teaching spaces in tertiary institutions. By researching into the perspectives of principals and teachers in Canada Larry Sackney and associates are able to establish that the ways in which people are related within a school, how the school is structured, how decisions are arrived at and how the community is connected to the schools are closely related to the success or failure of school improvement initiatives. Teacher appraisal in Ghana tends to instill unnecessary fears in teachers and suppress their spirit of initiatives. On seeking for ways of promoting teacher quality performance G. K. T. Oduro draws useful lessons from the teacher appraisal scheme of Great Britain which is now enhancing professional development of teachers, improving school management and improving the education offered to pupils. Y. A. Ankomah surveyed the schools in rural Brong-Ahafo and his study reveals gross under-representation of rural girls in secondary school education. He found the poor economic circumstances of parents and socio-cultural conditioning of the rural womenfolk to be responsible. He suggests plausible remedies. Headteachers of single-sex secondary schools in Ghana annually go through stressful pressures when they are besieged by citizens seeking admission for their wards. J. A.Opare asks whether the motive for opting for a single-sex school is for the elite class to socially reproduce itself or for the non-elite to jump the queue. His analysis teases and irritates the mind and leaves many questions unanswered, which could form the basis for further research. To bring into light the importance and usefulness of Physical Education and Sports Onifade and Odedeyi advocate

that adequate and genuine administrative support be provided by Physical Education teachers and Sports coaches in the discharge of their duties, and argue for the inclusion of the discipline on the list of externally examinable subjects at the senior secondary level in Ghana. In a seminar on school management for newly appointed heads of schools, J. S. K.Owusu outlines the role of the school head in financial administration. It is a vital article for any head of school in Ghana. The last article in this maiden issue is a report of the debate on whether or not the Higher National Diploma awarded in Ghana should be equated to first degree. A. Amuzu-Kpeglo documents the report of the dispute that provoked a three-week-boycott of classes by polytechnic students, and called for the intervention of the country's parliament. The article draws a number of useful lessons from the episode for educational managers.

Those ten contributions to a continuing inquiry into the process and manner in which education is being managed in different parts of the world at both the systems and institutional levels have emphasized the need to collaboratively advance towards greater efficiency and effectiveness to make education respond adequately to the needs of clients around the world.

S. O. Owolabi
Editor

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BASELINE STUDY ON THE STATE OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT IN GHANA

S. K. Atakpa and Y. A Ankomah

ABSTRACT

Improving the quality of management in schools has been identified as an effective strategy for improving the quality of student performance in schools. This paper presents a report on a study which sought to examine management methodology for promoting quality teaching and learning even under adverse conditions and in the face of serious resource constraints in basic schools in Ghana. The study identified ten factors that make the difference between effectively managed and ineffectively managed schools: Instructional leadership skills of the school head, time management, school vision and mission, tradition of performance, commitment and attachment to work of the school, learning environment, community value and support from the district office, school community relations and school location. The study affirms that these ten factors are key determinants of effective school management.

Introduction

This paper presents the findings of a 1997 baseline survey carried out by the IEPA on the state of school management in Ghana. The purpose of the study was to examine methodology for promoting quality teaching and learning even under adverse conditions and in the face of serious resource constraints in basic schools in Ghana, especially in the rural areas. The study, which was funded by the IEPA, covered a total of 60 schools selected from nine regions of the country.

The study focused on specific elements of school management such as : managing human resources (teachers and pupils); maintaining discipline in school; communication; managing instructional time; managing co-curricular activities; managing learning resources; managing school funds; managing school intake and attendance; assessing pupil performance; assessing teacher performance; staff development (in-service training) and school-community relations.

Background to the Study

Of late, there has been an increasing public concern about the problem of ineffective teaching and poor student performance in basic education. A strategy that has been designed by the Ministry of Education, through its

Basic Education Sector Improvement Project (BESIP) for improving the quality of student performance in our schools is the improvement of the quality of education management to higher levels of efficiency, effectiveness and accountability.

Some writers have argued that the whole success of a school is to a large extent shaped by the manner in which the headteacher perceives and performs his role in the school. (Hoyle, 1969, quoted in Grace, 1972, p. 95; Bryan, 1968, p. xiii; Southworth, 1995).

Research has also established that the most important factors relating to the quality of learning are the complex interactions of the student with his family, his peers, the teacher and the head of the school. What the students actually learn and grasp is thus determined by the enabling environment created for them to interact with their teachers and learning materials.

The fact that learning builds on the students' interaction with the peers, teachers and learning materials has serious implications for education management policy formulation. Educational Administrators may be pre-occupied with the provision of school inputs such as buildings, furniture, textbooks and teachers but pay little attention to the teaching and learning processes in the classroom. This situation requires an indepth research to guide education management policy and development and promote quality teaching and learning. As Heneveld (1993) contends,

- policy is not necessarily an effective instrument for change, and what teachers and school heads do with children are to a large extent independent of national policy.

- selection of the right mix of inputs will not necessarily lead to improved quality of student performanc; rather what teachers and school heads do with children contribute significantly to effective teaching and learning.

- resources (facilities, equipment, curriculum, teachers and school head) all come together to form a social system that conditions the learning that takes place in the school.

Research has further revealed that effective school management requires competent leadership, capable teaching force, professional teacher support and supervision, use and care of supplies and equipment and school/community support and interaction. These elements are necessary for effective teaching and learning. The teaching and learning process, i.e. classroom organization, use of resources and materials use of instructional time, teaching methods, practice time/assignments/classwork/ homework for students, assessment and feedback, requires effective school

management to provide the conditions necessary for quality student achievement and performance.

It is the foregoing conditions that provide the basis for the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) to research into the current state of school management in the country in order to provide a summary of data/information to guide education management practice that will enhance quality learning.

Method

Since the purpose of the study was to determine the state of school management, the research activities focused on collecting relevant information primarily through observation and discussions, on what teachers and school heads do with the children. A team of researchers visited the selected schools; held discussions with school heads and observed school activities and the physical environment to capture relevant information on key elements of school administration and management. The information captured was transferred to a five point scale indicating the extent or the degree to which the specifics of the key elements are promoting effective school management.

Selection of schools

A total of 60 schools including 30 rural and 30 urban schools were involved in the study. The schools were selected from nine rural districts and nine urban districts in nine regions, namely, Ashanti, Brong Ahafo, Central, Eastern, Greater Accra, Volta, Western, Upper East and Northern. In each district, one Primary School and one Junior Secondary School (JSS) of Grade A status (from the District's own classification of schools) were selected. Similarly one Primary School and one JSS both Grade C status were selected. The schools included those the District Education Officers classified as 'good' schools and "poor" schools.

Results

Two categories of schools emerged from the study : effectively managed and ineffectively managed schools. The state of management in each of these categories of schools is as follows:

Category I : Effectively Managed Schools

(a) Managing Teacher and Pupil Personnel

The study revealed that headteachers of the effectively managed basic schools involved teachers and pupils in the administration of their schools. Duties were assigned to teachers and pupils towards the attainment of the overall objectives of the school. The schools had functioning duty rosters for both staff and school prefects. Besides, the heads promoted the spirit of team work. There was also evidence of the

headteachers' commitment to individual roleplay in the areas of sports, security and safety, cultural activities, environmental cleanliness and sanitation as well as personal hygiene. Consequently, several committees operated in the effectively managed schools. For example, all the schools classified as "effectively managed schools" had committees on academic, examinations, health and sanitation, sports and culture, guidance and counselling and disciplinary matters which were all found functioning. In most of the schools, prefects conducted morning and closing assemblies under the supervision of the heads and teachers on duty, thus affording the pupils the chance of developing their leadership qualities and skills of public speaking.

On the whole, the heads provided effective instructional leadership that created the needed ambience for teaching and learning.

(b) Discipline

In the area of discipline, the effectively managed schools were found to have established acceptable standards of behaviour for teachers and pupils. Rules on personal hygiene and punctuality were strictly adhered to. In addition, well-defined working systems of authority and responsibility which enforced school rules and regulations had been established. For example, in most of the Junior Secondary Schools, a corps of officers known as the "school police" had been formed to assist the school prefects in maintaining discipline and ensuring that the rules and regulations of the school were observed.

(c) Communication

The study showed that the effectively managed schools had cordial inter-personal relationships and effective channels of communication within the schools and with the communities. Regular staff meetings were held to plan the term's work, discuss administrative directives, strengthen teaching methods, solve problems that arise within the term and review the term's work. Essential school records on communication (minutes of staff meetings, circulars, school inspection reports, etc.) were properly filed.

(d) Managing Instructional Time

All the schools had drawn up plans for effective time management and utilization by both teachers and pupils. They ensured that class attendance registers and staff attendance books were well kept. In some of the schools, a system had been designed whereby the roll is checked for all classes during assembly to check lateness and absenteeism. Class attendance registers were marked at the close of each day's work rather than in the morning. This ensured the retention of pupils in school during school hours.

Besides, the heads of these schools and the teachers on duty, as well as, prefects

on duty were usually the first to arrive in school to supervise and monitor the activities of pupils and teachers. The teachers signed the attendance register/ book under the supervision of the heads. It was also observed that the heads regularly checked to ensure that the teachers and pupils were engaged in teaching/learning activities. They did this by going round the classes to monitor teaching and learning.

Another finding was that the heads had schedules for receiving and vetting lesson notes of teachers. Many of them had devised schemes through which they were able to collect samples of pupils' exercise books to establish the quality and quantity of pupils' work and thereby determine pupils' and teachers' work output.

The organization of special school activities, like open days or speech and prize giving days, was not very common in the schools. In the few schools where these special school activities were organized, committees were formed to plan the programmes for the special days.A remarkable feature of the effectively managed schools was the variety of strategies adopted to control social events that tend to disrupt school work. An innovative example of this situation was a case where the head planned a special time table for market days By this programme, schools opened earlier (at 7.00 a.m.) instead of the normal 8.00a.m. in order to close by mid-day to afford the pupils the chance to engage in income generating activities in the market. Another example found was that, where the social event required the participation of all the teachers in activities such as GNAT meetings, funeral celebrations, etc, the heads of some of the well-managed basic schools allowed only few representatives of staff to participate, leaving the rest of the teachers in school to continue with school work.

In moslem dominated areas where Friday prayers have been disrupting school activities at the JSS level, some of the heads had built small mosques on the schools' premises. The pupils worship in these schools' mosques during break and resume academic work thereafter.

(e) Managing Co-curricular Activities

At the primary school level, co-curricular activities such as clubs and societies were virtually non-existent. Similarly special occasions like open days which give publicity to the schools and their activities, were not held. Some of the heads felt that it was the performance of the pupils in examinations that advertise the schools' image but not open days.

At the JSS level, however, the schools had clubs such as debating societies and also had planned time

schedules for the various activities such as debates, quizzes, competitions, etc. Field trips were organized by some of the well managed junior secondary schools. Speech and Prize Giving days and open days were also organized to coincide with cultural festivities during which they invite the rulers of the community to participate.

Generally, current affairs and civic education were not taught exclusively in the well-managed primary schools. In a few of them, however, this was done by way of encouraging the pupils in class six to read newspapers and give oral reports to the class on current issues. At the JSS level, current affairs and civic education were extensively taught in the good schools. Some heads of these good Junior Secondary Schools even invited resource persons to teach or give talks on some current affairs or civic education issues.

(f) Managing Learning Resources

Most of the schools had safe places like stores with secure locks, safe boxes and shelves where books, equipment, tools and their supplies were kept.

It was also observed that, in many of these schools, gravels, stones and boulders were used to check soil erosion. Others used pegs to build bridges in gullies to check erosion. Some schools which were located in low lying areas had constructed water courses to control flooding problems. In terms of maintaining environmental aesthetic standards, trees, hedges, flowers and grass had been planted on the school compound. The trees and hedges were well trimmed at regular intervals to further enhance the beauty of the schools. In some of the schools, especially the JSS, chiefs were often contacted to draw the attention of the community on the need to control their animals (sheep and goats) from destroying the schools' hedges and flowers. The beating of "gong-gong" was often the medium of communication in such matters.

(g) Managing School Finance

The study revealed that the public basic schools were not collecting school fees; hence the headteachers were not keeping any books of accounts. In a few districts, however, the District Assemblies had imposed some levies for development purposes. Proper accounts on the collection of these levies were kept by the heads of the well-managed schools, sometimes in improvised accounts books.

Some of the schools, especially those with farming lands, undertook income generating activities by planting crops and rearing animals. Proper records were kept on monies raised from those income generating activities. It was observed that the organization of these income generating activities was

much more common in the junior secondary schools, even though few of the effectively managed primary schools also carried out some activities.

(h) Managing School Intake and Attendance

Generally, the well-managed Junior Secondary Schools did not make any special effort towards increasing admission by engaging in enrolment drives. This was because these schools invariably had feeder nursery and primary schools. Furthermore, parents flocked these schools to seek admission for their wards because of the popularity the schools had gained through their high academic performance.

The effectively managed schools, especially at the primary school level, therefore had a problem of how to cope with the high public demand for enrolment.

(i) Assessing Pupil and Teacher Performance

It was observed that the heads of these effectively managed schools carried out pupil and teacher performance assessment concurrently. They performed this duty by first of all going round the classes to monitor teaching and learning. Secondly, they took samples of pupils' exercise books to check the amount and quality of pupils' and teachers' work.

They also checked through the test items of the teachers to find out if they were up to the standard of the class. In addition, they sampled out pupils' test scripts to examine the quality of pupil performance and the accuracy of scoring by the teacher. Individual pupils were also interviewed by the heads to find out their learning and social problems. Using information gathered from these interviews, as well as, information gathered from the pupils' exercises, the heads invited the weak pupils and their parents to discuss with them how best they could help the pupils improve their performance. Just as they did with the pupils, the heads also interviewed teachers on their progress and problems. The teachers confided in the heads and discussed their spiritual, social and even marital problems with them.

Some primary schools had problems of staffing, basically due to maternity leave and sick leave of serving teachers. In solving this problem, some of the heads of schools with more than one stream shared the affected pupils among the other classes. This was done to ensure that pupils do not lose valuable instructional time.

(j) Staff Development/ In-Service Training

It was noted that the level of teacher retention in the effectively managed schools was very high. This situation

did not therefore make it necessary for new teachers to join the staff often. However, whenever new teachers joined the staff, the heads did organize orientation courses for the new teachers on the schools' traditions, values, regulations and administrative systems. Internal workshops or seminars were also occasionally organized by the heads to address issues relating to syllabus changes and teaching methods.

(k) School Community Relations/Support

The survey further revealed that the effectively managed basic schools usually had strong PTAs which met regularly to discuss issues affecting the welfare of the schools. Parents showed concern for the schools and ensured that the schools maintained their high standards of performance.

The schools also actively participated in national activities like independence day celebration. The schools were visited very often by officers from the District Office who played a supportive role in school supervision.

It was further realized that the schools had very good internal supervision schemes and that the external supervisors did not normally engage in serious in-service training programmes for the staff of the schools. Thus, internal supervision played a paramount role in promoting teaching and learning. The implication of this is that if internal supervision is effectively done, there would not be much need for external supervision.

It is worthy to note that the few effectively managed schools were inavariably located in the urban areas and in big towns of the districts visited.

Category II : Ineffectively Managed Schools

(a) Managing Teacher and Pupil Personnel

In the ineffectively managed schools, it was realized that most of them did not have notice boards. No duty rosters existed for both staff and prefects. In extreme cases, there was no prefectural system, especially in the primary schools. They were also characterized by poor sanitation and poor environmental aesthetic standards. There were no committees to see to welfare, sports, culture, discipline etc. Instructional leadership of the heads could best be described as non-existent. Consequently, the schools lacked the enabling environment for teaching and learning.

(b) Discipline

The study revealed that observance and enforcement of school rules and regulations by both teachers and pupils, were not evident in the ineffectively managed schools. There

was no system of authority, responsibility and accountability that enforced school rules and regulations. The schools also lacked established acceptable standards of behaviour, and did not maintain basic standards of personal hygiene. Teaching and learning in these schools were characterized by general aloofness, total indifference and laxity on the part of both teachers and pupils.

(c) Communication

The survey revealed that the ineffectively managed schools did not have well-organized and regular staff meetings to plan and review the term's work, discuss administrative directives and solve problems that arise within the term. It was found, however, that cordial relations existed among the teachers. The cordial relations notwithstanding, the administrative style in the schools created conditions for the teachers to avoid work.

It was further revealed that the schools did not keep essential school records. Most of them had only one file for all forms of correspondence and this was not well kept. Apart from the log book, all the other essential administrative books were not kept. Poor record keeping hampered communication within the schools and with the District Education Offices. The schools also lacked interaction with the community, especially as they did not have any PTAs.

(d) Managing Instructional Time

A common feature of the ineffectively managed schools was that the marking of Class Attendance Registers and the keeping of Staff Attendance Books did not serve any purpose. This was because lateness and absenteeism on the part of both teachers and pupils had been accepted as normal by the heads. In some of the schools, even records on staff and pupil attendance did not exist. The heads did not also have time to supervise teaching and learning in the schools since they claimed they were overburdened with teaching themselves.

At the primary school level, some of the headteachers had schedules for vetting the lesson plans of their teachers. However, they took no action against teachers who defaulted or refused to submit their lesson plans. At the JSS level, the teachers did not prepare any schemes of work and lesson plans but the headteachers took no action against them.

It was also observed that the headteachers had no system for assessing both teachers' and pupils' work output. Consequently, the output of work was sub-standard. In addition, the headteachers gleefully allowed social events, notably market days, funerals, farming and religious functions to

disrupt teaching and learning in the schools. These schools were characterized by general in-effective time management and utilization, and as a result teaching hours were wasted.

(e) Managing Co-curricular Activities

Regarding co-curricular activities, the heads and staff of the schools did not plan or schedule activities for clubs and societies. Similarly, field trips and excursions which could afford the pupils the opportunity of gaining first hand experiences were not organized. The schools did not also organize open-days to make public the achievements and problems of the schools.

Sports and games were also not well-organized. Instructional time was sacrificed for this purpose and there was no supervision from the teachers. Pupils were usually left on the field while the teachers loitered the time away. Other co-curricular activities like health related education, teaching of current affairs and civic education that go to enhance the individuals' social development and healthy citizenship were not taught.

(f) Managing Learning Resources

The survey revealed that the ineffectively managed schools did not observe basic principles of environmental cleanliness properly. The heads made no effort to carry out minor repairs of school buildings and furniture. They also made no effort to grow and maintain flowers, hedges and trees to enhance the aesthetic standards of the school's environments. Unlike the effectively managed schools, the ineffectively managed schools did not make any serious moves to check soil erosion and flooding. No attention was also paid to the proper disposal of waste.

Furthermore, it was observed that textbooks, library books, equipment, stores and supplies were most often not used to facilitate teaching and learning. Some of these schools did not have offices, or in some instances, the offices and classrooms lacked good doors and locks. Thus, for fear of theft and damage to the items, the textbooks, equipmen,t etc. were kept untouched in the house of the headteachers, chiefs or Assemblymen. In extreme cases, it was noted that mice, termites and cockroaches had destroyed valuable textbooks and materials.

(g) Managing School Finance

The heads explained that they were not performing this aspect of their work because the payment of all types of fees had been abolished in the basic schools. It was, however, discovered that few districts had instituted their own sports and education levies. In such districts, heads had not evolved any effective methods for collecting the fees and showed no proper records of keeping

school accounts with respect to monies collected.

The findings also showed that where land and other resources were available, the heads failed to organize income generating activities to support the school's development.

(h) Managing School Intake and Attendance

Data collected showed that the urban schools in this category did not carry out any enrolment drives. They were fed from the high population of the urban areas. In the rural areas, however, some efforts were made to increase enrolment but because of the poor performance of the schools, parents were reluctant to send their children to the schools.

It was also observed that lateness and absenteeism were rampant in the schools and the situation worsened during certain seasons and times of the year e.g. farming and fishing seasons, dry season and market days. Apart from lateness and absenteeism, dropout situations still existed. Heads made little efforts to follow up the dropout cases and to check absenteeism and lateness. At the JSS level, it was discovered that majority of the dropout cases of girls were due to teenage pregnancy and early espousement.

(i) Assessing Pupil and Teacher Performance

The study revealed that the heads of the ineffectively managed schools did not carry out any purposeful assessment of pupil and teacher performance. Continuous assessment was not systematically done and teachers "conjured and cooked up" marks for continuous assessment records. Pupils' and teachers' work output could best be described as poor.

Besides, little interest was shown in the individual progress and problems of the pupils. The heads did not interview pupils to ascertain their progress and their individual learning and social problems. Similarly, conditions were not created for heads to observe pupil performance at school level competitions because such competitions were not organized in the schools.

Regular lateness and absenteeism were found to be characteristic of the heads and staff of the schools. The general laxity in management in the schools tended to promote drunkenness and other unacceptable behaviour among the staff.

(j) Staff Development/ In-Service Training

Teacher turn-over in the ineffectively managed basic schools was observed to

be very high. Unfortunately, newly trained teachers posted to the schools were not given any form of orientation to help them adjust and quickly fit into the pattern of community and school life. Heads did not hold any meetings or organize workshop to discuss and explain policy directives. At best, these directives were simply circulated among teachers, leaving the teachers to individually infer and interpret the educational implications of the directives. In addition, the heads did not organize workshops to introduce changes in the syllabus and to improve on teaching methods.

(k) School Community Relations/ Support

It was noted that heads in this category of schools did not draw any plans for activities that would promote school community relations. Consequently, no mutual relationship and co-operation existed between the schools and the communities. For example, the schools did not have PTAs and did not carry out any community support programmes like clean-up campaigns and health education. The communities therefore made no effort to support the development and management of the schools. It was clear that community feeling of ownership of these schools was a far cry.

It was also observed that circuit supervisors and officers from the District Education office occasionally visited the schools but little support was given to the heads and teachers in terms of teaching/ learning and management. While the heads felt they deserved special support from the District Education Office, the office blamed the heads for ineffectively managing the schools and not providing the right instructional leadership. The effect of the strained relationship between the school and the community and the lack of support to promote teaching/ learning is that the schools perform at sub-standard level.

A summary of the characteristics of both the effective and ineffective managed schools is presented in Table 1 :

Table 1
Summary of the Characteristics of Effectively and Ineffectively Managed Basic Schools

ELEMENT	CHARACTERISTICS	
	EFFECTIVELY MANAGED SCHOOLS	INEFFECTIVELY MANAGED SCHOOLS
Managing Teacher and Pupil Personnel	• active teacher involvement	• no duty roster
	• functional duty roster	• no prefectural system, especially in primary school
	• team work	• no committee system
	• effective instructional leadership	• no committee System
	• committee system	
Managing Discipline	• established standards of behaviour	• relaxed rules/ regulations
	• well-defined authority responsibility and accountability systems	• lacked established standards of behaviour
	• enforcement of rules/ regulations	• general aloofness
Communication	• effective channels of communication	• undefined channels of communication
	• cordial inter-personal relations	• cordial inter-personal relations

ELEMENT	CHARACTERISTICS	
	EFFECTIVELY MANAGED SCHOOLS	INEFFECTIVELY MANAGED SCHOOLS
	• regular staff meetings	• irregular & poorly organized staff meetings
	• proper filing system	• poorly kept records
Managing Instructional Time	• effective time management plan	• no time management plan
	• effective time utilization plan	• ineffective instructional time utilization
	• proper keeping of class and staff attendance records	• unreliable record keeping systems
	• effective supervision and monitoring of teaching/learning activities	• ineffective supervision and monitoring of teaching/learning activities
	• effective schedules for receiving and vetting lesson notes	• frequent disruption of teaching/learning programmes by social events.
	• control of social events	
Managing Co-curricular Activities	• emphasis on academic related activities such as debating and current affairs	• poor organization of co- curricular activities
	• utilization of external resource persons' services	• instructional time sacrificed for sports and games
	• less emphasis on clubs and social activities	

ELEMENT	CHARACTERISTICS	
	EFFECTIVELY MANAGED SCHOOLS	INEFFECTIVELY MANAGED SCHOOL
Managing School Finance	• proper keeping of school accounts	• poor records on monies collected from pupil
	• income generating activities	• no income generating activities
Managing Learning Resources	• ensure security of textbooks, equipment & tools	• improper keeping of textbooks and school equipment
	• check soil erosion	• poor maintenanc of school environment
	• maximum utilization of textbooks and equipments supplied to school	• underutilization of textbook
	• trees, flowers and grass on compound well maintained	
Managing School Intake and Attendance	• no enrolment drives	• no enrolment drives
	• had feeder nursery/ primary schools	• had feeder nursery/ primary schools
	• high public demand for enrolment	• reluctance of parents to send children to school
	• difficulty in satisfying admission needs of public	• very high lateness and absenteeism
		• high dropout rate

ELEMENT	CHARACTERISTICS	
	EFFECTIVELY MANAGED SCHOOLS	INEFFECTIVELY MANAGED SCHOOLS
Assessing Pupil and Teacher Performance	• effective monitoring of teaching learning by head	• no purposeful assessment of teacher and pupil
	• interviewing teacher/ pupil on progress and problems	• poor conduct of continuous assess-ment
Staff Development/ In-service Training	• high teacher retention rate	• high turnover rate
	• new teachers given orientation	• no orientation for new teachers
	• internal workshops/ seminars organized on teaching related issues	
School-Community Relations/Support	• strong and functional PTAs	• poor school-community relations
	• involvement in local/ national social programmes	• no orientation for new teachers
	• regular visits from District/ Circuit Officers	• irregular visits from District/Circuit Officers
Location	• predominantly in urban areas	• both urban and rural areas

Conclusion

The baseline study was able to ascertain what makes the difference in the management of the good schools and blameworthy schools. The study identified ten important determinants of effective school management. These are :

1. Instructional leadership skills of the school head
2. Time management
3. School vision and mission
4. Tradition of performance
5. Commitment and attachment to work of the school
6. Learning environment
7. Community value and support for education
8. Administrative support from the district office
9. School community relations
10 School location

Leadership of the Headteacher

The headteachers of the few good schools created a functional social system that promoted learning in the schools. Working with the teachers, the headteachers prepared strategies and activities for providing quality teaching and learning. The effective headteachers guided the teachers to understand and accept their roles. They demonstrated leadership qualities of creativity and innovativeness.

In the blameworthy schools, the headteachers were work-shy and showed virtually no initiative or drive. The teaching and learning process was ineffective due largely to the weak leadership behaviour of the headteachers.

The leadership behaviour of headteachers of our basic schools, therefore, has policy implication for the appointment of school head. Headteachers should :

- have the flair for administration
- be creative and innovative
- be trained to have confidence and authority to supervise the teachers and monitor progress of work in the classroom

Time Management in Basic Schools

Teachers, pupils and headteachers of good schools regard time as a resource and use it beneficially. Teaching hours are used to facilitate learning for the pupils. Teachers

give exercises, assignment and homework to the children. Teachers mark and grade the assignments and give feedback to the pupils.

With the consent of parents, teachers organize remedial and and extra teaching to improve learning in the school. The pupils develop learning skills which they use to advantage. Teachers' expectation of pupil performance is very high. All the role players in the school work diligently in order to achieve good results. Co-curricular activities are handled as learning activities and the pupils participate actively in the activities. The headteachers of good schools plan school timetable to take care of special problems in the community. In communities where children engage in economic activities on market days, for example, the headteachers allow classes to start at 7.00 a.m. and close at mid-day to enable the children to go to the market after classes. Similarly in fishing communities, schools could operate from 10.00 a.m. to 4.00 p.m. during fishing season

The school timetable could also be handled to reduce absenteeism among teachers and pupils. In few effectively managed schools, for example, when social functions require participation of teachers which may disrupt teaching activities, the headteachers allow one or two teachers to represent the school in the social activities.

School Vision and Mission

The tone of a well managed school easily indicates the established purpose of the school. The early headteachers of the few good primary schools established ultimate end for the schools to attain. Some schools have mission statements and the headteachers and staff adhere to the goals of the school.

The good schools work to attain the ultimate goal of excellence in learning achievements. There is a tradition of excellence in pupil and teacher accomplishments. This tradition is sustained from cohort to cohort and headteacher to headteacher. Teachers and pupils show commitment and attachment to the work of the school. However, in poorly managed schools the staff including the headteachers do not stand by any praiseworthy tradition. The schools seem to operate without any ultimate goal. The staff and pupils show virtually no commitment or interest in the work of the school

Learning Environment

The Praiseworthy schools maintain basic aesthetic standards in the school environment by :

- caring for the school compound, buildings and equipment

- planting and maintaining trees, flowers and lawns
- controlling soil erosion and flooding
- maintaining order in the arrangement of furniture and learning materials in classrooms
- observing personal hygiene among staff and pupils

The teachers work diligently and create stimulating learning situation for the pupils.

The poorly managed schools generally do not observe basic rules of environmental cleanliness. The teachers in these schools rarely make their lessons stimulating and interesting to pupils.

School Location and School Community Relations

The few effectively managed schools are in urban and district capitals.

The few effectively managed schools are in urban and district capitals.

These schools enjoy better administrative support from the district education office. Communities in the catchment of praiseworthy schools value education of their children and the staff of these schools receive support from the community.

The fruitful school community relations and the administrative support from the district office make teachers develop a strong feeling of attachment and commitment to the work of the schools.

The poorly managed schools are mostly in the rural and educationally underserved areas where community value for education is generally low. The schools enjoy very little administrative support from the district education office.

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ACADEMIC FREEDOM: RIGHTS, LIMITATIONS AND PRACTICAL VALUE

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ABSTRACT

The concept of academic freedom means different things to many and different people. Many people ountside the University view academic feedom with askance.

Even among those familiar with the University system, academic freedom is very little understood. Studies suggest that in the late 1970 and 1980's, academic feedom became synonymous with what has been referred to as "academic pomposity." These were periods of massive social and political changes especially in countries like Ghana, when both ordinary people and opinion leaders questioned the wheretofore of "ivory towereism" and "cosmopolitan professionalism." The latter expression seems to regard the university don as generally having only a marginal loyalty to his \ her organisation and nation as a whole. According to Warner and Palfreyman (1996, p. 92) members of cosmopolitan professionalism tend to align themselves with their peers within their discipline for the purpose of recognition and evaluation. As employees they demand high levels of autonomy and participation in their work and resent close supervision. In the strict sense of the word, collegiality may be likened to cosmopolitan professionalism.

The expressions ivory towerism and cosmopolitan professionalism tend to connote elements of exclusiveness, and seclusiveness from national and social interest.

But it is important to ask whether academic freedom should continue to be seen in these lights and whether such conception is defensible.

This paper seeks to explore the frontiers of academic freedom, its rights, limitations and practical value regarding it as both a concept and a phenomenon : concepts to the outsider and a phenomenon to the "practitioner" of academic freedom.

Concept of Academic Freedom

Unlike several other concepts, the definition of which may markedly vary from writer to writer and may, therefore, have as many definitions as there are writers, the concept of academic freedom enjoys a fairly uniform definition among writers. The International Encyclopedia of Higher Education, for example, defines academic freedom as

> the freedom of the teacher within his or her field of study. It is a safeguard that allows researchers and teachers in institutions of higher learning to pursue

> their work without the inhibition, prohibition or direction of political, ecclesiastical or other administrative authorities regardless of their personal philosophies, behaviour or life style (A. O. Lovejoy, 1972, p.24)

This definition is wide ranging and offers the academic staff what appears to be an unlimited scope of practice with even their life style beyond question by any authority, political or otherwise.

Professor Arthur O. Lovejoy in 1972 defined the concept further as the freedom of the individual academic member of staff to ; "investigate and discuss the problems of his science and to express his conclusion whether through publication or in instruction of students without interference" (A. O. Lovejoy, 1972, p.384)

This definition also sees non-interference in the pursuit of academic work as a cardinal landmark in the practice of academic freedom. In the International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences, the concept has also been defined as

> the freedom claimed by a college or university professor to write or speak the truth as he sees it without fear of dismissal by his academic superior or by authorities outside his college or university (D. L. Sills, 1998, p.4)

The pursuit of truth by the academic staff as he "sees it" is cardinal in this definition but the question of what is truth has remained a philosophical problem throughout the ages; at least Jesus Christ did not provide an answer wnen Pontius Pilate put the question to him or for one reason or the other was not allowed to provide it. To the Idealist, however, truth is not merely a creation of the individual or the society but it exists independent of man or of man's knowledge of it and can, therefore, be found. B.J. Rosen (1968, p.18). To the Realist, the problem of what is truth is resolved by its correspondence theory which in short states that a thing is true as it corresponds to the real world and that since knowledge is by definition correspondence it must be found (B. J. Rosen, 1968, p.18). Therefore in this definition it does not matter from which angle one perceives truth in so far as one considers it to be so and can defend it. This gives the academic an unlimited latitude to explore his or her field of knowledge to the limit of what he or she considers to be truth.

Professor R. F. Fuchs defines the concept as :

> that freedom of members of the academic community assembled in colleges and universities which underlies the effective performance of their functions of teaching, learning, practice of the arts and research (R. F. Fuchs, 1966, p.291).

This defintion appears to have very strong overtones of medieval university which was essentially a community of academics or association of academics free to practice their functions in a guild system.

In May 1988, the House of Lords passed the Academic Freedom Amendment to the British Government Education Reform Bill and placed the concept of academic freedom "within the law" of Great Britain defining it as :

> the freedom within the law to question and test received wisdom and to put forward new ideas and controversial or unpopular opinions without placing themselves in jeopardy or losing their jobs or privileges they may have at their institution (C. Russel, 1993, p.1)

This definition is similar to the one by the International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences in which dismissal or loss of one's job appears to be the main sanction which when imposed may be tantamount to the breach of academic freedom. Academic freedom may be breached when an academic member suffers demotion, withholding of merit of any kind such as censor or any other action taken either overtly or covertly against such a member, the underlying reason being that he or she has expressed an opinion or made a publication of something he or she perceives to be truth. Such imposition of sanction may not necessarily have to lead to a loss of job.

In another perspective, the Romanian Ministry of Education defines this concept as :

> freedom associated with teaching, learning and doing research and disseminating and expanding knowledge in conditions of self management and freedom from political, religious, ideological, or any other constraints exerted by the state or by the social or organisational forces ***outside the university*** (emphasis mine)

This definition links academic freedom intricately with autonomy of universities. In relation with the previous definitions just discussed, this definition is slightly different in that it sees the constraint on academic freedom as coming principally from outside the university. This may not necessarily be the case because the inhibition to academic freedom may even come from within the university itself. For instance, The Times Education Supplement of June 25, 1976 reports of a curious case in which the citizens of Cambridge in Massachusetts, U. S. A. became alarmed about the building of a research laboratory for advanced study into the generic structure of higher organisms by the Harvard University. The citizens feared that such a study may release what they referred to as uncontrollable genetic freaks into their midst with serious consequences. It turned out that the citizens' fears were actually being precipitated by a fellow academic in the biology department in this same university, a Nobel Prize winner in

Biology who was bitterly opposed to the study. The inhibition of academic freedom can even come from fellow academics within the same university. In any case it is plausible to suppose that such inhibition appears stronger if it comes from a political power. This outside force is also emphasised by Neave and Van Vught who in their book " Government and Higher Education Across Three Continents : The Wind of Change," consider the concept as :

> the freedom to pursue truth in one's teaching and research activities wherever it seems to lead without fear of punishment, or termination of employment for having offended some political religious or social orthodoxy (G. Heave & F. Vught, 1994)

The use of threat of loss of job is here again emphsised. Professor W. B. Harvey, a former Professor of Law in the University of Lagos, Nigeria, tends to support the ingredients in the above definitions thus :

> Academic Freedom does not exist where the actuality or the reasonable prospect of the imposition of any disadvantage or the withholding of any benefit serves to limit the teacher-scholar in his search for the truth or in his transmission of the fruits of that research to his students or the scholarly world (W. B. C. Harvey, 1977, p.1).

From the few examples cited above, it is clear that the concept of academic freedom has a uniformity of definition with an emphasis on one thing or the other according to a writer's view. The grain which runs throughout the definition is that the university professor or teacher should be able and free to explore the frontiers of knowledge the way he or she sees it without fear of interference or coercion from a body outside or inside the university.

As some of the definitions alluded to,the autonomy of the university appears to be the platform on which the successful practice of academic freedom can take place. The two concepts have, therefore tended to go together and one can hardly discuss the concept of academic freedom without making reference to university autonomy ; the latter from an institutional point of view and the former from an individual or collective point of view. It would seem, however,that the autonomy of a university may not necessarily guarantee an academic freedom for the individual member of staff within the university. In this regard, I think that the concept of academic freedom may have to have an element of reasonableness ; that within certain limits the academic member of staff will have a freedom of practice. The limitations placed on the concept of academic freedom as will be explored later seems to support this. In fact no freedom is a blanket one. In the light of this I consider the defitition offered by the New Encyclopedia Britannica of 1987 as the most comprehensive ;

> the freedom of teachers and students to teach, study and pursue knowledge and research ***without unreasonable*** interference or restriction from institutional regulation or public pressure. Its basic element includes the freedom of teachers to enquire into any subject that evokes their intellectual concern ; to present their findings to their students, colleagues and others ; to publish their data and conclusions without control or censorship ; to teach in a ***manner*** they consider professionally appropriate and act in their private lives with all the rights and liberties enjoyed by all citizens (R. Mchenry 1987, p. 50) (emphasis are mine)

The importance of the emphasis will be noted very shortly. In another very interesting way Graeme C. Moodie writing of the University of South Africa gives a definition in what appears to be a strong reflection of the political situation in the then Apartheid Regime. In an article, "The State and the Liberal Universities in South Africa - 1948 - 1990," published in the International Journal of `Higher Education and Education Planning vol 27 of 1994, he writes that academic freedom is ;

> The freedom of academic staff and students to pursue their academic work within, for most part, only those restraints imposed by the nature of that work and available resources (G. C. Moodie 1994, p.13).

To some extent the fact that academic freedom is restricted by the type of work and its impact on the society as indicated in the Harvard experiment is highlighted in Moodies ' definition. A careful analysis of his work however appears to show some kind of support for the Apartheid system. At a time when several university professors were either incarcerated or banished for speaking their minds on issues in several dimensions Moodie concluded his work by stating that academic freedom was well preserved by that regime.

Rights and Limitations

Universities exist to principally explore and expand the frontiers of knowledge so that this knowledge can ultimately be used for the good of mankind or for the exercise of the mind. To perform these functions the university undertakes research and indeed almost all scientific and other feats have been achieved on university campuses. Research involves the pursuit of truly new knowledge through hypothesis testing and validation to that level of strong probability which seems to be the practical limit of the human mind (Harvey, 1977, p. 7). If universities exist to expand the frontiers of knowledge then they and their staff must be free and therefore have the right to exercise this function for knowledge as the Encyclopedia Britannica admits, is best advanced when enquiry is free from restraints by the state, by the church or other institutions or by social interest groups.

Universities and their staff must also within the limits of the autonomy have the right to plan their own teaching programmes, admit students they consider qualified for admission and manage their own affairs to the limit of their ability and resources if they are to perform their functions adequately. This right is necessary because without it a university does not exist.

It is also the right of universities and their staff to question existing knowledge or ideas whether these ideas are from their own colleagues or from other authoritative sources for it is only through this that knowledge can grow and expand. Without the right to expand knowledge there can be no progress. In his address at the formal opening of the University of Ghana, Legon, Kwame Nkrumah laid a stone to academic freedom :

> Scholars must be free to pursue the truth and to publish the result of their researches without fear, for true scholarship fears nothing. It can even challenge the dead learning which has come to us from the cloistral and monastic schools of the middle ages (W.B.C. Harvey, 1977)

Learning challenges existing knowledge and it is the university's right to ensure that such learning takes place. I also think it is the university's right to advise governments on direction and implication of certain political and economic issues affecting the welfare of the state. However, I make this observation with a great deal of reservation unmindful of the fact that in many placese specially in the developing world some regimes may not take such suggestions kindly and may regard them as attempts to make their governments unpopular. In some cases academics themselves may abuse this right and make "tenacious statements which have no bearings" on their rights.

On matters of political expediency, therefore, the academic has to be wary of how he or she speaks. It is the responsibility of the universities to ensure that their knowledge is placed at the disposal of the people.

The right to teach, research, question received knowledge, expand the frontiers of knowledge and to govern autonomously has its limitations. The precise boundaries of such limitations are however, difficult to draw. One limitation is that the university and its staff may comment freely on the mater or substance of a situation but should be very cautious on the manner of expression. The right to teach imposes a limitation to the extent that the teacher should be careful not to introduce into his teaching matters which have no bearing on the subject and unnecessarily stray into controversial or private issues. The American Assocaition of University Professors (AAUP) defined this kind of limitation when it said, among other things that ;

> The teacher is entitled to freedom in the classroom in discussing

> his subject but he should be careful not to introduce into his teaching controversial matter which has no relation to his subject (W.B.C. Harvey, 1977).

If a university or its staff makes statements about someone's private life and those statements are considered by the individual to be scandalous or if any writing about him or her is considered libellous, the individual can bring action in the courts of law. Libel, as the law says, is actionable without proof of damage. Before the law academic freedom is limited in that sense. The university or its staff cannot, therefore, hide behind the cloak of academic freedom to malign the state or bring anyone's private life into disrepute. Again, I think that if a research being carried out by a university can be shown to be detrimental, as was the case with the Harvard proposed experiment, academic freedom may not allow this detriment.

Financial stringency and the need by universities everywhere to explore other sources of funding to supplement dwindling state funds to them are, in a way, limiting university autonomy and academic freedom. Governments in many cases are now dictating to universities what should be taught, what kind of research will receive state support and what kind of subject areas students admission should give priority to. This situation is as common in the United Kingdom as it is in Ghana. A former Secretary of Education for England, Lord Eccles, is reported to have said ;

> the taxpayer pays such a large part of the university's income ; and therefore we should be able to say to them from time to time, will you please study this particular subject because it is in the national interest you should (C. Russel, 1993, p.54)

The Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) sets boundaries for student numbers. For the period 1997 - 98 for instance, the Council directed that student numbers in English Universities correspond to what it calls a constant participation rate of 30 %. The Council is also to control the number of student award holders through the setting of Maximum Aggregate Student Numbers (MASN) and universities which exceed such numbers by 1 % are penalised. In Ghana government directs that the universities should achieve a projected annual growth rate of about 30 % for the period 1987 to 1997. All this growth rate is to be achieved without corresponding increase in funding from the government. The issue I wish to raise by these facts is that even though universities can determine what they want to teach and what number of students to admit, their direction is now beimg influenced or even determined by governments. Even before such situtations became acute, Professor Harvey, speaking on the limitation, said ;

> If university autonomy as a component of academic freedom means that the members of the university community alone should enjoy the prerogative of defining the university's programmes and shaping its mission that principle will be severely challenged in post-independence Africa (W.B. C. Harvey, 1977).

Politically, too, limitations may be drawn. Academic freedom will not allow advocacy of a teahcer's political or religious stand on his or her students;

> ... academic freedom is committed to the protection of the circulation, exploration and advancement of ideas but not of any excessive mode of advocating them (A. O. Lovejoy, 1972, p.25).

As a result a Political Science teacher or any other teacher who is a protagonist of say Marxism cannot seek to convert his students or coerce them to become Marxists, neither can a Christian or Buddhist lecturer seek to covertly make his or her students accept his or her faith. Lines should carefully be drawn on such grounds, if and when the teacher is in the classroom. Outside the classroom and as a citizen the teacher is free to practise his religious or political persuation ; he may even be the High Priest of his religious denomination. The university classroom cannot also be the ground for the practice of political parties. The university can teach politics as a subject but not as a protagonist.

> Politics can be a subject for analysis in university activity but not as one for practice. The university and its body of scholars in their capacity as the teaching staff cannot take a political stand [as] partisan value judgements prevent lucid reasoning (and) gradual accumulation of truth and critical stance (Ministry of Education and Culture (1988, p.4)

The university has the right to "think the unthinkable ' but its right to a collective political stance is very much limited though its staff in their own rights as individuals can belong to political parties or even stand for political positions. My view in this regard is that whenever an academic member of staff is offered a political appointment he or she must resign his or her position as a university teacher and not combine the two. The reason is not far fetched.

In the United States where perhaps the most extensive literature on academic freedom exists the American Association of University Professors makes it abundantly clear that the asserted freedom is not a licence. Professor Harvey also cautions :

> the effective protection of academic freedom does not mean that the teacher-scholar is free of all constraints, has no duties correlative to his right to freedom or is totally free of the possibility of sanctions (W. B. C. Harvey, 1977).

The university and its staff, says Bereday, ought to follow Matthew Arnold in believing that freedom to speak also means freedom to have not only the right to say what one thinks, but also the duty to keep silent unless one has something worthy to say (Bereday, 1973, p. 137). The university and its staff can face sanctions as any other person for "adequate cause," a legal term not easily explained but has arms long enough to be stretched by the state against any individual who steps or is considered to have stepped beyond the boundaries of the law of the land.

The teacher or scholar cannot wilfully perpetrate an error for the sake of academic freedom. This does not imply that the academic is infallible or cannot commit an error. Often further research into a previous finding may reveal and error or inconsistency. The man who considered the shape of the world to be flat was not untruthful because to the best of his knowledge and the limit of the technology at that time his discovery was considered to be true. Further research revealed that this was not the case. What is objectionable and places a limitation on academic freedom is a wilful perpetration of what one knows to be an error.

Another limitation on the practice of academic freedom is the issue of plagiarism. This freedom will not allow the scholar to lift or reproduce what someone else has written and claim ownership for it. This, as Russel puts it, is not academic freedom but theft. Such an action can be challenged in a court of law under the copyright or intellectual property law. It can also be challenged at what Russel further calls the bar of academic freedom. Reasonable limitation of academic freedom must be placed here. Again the freedom allows one to make an objective critism of someone else's work but not to condemn it.

In theory, academic freedom allows freedom of speech but not incitement. An academic for instance, can say that the politicians of a country are corrupt but not to incite the public against them or to seek to cause an overthrow of the government. This however is debatable. The university and its academic staff are also accountable to the state and therefore academic freedom or institutional autonomy will not permit frivolous dissipation of resources. Accountability in the use of resources of the state also places a great deal of reasonable limitation on academic freedom.

Practical Values

From the definitions above, the concept of academic freedom has an advantage of providing a safeguard for researchers and teachers to carry on their work without fear and with an open mind. It therefore allows room for scientific enquiry and investigation independent of biases and personal or individual judgements.

Again the concept hedges the academic profession from unnecessary state or outside influence in a similar way as the independence of the judiciary. The independent judiciary in Britain was able to place an injunction on the broadcast by the BBC of Prime Minister John Major's interview to Scotland on 6th April, 1975. In a similar way academic freedom has the advantage of assuring the academic staff that he or she can examine, advance or challenge dogmas and received opinions in the interest of advancing knowledge.

It is also academic freedom and institutional autonomy that mark out the university as an entity. A true university makes its own laws to govern itself, plans its own method of teaching, its own time-table and decides which students are qualified for admission into it. The government may lay down priority areas or subjects to be funded but it is the university which decides whether candidate "A" who has priority over candidate "B" to pursue a course in Agricultural Engineering has the requisite qualification to pursue that course. Institutional autonomy and academic freedom do not or should not allow an outside body to dictate to the university what qualification it should use to admit its students. This advantage has the obligation that the university's admission rules should be fair, firm and transparent without discrimination on the grounds of race, religion or social standing of candidates.

Academic freedom also has the advantage of security of tenure. Even though to a large extent this is controversial in many Universities and the issue is a under debate. There is the assurance that the academic cannot be dismissed by one's whims and caprices without recourse to the processes of law. In some professions such as accounting the prospect of loss of job or clientele or patronage may provide strong incentives for practitioners of that profession to avoid offence (Harvey, 1977, p. 18) or even fear of making a mistake.

Academic freedom shields the academic staff from that patronage and fear of loss of job or clientele. Harvey confirms that the proper advantage of protection of academic freedom is concerned with the security of tenure. Russel also shows that the training of the academic makes them more likely that if they later become civil servants, for example, to have the intellectual capacity and discipline to tell the Minister of State that what he wants or she wants to do cannot be done (Russel, 1993, p. 27). According to Russel this is why it is necessary to have civil servants whom the minister believes capable of not telling a thing unless he believes it to be true.

To me this is not to say that there cannot be academics in governments who are stooges or who fear to speak the truth for fear of losing their job. The underlying advantage is that the freedom to pursue knowledge prepares an academic to be truthful.

In the 13th century Godfrey of Fontaines, a member of the Faculty of Theology in the University of Paris remarked :

> to bind men to an opinion on questions on which there may be a diversity of views without danger to faith would impede the pursuit of truth. Since the conflict of opinion among learned men would stimulate discussion, the truth would be discovered more easily if men were left free to seek through discussion not what is more pleasing but what agrees with right reason. (W. B. C. Harvey, 1977, p.18).

The systematic quest for the truth should have the concomitant advantage of leaving the academic with the love for nothing but the truth.

Academic freedom, to a very large extent, makes the academic resilient, courageous and astute. Says Bereday:

> Universities in country after country are realising that the true meaning of academic freedom lies not in avoiding pressure but in defying it when it comes. The strength of a freeman is to challenge enquiry and criticism, not to shudder before it (G. Z. Bereday, 1978, p.25).

Another advantage of academic freedom is that by their training, academics are able to tolerate errors and criticism. To be an academic is to tolerate all seeming errors, for what is true is never fully knowable (Hofstadter and Metzer, 1955, p.364). One other strong advantage of academic freedom is what Hofstadter and Metzer refer to as " the merit of universalism " which they define as the elimination of particularistic criteria - creedal, racial, or national - in judging the merits of a work and the elimination of unearned advantage - connections, rank and caste in considering the merits of a man. The obligation here is obvious.

Academic freedom also places on its practitioner the virtue of respect for one's self and respect for others and their views. Such virtues have been mentioned by the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) as important landmarks in the life of the academic in the following statement :

> When he speaks or writes as a citizen he [she] should be free from institutional censorship or discipline but his [her] special position in the community imposes special obligations ... as education officer ... he [she] should at all times be accurate, should exercise appropriate restraint, should show respect for the opinion of others and should make every effort to indicate that he is not an institutional spokesman. (R. Hofstadter & W. Metger, *1955, p. 31).*

Unfortunately, in many cases, the academic has been accused of what has been called ' intellectual arrogance '. Bereday admits that :

> intellectual arrogance is the cause of a steady murmur that the universities do not live up to their mission, that they have tried to offer leadership instead of guidance, dictation instead of inspiration, doctrinaire certitude and sarcasm instead of scholarly humility and caution (G. F. Bereday, 1978, p. 135).

The academic should, therefore,be able to draw very careful boundaries between what are decorum and societal norms and the negative contrasts indicated by Professor Bereday above. This is a great obligation.

It is important , however, to remark that these merits may not automatically remove from the individual academic staff his or her innate tendencies and idiosyncrasies which are sometimes also influenced by the individual's social or cultural inclinations. With all its limitations the concept of academic freedom, in fact, is the orthodox cornerstone of the life of the university (Bereday, 1978, p. 137). This has tended to confer on universities and their staff special privileges and respect. Academic Freedom, also, has the obligation for service to the community, as Maclver puts it :

> ... the reason he belongs to the guild of educators, the reason he has a place in an institution of higher learning is that he is first and foremost engaged in the pursuit and communication of knowledge. This function is a community service .... The service of the educator is not a service to his students alone or to his institution or to his profession. It is a service to his country. A service to civilisation, a service to mankind. The fulfillment of this incalculable service depends on the healthful maintenance of the freedom of the scholar.

Conclusion

Academic freedom which is the freedom of the academic staff in a university to explore the frontiers of knowledge is an inalienable right but invariably, like all rights has some limitations. The concept is a time-tested one which has been fought for centruries. It is however, by no means a license. The academic staff in carrying out his function must be subject to the laws of the land. The concept has several advantages, among them an assurance of security of tenure. It is this concept that marks out a university from other institutions and without it knowledge can hardly advance. It is freedom which cannot therefore be sacrificed by the university, though economic trends appear to place it in some kind of a shaky balance as governments, in trying to

meet the harsh realities of the day continue overtly or covertly to dry out this freedom. Industries are also increasingly dictating their subject areas and universities in their bid to survive continue to subordinate some of the freedom to industries in particular lines of research suitable to these industries. The almost inevitable trend to treat education as amarket commodity and the concomitant resort to other models of management in market economies in a way appear to take off some of the privileges of academic freedom. These, however, should not throw academics into frenzy to sell that freedom but as we roll into the 21st century universities should carefully weigh the merits of the concept and see where they need to strenghen their positions to maintain their freedom, and to place knowledge at the disposal of development.

I should like to conclude this essay with the following quotation from an article by W. Wallace, one time the President of the Association of University Teachers in England, published in the *Times Higher Education Supplement of December 13, 1974.* The title of the article is " Inflation is the Threat to Academic Freedom. "

> Academics in the 1960s enjoyed a freedom of teaching that will never recur. That can be acceptable but university teachers will have to watch with extraodinary care that the economics of inflation and the cumbersome procedures of manpower planning that may accompany them do not curtail their right and ability to vary their teaching to meet the needs which their professional expertise tells them should be met. ... The swing now from never so good to ever worse carries a threat not only to these services [teaching and research] but also to important aspects of academic freedom (W. Wallace, 1974).

Academic freedom has been won after centuries of struggle since the day Socrates was accused of having corrupted the youth of Athens, to Galileo, and " from Galileo to those who refused to teach Lysenko's genetics or Hitler's theories of race ... " and therefore, that freedom must be defended, but not at the cost of the society's well being and institutional advancement in the changing university environment.

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IMPROVING MANAGEMENT OF TEACHING SPACES IN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS : THE WINNEBA MODEL

S. O. Owolabi

ABSTRACT

As enrolments keep expanding in tertiary institutions teaching spaces become a scare commodity. This is often so because expansion in teaching and laboratory spaces are not keeping pace with expansion in student enrolments. Efficiency in the management of available teaching spaces becomes the watch word for institutions seeking to expand student intake.

The University College of Education of Winneba which first grew out of three diploma awarding institutions had to accommodate a larger student number in its apparently overused teaching spaces in the first semester of 1992 / 93 session.

The use made of teaching spaces hitherto, was assessed ex post facto. A central timetable, in which all teaching spaces on the three campuses were pooled for shared use by all students was then launched. The existing teaching spaces were not only sufficient but had rooms to spare for new programme of distant education and for residential accommodation. The use of the remaining rooms restricted to teaching (and which could accommodate more classes) were then re-assessed in March 1993, and the utilization rate increased from 25.4 % to 38.9 %. The installation of the central timetable on the campuses unlocked the golden gate for enrolment expansion at Winneba.

Introduction

This is a period of declining economic fortunes in the different regions of the world in general and in Africa in particular. Most African governments are consequently facing financial crisis in the management of tertiary education. The solution to the problem of tertiary education financing appears to lie in :

* Finding alternative modes of financing tertiary education.

* Promoting efficiency and cost effectiveness in the management of educational resources.

This is the report of the research study conducted into a way of promoting efficiency and minimizing cost of tertiary education in Africa. The study was made possible by the appointment of the author by the Commonwealth Secretariat as a consultant on space management to the ministry of education, Ghana, for the country's education reform programme.

For lack of statistical data planning departments of most African universities manifest little or no finesse in dealing

with the problem of how to manage teaching spaces The Association of African Universities conducted a study in 1991 and enumerated the obstacles to using space efficiently. In African universities rooms are allocated to faculties and departments sometimes on a permanent basis, and regardless of disparities and misfits in room sizes and class sizes faculties schedule classes within their confines for their rooms. Data are not kept on space utilization, and the use made of teaching spaces is hardly ever assessed. Sanyal (1994, p.11) concluded that planning of space utilization in the region seems to require some improvement.

Prior to the establishment of the new University College of Education of Winneba in Ghana, there were three diploma awarding institutions in the town. These were : The Advanced Teacher Training College, (ATTC), the National Academy of Music (NAM) and the Specialist Training College (STC). The teaching rooms on the campuses of ATTC and NAM, which operated departmentalized time tables were perceived to be over utilized as they were often congested and overcrowded (Owolabi, 1993 a). A student had to come early into a room to get a seat. Expansion in enrolment had to be kept in check and the Ghana Education Service embarked on the building of a new science block at ATTC and a new campus for NAM. The building projects progressed very slowly for insufficiency of funds. Then the three institutions were suddenly upgraded into a university college status and the intervention design on better management of teaching spaces had to be introduced. In the main it consists of a simple way of generating and storing statistical data on time table inputs (number of courses, class sizes, number of work stations in each room, teaching time, etc.)and devices a mangement technique for optimizing the utilization of teaching spaces.

The Mechanics of Assessing Space Utilization

Teaching spaces in educational institutions are being expanded everywhere, every year. The world devoted about $ 20 billion to expand teaching spaces in schools in 1970 (Hallak, 1977, p. 12). The amount has increased enormously in recent years and it is still on the increase. But resources can be unnecessarily committed to putting up more buildings in tertiary institutions when the existing ones have not been put into maximum use. If we were to invest more in building than there is the need to produce a given output the likely waste would imply that we were providing less satisfaction for a given amount of cedis invested in tertiary education. To know if there is any need for additional building and to know how serious the need may be the utilization of the existing buildings both in space and in time should always be diagnosed. The diagnosis is also necessary for the assessment and priority ranking of needs in the various institutions under the

management of an agency. The efficiency of school plant utilization depends largely upon the degree to which the various rooms can be used during all the hours of the day (Stoops,Rafferty and Johnson, 1995, p. 222).

There are two dimensions to teaching space utilization. The first is the frequency of use factor. Here, the percentage of time for which a teaching space is put into use is considered. This is the time utilization of rooms. The goal of good resource management is to maximize the efficiency of the use made of the resources provided. Over time buildings get damaged not only because they are put into use by human beings but also because cracks are created by expansion and contraction during temperature changes ; rusts and decay are brought in by corrosion and oxidation ; wall bases are dug by erosion, etc. Agents of weathering are more active in humid areas where lizards, spiders, rats and birds take possession of unused rooms. This is to say that buildings are used up by time as well as by man. This is a paradox of space resource utilization. Because unused buildings depreciate relatively fast in hot climatic zones the proportion of working hours for which a room is put into use in Africa becomes more important for efficiency considerations. The institution that has more programmes and/or more classes are likely to have a greater frequency of use of their rooms (Owolabi, 1993 b).

The second dimension to room utilization relates to mapping of groups and rooms. This is the dimension that considers the proportion of room space put into use. The occupancy factor takes into consideration the number of students using a teaching space in relation to the number of work stations in the teaching space. A room designed to accommodate 40 students but used by 4 will have a poor occupancy rate. The facilities in the room (electric light, air conditioner, projector, chalkboard equipments and any other audio-visual) vary very slightly, if at all, with the size of the audience. The more the number of students in a room the greater the space utilization will be (Owolabi, 1993 b). There is however a turning point when a class size much larger than the capacity of a room space, as in period 2 in room LGL 18 below, will tend to accelerate the rate of equipment deterioration.

Statistical means have been devised to quantify time and space utilization of teaching spaces. Time utilization of teaching spaces in tertiary institutions is measured in hours. In most African universities the spaces are available for 12 hours in a day. If a room is used for 9 hours a day, as for LGL 18 below (see p. 39), the time utilization rate is

$$\frac{9}{12} \times \frac{1}{100} = 75\%$$

Space utilization of room spaces (occupancy factor) is measured by the number of students occupying the room

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space. If 41 students are in a room with latent capacity for accomodating 90 students, the space utilization rate (occupancy rate) is

$$\frac{41}{90} \times \frac{100}{1} = 45.6\%$$

It is possible to synthesize the two parameters and come up with a global utilization rate that puts time and space into consideration. The global utilization of college rooms is measured in student-hours. If 41 students use a room for 9 hours in a day, we have 41 x 9 student-hours of use. But the room can seat 90 students for 12 hours, providing 90 x 12 student-hours. If we compare the real utilization with the potential utilization and express it in percentage we will have

$$\frac{41}{90} \times \frac{9}{12} \times \frac{100}{} = 34.2\%$$

But the size of classes occupying teaching spaces in tertiary institutions vary from hour to hour, as we have for LGL 18 below. Instead of multiplying 9 hours of use by a constant size of 41 students, we add up the number of students in all the 9 classes (giving 417 student-hours) and compare the sum with the theoretically possible number of student-hours. That is 417 compared to 90 x 12, for room LGL 18. Global utilization rate of LGL 18 would therefore be

$$\frac{417}{1080} \times \frac{100}{1} = 38.6\%$$

We can compute the utilization rate of all the rooms in a faculty or in the whole institution for a day by adding up all the student numbers in each teaching space for all the hours of the day and all the days of the week and base the grand total on the grand total of theoretical student-hours for the whole institution and convert to percentage. For the Faculty of Arts rooms below we have 492 student-hours (by adding up all the numbers in the cells) for Monday. But 158 x 12 student-hours of use is theretically possible. Therefore utilization rate of all the rooms in the Faculty of Arts for Monday =

$$\frac{492}{1896} \quad \frac{1}{100} = 26\%$$

A computerised data system showing the numbers in class per each of the course taught in each room each period in the week facilitates the storing of data for assessing utilization of teaching spaces. Such assessment should be carried out before new teaching spaces are constructed.

Table 1
Space Utilization in the University of Ghana 1993

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, SPACE UTILIZATION SYSTEM, 1992/93

Name of Faculty **Arts**	*Day of Week* **Monday**	*Student-Hours* **492**	*Possible St. Hours* **1896**	*Uti - Rate* **26.00%**

PERIODS

Room Code	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	RM -Size
LGL 18	41	131	62	13		8	50	44	44			24	90
LGSEM		7						14	16				20
SRR8									5				6
SRR 9		2											6
SRR11				12									6
CCLR		11	1	7									30
TOTAL	41	151	63	32	0	8	50	63	60	0	0	42	158

Conceptual Model for Central Timetabling

Timetabling is a decision support task that assists in no small measure, the process of managing teaching spaces in tertiary institutions to achieve educational objectives. The time-table is the list which makes a conspicuous display of time and places for course works and helps to organize institutional activities in a manner that ensures economy in the use of time and space. The author's approach to the task of central timetabling was based on principle of efficiency in the utilization of scarce resources. Efficiency is the optimal relation between inputs and outputs. An activity is being performed efficiently if a given quantity of output is obtained with minimum inputs or if a given quantity of inputs is able to yield maximum outputs. The inputs of the timetable sub-system are transformed into outputs with a view to obtaining as much teaching as possible and at minimum cost. For example, each of the ten former departments at Winneba was offering education as a course. The education classes used to occupy ten rooms at ten different periods with ten teachers. When the central timetable was installed the ten classes were combined and taught in two large lecture theaters (Assembly halls). There was savings in the use of space and time.

There are two broad groups of tangible inputs into the timetable sub-system : Teaching space (classes) and teaching time (teachers). (See the side boxes in figure 1 below). The other inputs - semester courses, requirements and requests, class sizes, operating hours, distance between rooms, et cet-era (see boxes above and below in figure 1) are merely symbolic. But these symbolic inputs greatly influence the allocation of time and space on the timetable. Utilization of teaching spaces and teachers' time are harmonized in the schedule for course work. Efficiency exists in a continuum, ranging from low to high. Efficiency of teaching time and teaching space range from low to high (see figure 1). There is a direct relationship between the efficiency of the timetable and the efficiency in the use of teaching space and teaching time. Where the timetables are of low quality (departmentalized, unco-ordinated and with several mismatches in room sizes and class sizes) the utilization rates of space and time will be low. The converse is also true. There is however an inverse relationship between efficiency of the timetable and unit cost of education. Where a good timetable leads to efficiency in the use of teaching resources the unit cost of education will tend to fall. Thus, good timetabling can, in the long run increase the efficiency in the use of teahcing spaces and bring down the unit cost of edcuation in tertiary institutions.

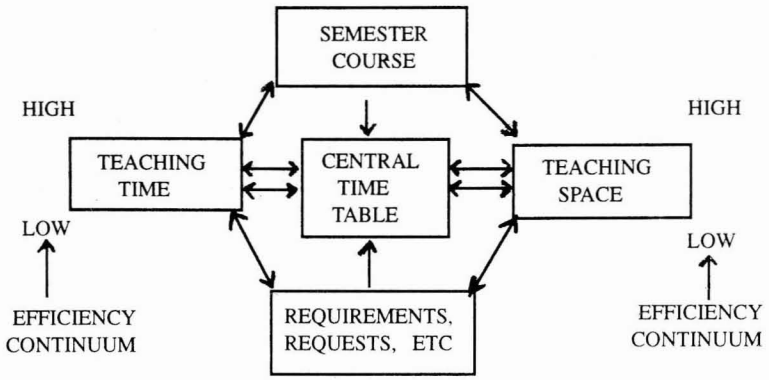

Figure 1 Conceptual Model for Central Timetabling

Source Owolabi S. O. *(1993 a), Utilization of Teaching Spaces and Teaching Time at UCEW, Report No. 1,* Accra : Ministry of Education

Method

The study is anchored on the hypothesis that shared use of teaching spaces can lead to a greater economy in the financial management of the University College of Education of Winneba. An assessment of teaching space utilization was first carried out to determine whether there was any need for additional building spaces for the new university college, and to provide a bench mark against which to measure achievements in any intervention design. The global utilization rate of the teaching spaces on the three campuses was 25.4%. It became clear that there was no need for additional teaching spaces as at the time. What was required was the renovation of the old buildings with many cracks and leaking roofs.

Then all the teaching spaces were centrally pooled and coded. The campuses were renamed by the researcher and a new central timetable that would accommodate a greater number of programmes and of students, and use the teaching spaces more efficiently was designed and installed. Using a time tabling software (Gruber and Peters gp -Untis) when computers were made available

later, the timetabling processes were much facilitated by computerization.

Results

The researcher did not have to make use of all the existing teaching spaces for a centralized timetable. Some rooms were converted to other uses - the badly needed residential accommodation and a programme of distant education. Two other departments were brought in. Despite the reduced teaching spaces and increased number of departments the central time table accommodated all lecture schedules without a single clash. The student number rose significantly and the utilization rate of teaching spaces increased except for the Art studios (student intakes were reduced in this dept. by government's policy). There was room for further expansion of programmes and student enrollment. Residential accommodation was then the only limiting factor.

Table 2
Space Utilization before and after the introduction of central timetable at UCEW

	CONTROLLED STAGE	EXPERIMENTAL STAGE
Number of Work stations	1,584	1,381
Total Student Enrolment	1,300	1,889
Total Number of Teachers	129	113
Total Number of Depts	10	12
Hours of classroom use/day	12	12
Global Utilization Rates :		
of classrooms	27.5%	40.0%
of Science Laboratories	22.5%	43.3%
of Home Science Workshops	27.4%	33.0%
of Art Studios	8.8%	8.0%
Utilization rate of all spaces	25.4%	38.9%

Sources : Culled from : Owolabi S. O. (1993a) *Utilization of Teaching Spaces and Teaching Time at UCEW, Report No. 1*. Accra Ministry of Education,

Owolabi, S. O. (1995) A Case Study on Space Management in the University of Ghana. In Sanyal, B. C. et al, *Institutional Management in Higher Education in Western Africa*, Paris : UNESCO, IIEP.

Discussions and Conclusion

Utilization rates of space were low at the controlled stage. The space facilities were then pooled for shared use and a central timetable was installed. Utilization rates improved significantly. By industrial standards utilization of teaching spaces are grossly inadequate. As an example, a fully developed factory will use its plant 24 hours a day 6 days a week and in 12 months of the year. (Stoops E. et al 1975). The use of teaching spaces in tertiary institutions cannot go up anywhere near this potential for obvious reasons :

Specialized rooms have to be prepared for the incoming classes. Laboratories, workshops and studios have to be re-set for new classes. The size of the different classes using a teaching space vary. Both teachers and students need some interlude of rest in the middle of prolong academic work. The "California model" of teaching space utilization stipulates that a university teaching space can be engaged four-fifths of the working day, and two-thirds of the work stations could be occupied on the average. This would give a global untilization rate of 53.3%. One can conclude from this model that campus teaching spaces with utilization rate of less than 50% are underutilized. The goal should be to get near the 50% utilization rate before considering extension of classrooms. This does not however preclude the need to construct a few large lecture theaters for very large classes to save teaching time costs.

Officers in charge of space utilization need to provide input data for central timetabling and provide periodic reports on :

- Condition of teaching space facilities
- social norms for teaching spaces
- number of work stations in each teaching space
- rate of teaching space utilization

These will point out when there is a need for room or building extension or when existing teaching spaces simply require renovation. By so doing building costs can be minimized and greater efficiency in the financial management of tertiary institutions can be achieved.

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PRINCIPAL AND TEACER PERSPECTIVES ON SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

Larry Sackney, Keith Walker and Vivian Hajnal

ABSTRACT

This article describes teachers' and principals' perceptions of successful and unsuccessful institutionalization of school improvement initiatives. Data from iterviews with 12 principals and 200 teachers suggest that differences in school structures, decision making, relationships within schools and community school connections are related to the success or failure of improvement initiatives. These differences may provide predictive attributes for those characteristics of staff and administration necessary for the successful implementation and institutionalization of school improvement, as well as overall school effectiveness.

Introduction

During the past two decades, we have learned a great deal about teacher effects, school effects, leadership effects, change and restructuring. This knowledge base has provided the impetus for numerous school improvement programs. Early attempts at school improvement were informed by the "effective schools research " (e.g., Edmonds, 1979 ; Rutter, et al., 1979) ; numerous correlates of effectiveness were identified and used as a basis for these initiatives. More recent research has focused on context sensitivity, issues of leadership, parental involvement, cumulative resources, and multilevel effects (Wimpelberg et al., 1989 ; Sackney, 1991). Many of these correlates have been adopted as the generic set for school enhancement efforts. The Saskatchewan School Improvement Program (SSIP) was a larger-scale, multiple-school initiative focusing on collaborative problem-solving ; effective leadership ; developing a vision and a school mission; setting clear goals and priorities ; establishing an orderly and pleasant climate ; quality instruction ; organizing and aligning the curriculum; planning school-based staff development ; monitoring and evaluating priorities, programs, and personnel ; and getting parents and the community involved in school activities.

The difficulty with such school improvement initiatives has been with implementing and institutionalizing of the changes. Fullan (1991) concluded

that the reasons for unsuccessful institutionalization were largely the same as those for unsuccessful implementation. Eastwood and Louis (1992) concurred, noting that there was tendency for change initiatives to stall because of increased resistance from individual users. Miles and Louis (1987) found that the determinants of institutionalization were characteristics of the change, the internal context, and the process. They also noted that leadership was a crucial factor in any successful institutionalization.

Purpose of the Study

The research elaborates on the key features of success and failure of school improvement initiatives from the perspective of leadership roles and teacher behaviour. Our overall aim was to address how well improvement initiatives have taken hold, what aspects of the SSIP model have worked, and what we have learned from it. We were particularly interested in the functions and behaviours of school-based administrators and teachers in those intitiatives that have become institutionalized , that is, the practices that have been incorporated into the culture of the school as a means by which the school solves problems and challenges itself.

The focus of this article is directed to the " mental models " of school-based administrators and teachers , that is, the self-perceptions of school principals and teachers concerning who they are, how they ought to function, and what they do, given their specifc school contexts.

We see these individual " leader " and staff role conceptions, among others, becoming embedded in the organization's world view (Kim, 1993, p. 44).

The Importance of Principal and Teacher Perspectives

Current views of change argue for a wider distribution of leadership opportunities and functions among stakeholders (Sergiovanni, 1994). Fullan (1993) contended that, for the individual, there is a "strange partnership of moral purpose and change agentry " that leads to our understanding of change. Change agentry is the companion to moral purpose. This significant shift in the way change is viewed may be characterized by its emphasis on the individual as a unit-agent of change; it does not limit its focus to an aggregate of persons in the organization (Sackney, et al., 1995). Shakotko (1995) found that where administrators were perceived to be coercive, cautious, or ambivalent toward change, teachers tended to exhibit uncertainty, resistance, passivity, and resignation. On the other hand, where administrators offered " optimism, enthusiastic support, and an empowerment of educators to risk and take an active role in the decision-making process, " the change agentry status of

teachers was supported and confidently pursued (p. 118).

The role of the principal and central office administrators has received considerable attention in the processes of change. Louis and Miles (1990) found that, no matter how competent the staff, schools with ineffective principals were unlikely to be exciting places. Schein (1992) claimed that, although many leaders find self-reflective analysis threatening, " organizational learning is not possible unless some learning first takes place in the executive subculture " (p. 50).

Schools can no longer rely on bureaucratic methods to solve their problems. Trust and competence are increasingly necessary for the redefined roles within the school (Fish, 1994). Smylie (1992), for example, found that teachers were more willing to participate in the process of change if their relationships with administrators were open, collaborative, and supportive. Conversely, they were less willing to participate if the relationship was closed, exclusionary and controlling. Leithwood (1992) and others have used the metaphor "transformational leadership " to characterize the kind of direction required in a collaborative culture. Fullan (1992) suggested that, for principals to build collaborative cultures, they must foster collegiality and communication ; they must encourage vision building, norms of continuous improvement, conflict resolution skills and teacher development that emphasizes inquiry and reflection.

Educational leaders " must learn to influence and coordinate non-linear, dynamically complex, change processes " (Fullan, 1993, pp. 74 - 75). Senge (1990) argued that the new view of leadership was that found in learning organizations, in which leaders are designers, stewards, and teachers (p. 340). Ulrich, Glinow and Jick (1993) " cultural leadership " are important in this regard. Louis, Kruse, and Raywid (1994) suggested that schools must become stronger professional communiities. Professional communities focus on teachers working together under conditions that include shared norms and values, reflective dialogue, a de-privatization of practise, a collective focus on student learning and collaboration.

In addition, Fullan (1991) and others have indicated that educational chage depends on what teachers do and think. In order for teachers to change their practices they must believe that rewards will be forthcoming. According to Fullan, teachers are governed by the "practicality ethic". These are : need / evidence, procedural clarity and personal costs and benefits. He argues that the strategies used by promoters of change are frequently derived from premises different from that of the teachers.

What makes change work for teachers ? Much of the literature (e.g., Fullan, 1991) ; Rosenholtz, 1989) suggests

that the degree of change was strongly related to the extent to which teachers interact with each other and others providing help. Moreover, the norms, values, degree of trust, and structure of the school make differrences for teachers. Collaborative cultures and the extent to which there are shared goals were important factors in determining whether successful change would occur.

Framework for the Study

Although one's theories and ways of knowing influence how one goes about looking at schools, we were particularly influenced by Tichy's (1982; 1983), Senge's (1990), and Louis and Kruse's (1995) frames for understanding organizations. Tichy contends that organizations can be understood by examining the technical, political, and cultural forces that operate within them. The technical perspective emphasizes the rational approach to improving professional practice. It deals with the task orientation and roles of the staff, the resources, both financial and human, that are available ; how the resources are used ; and the clarity of the technology.

The political perspective recognizes that the process of organizational work is never straightforward. As a result, it deals with the conflicts and compromises that are reached, the decision making practices, how resources are allocated and the nature of communication that exists in a school system.

The cultural perspective, on the other hand, recognizes the importance of shared norms, beliefs and values among school personnel and the symbolic meanings they attach to their everyday experiences. This perspective includes the degree of value consensus among the stakeholders, the vision for the schools and the system, the degree of collaboration of dissonance that exists and the norms that guide behavior.

Senge (1990) contends that effective organizations are those in which members seek out ways to learn from their experiences. He names these "learning organizations " and suggests their members engage in team learning, shared vision and increased personal mastery. Such organizations are charaterized by a culture of collaboration, reflective practices and a sense of mission. Similarly, Louis and Kruse (1995) outline how to develop a school-based professional community. Focusing on the structural, social, and human conditions of schooling, they develop a framework for evaluating the elements of community.

These frames helped us to understand the culture that pervaded the schools. Taken together, these views guided our study.

Method

The Saskatchewan School Improvement Program (SSIP) was used as a vehicle for understanding the

institutionalization of change. The program has been described elsewhere (Hajnal, et al., 1998 ; Sackney, et al., 1995). So only a brief overview is provided here. SSIP was a provincially initiated in-service program based on effective schools research. Its purpose was to build a capacity for group planning and problem solving at the school level in order to enhance student outcomes. At the height of the programme, 140 schools were involved across Saskatchewan. Each school identified a SSIP team comprised of the principal, a teacher and a central office person. The SSIP was responsible for facilitating the process of change and improvement. The various SSIP teams met three times during the year to report on their progress, address problems and learn new stategies and processes to help with their work. Provincial consultants were also available to provide support to the schools.

In 1994, the authors surveyed the teachers in the schools that had belonged to SSIP, asking them to evaluate its level of success at their school. Using four indicators of effectiveness, four very successful, four somewhat successful, and four unsuccessful schools were identified for further study (Hajnal, et al., 1998). Semi-structured interviews with the principals and teachers in each of these schools were then conducted. This article deals with the findings from interviews with 12 school principals and 200 teachers.

Using the case analysis approach advocated by Merriam (1988) and Creswell(1998), the interviews were recorded and transcribed, and the transcriptions analysed by coding the information into themes. Particular attention was paid to patterns and interrelationships. We continually referred back to the transcripts and tapes to ensure that all comments and observations were taken in context. The principals' and teachers' observations and insights were often thoughtful and self-reflective, and they expressed a wide range of views. Areas of agreement served to emphasize an issue or a topic, whereas areas of diversity encouraged us to look for underlying influences.

Results

In this section the findings from the data are presented. The headings are organized around the themes that emerged from the data analysis.

Organisational Structure

Among the successful schools, it was found that management was shared widely, and specific structures were in place to facilitate shared decision-making. The size of the school tended to influence these management structures. In smaller schools, teachers worked or school improvement in two or three teams, who then reported back to the entire staff. In one of the larger secondary schools, a council was introduced to organize the requisite activities of SSIP. Each teacher was asked to choose one area of interest and contribute to the

group which had selected this focus. The chair of each group was a member of the council. The council chair, an elected position, collaborated closely with the principal. Several advantages to this structure were articulated. As staff were able to choose where they would concentrate their attention, they were more willing to contribute. This, in turn, lent a certain momentum to the school improvement plan. The fact that teams in the larger successful high schools crossed departmental lines positively affected staff cohesion.

Some level of accountability was apparent in each successful school. Planning and programming were facilitated by scheduled staff meetings. Time lines were established early in the process, and everyone knew which tasks he or she was expected to complete.

Teachers also noted that successful implementation of the SSIP process gave the organizational structure of the school a protocol for effectively addressing needs for improvement. This protocol allowed teachers to examine the "problem" rather than the "people". Communication improved because it was not clouded with personal defensiveness and animosity ; it became clearly focused on the school's problem and the needs of students. Committee and staff meetings of high performing schools were streamlined and time efficient, with collaboratively-set agendas and rotation of the chair. Review and evaluation of goals and actions plans were built into the natural cycle of the school year. In these ways power was spread to everyone, not concentrated at one level, and teachers were willing to commit time to the process because it was time well spent.

In the less successful schools fewer formalized structures were in place and principals appeared disinterested. These schools tended to have fewer committees, poorer leadership, and less support from the Director and Board. Less attention was devoted to planning, to engaging in a needs assessment and to providing time for planning. In one school the staff said : "The principal told us we had to do it." Similarly, in another school the feeling was" it was top down". I think our staff would have embraced it had it been done the other way around." Moreover, in the less successful schools the structures began to dissipate as soon as the financial and the time support was discontinued.

Decision-Making

Decision-making started with a school's resolution to enter the program. Successful schools entered into SSIP of their own free will. One principal recalled that SSIP was turned down the first year : " I can't remember what the vote was but it didn't have enough support". A group of interested individuals worked to build support for SSIP during the year, and the following year staff decided to support it .

Teachers identified several elements that were evident in successful schools. These schools moved slowly into SSIP, giving teachers time to think about the process and their commitment to it, and SSIP was not embraced until it was approved by a majority of the staff. Teachers also chose the committee on which they served.

Teachers in successful schools viewed shared decision-making to be a natural part of the school structure, even if SSIP was no longer formally in operation. Teachers felt empowered and more satisfied with outcomes that were decided by all staff. They felt ownership of the decision and "found group decisions are more long lasting. Decisions that are made in an autocratic method are usually not supported".

In many of the unsuccessful schools the decision to become involved in SSIP was not made as a staff decision. In many instances the project was commenced without any formal opportunity to decide. Furthermore, once the project commenced, the focus for improvement tended to be on conditions that were not internal to the pedagogy of teaching and learning. Instead, the school staff tended to focus on environmental issues and issues that centered on student behavior. In essence, in the less successful schools there were no clearly established procedures for making decisions. Although SSIP called for collaborative and shared decision-making processes, these were never clearly established .

Teachers in successful schools also indicated that the shared decision-making process aided the staff in sorting personal problems or agendas from school-wide concerns. As well, they suggested that once shared decision-making became a cultural norm, decision that did not follow that route were easily and quickly identified and questioned for their legitimacy. In both these instances, the process of making decisions was defended and renewed in day-day occurrences in the school.

Effective leaders clearly delineated the areas in which their staff did not have jurisdiction ; the length of the school year, for example, was off limits. One principal from somewhat successful school suggested a clear distinction be made between whether an item presented to staff was for discussion or decision. Another reported that he had final say in work allotments, negotiations with central office, teacher supervision, and student discipline, but all other decisions were collaborative. A third pricipal stated that, once the rules were established, they had to be followed ; there could be no waffling on teacher's rights to make decisions.

Decision-making was affected by the degree of political manouvering in the school . Political manouvering was more common in schools that experienced difficulty in getting

SSIP. A principal from one such school reported, "We had to do some politicking to get the process started". Another indicated that he was "sure that there was a fair degree of political manouvering, at least during the initial stages of getting SSIP of the ground". It appeared, however, that after attempting SSIP, the level of politicking diminished in successful and unsuccessful schools alike . For the moderately successful schools, some degree of politicking continued .

In the less successful schools politics were rampant and affected the decisions that were taken. In every school there were blockers and in one school a radical negative group was put in charge. In one middle-sized high school at the beginning of the third year of the SSIP project, the Division Board decided to bring in an outside consultant to assess the school. As one teacher commented: " This decision destroyed the trust level that was between the board and teachers. We felt that we did not have the board's support . " The review process brought SSIP to a halt. In a large comprehensive school the staff characterized itself as being very political. Consequently, when SSIP came along they tended to view the Director's decision as being politically motivated. Typical comments were : " There is a lot of politics on our staff. It is stressful. This is a very political staff ." As SSIP encountered problems the political pressures to discontinue the project also increased In the more successful schools political influences played a minor role in decision-making. In these schools trust, a commitment to the vision and mission and the desire to become better were the motivating factors .

Collaboration

High performing schools showed evidence of successful collaboration. Teachers said "we can do amazing things. Things that you never thought would happen". Collaboration gave teachers an outward, global view of the school and its effectiveness, a view that broke down teacher isolation and the unwillingness to ask for help . Teachers found that collaboration promoted cooperation, understanding, and confidence in their own abilities and their work. They began to share ideas, volunteer for extra committees and give presentations. Another teacher suggested . "It gives an open-mindedness and keeps you on your toes, assessing how you can improve on the atmosphere in the classrooms and the whole school".

The staff in successful schools believed in and practised collaboration . As one principal stated, " I think we can get more done as a team", although collaboration was not the original operating style of two of the four effective leaders. Both admitted to having operated in a more "top-down"

fashion earlier in their careers. One principal suggested that he "used to be a strong-arm principal, but was now just a member of the team". He felt that, at the introduction of the program, he had been "a bit of a dictator". Another stated that, initially, he had found it difficult to share leadership : " I had to learn that just because somebody else put forth an idea that was eventually adopted, it did not mean that I was any more or any less a leader. It simply meant that somebody else had an idea that more people were willing to accept . That's tough. But it is easier now than it was then". Teachers recognized and appreciated the changes in their principal : " The leadership has become more cooperative than dictatorial ... Now it is very cooperative ...You can be more open . You can say what you feel".

The administrator from a less successful school reported little interest in collaboration. He said : "I like to work more on my own. I have no problem teaming up with somebody to do a project, but I prefer to be on my own". When asked about the level of trust among the teachers at his school, he assured us that they were " all on speaking terms". The teachers in his school reported that they rarely engaged in collaborative processes, and seldom asked for help.

Teachers suggested that collaboration encouraged their talking to each other, whether in the halls, staff room, after school, in the evenings, or on Friday nights. Other evidence of collaboration were "open doors" throughout the school for students, teachers, parents and new staff members. Teachers also noted that learning team-building skills was a necessary requisite to collaborating successfully. But above all, teachers emphasized the need for trust in establishing effective collaboration : "You cannot mandate collaboration and trust, but if you give the right climate, then you will feel safe and comfortable".

In all of the less successful schools there were few indicators of collaboration. Instead, the culture of "individualism" tended to operate. Generally, in staff rooms the conversation tended to center on mundane matters. "The idea in our school is let us not talk shoptalk in the staffroom because this is a time for a break. Our staff tends to be negative . There is a lot dumping in the staff room." In one large comprehensive school the collaboration that existed centered around departments.

Sense of vision and Mission

In the more successful schools there was a clearer sense of purpose and a greater commitment to the purpose. Typical comments were : "We knew what we wanted to accomplish. We wanted to become a better school." and " There

is a genuine concern for students and a genuine desire that they succeed and mature in the learning process."

In the less successful schools, however, there was no consensus on the vision and mission that the school wanted to pursue. In one large comprhensive school the typical comment was "we did not have a vision". May be if we had a vision and knew exactly where we were going with this, it might have made a difference." Teachers from a small rural school commented : " We had no common direction . It was more individual . Many wanted to focus on leadership because that was an area of concern."

In summary, the less successful schools were never able to clarify their purpose nor derive a shared sense of mission. Consequently, as soon as the funding stopped, SSIP was dropped. In the more successful schools, on the other hand, SSIP became a natural way of doing things . The processes became incorporated into the way the school did its work.

Principals from successful schools made comments such as, " Yes, we have clear sense of where we are going," and "We clarify our goals and objectives every year and then problems are solved." Principals from the less effective schools, on the other hand, did not have the same clarity o f purpose. "You have to have the same goal", one commented, " and if you don't, I can't see how it works. We'd like to see that end, but whether we can all work equally toward that end is difficult to say". Schools that were partly successful indicated that they were working toward a unified vision and mission : " Yes, we developed a mission statement seven years ago, before any time, but they weren't using it. We've made a new one. We're working on everyone buying into it".

From the data, it became evident that those schools that were more successful in institutionalizing SSIP had a core ideology that inspired the staff. Further, the schools in which there was a greater consensus of purpose tended to use the ideology as a basis for improving the school.

The less successful schools, on the other hand, had a mission statement but only paid "lip service" to it.

Organizational Learning

Schools that were more successful in institutionalizing SSIP exhibited a greater level of trust among staff, had a shared vision, shared information more openly and honestly, engaged in greater collaboration, tended to raise sensitive issues more readily, experimented with new practices more easily, had better problem-solving practices, and displayed a greater willingness to change. "We work as a team", was a typical comment. Teachers reflected:

> We know what we want our school to be like. We now have a quality instruction committee. We're getting to the heart of the teaching-learning process. We're also looking at cooperative learning and resource-based learning.

> I think a lot of the different techniques that are being talked about the people are more willing to start some of them now.

> We trust each other more. We are not so sensitive to the comments as we used to be ... . We are not afraid to lay out concerns and really be open.

A principal whose school was somewhat successful reported that "There is a faction that grumbles about change, but it is getting smaller and smaller every year." Another said, " We're better at having regular conversations on academic curricular and instructional concerns." Principals from less successful schools, on the other hand, were much more negative on the same issues : " We don't operate as a team. There is lack of trust on staff "; Teachers do not want any change. They want to continue doing what they have always done " ; and " It's hard to get teachers to work together."

In general, principals from the less successful schools tended to be less optimistic. Individuals in their schools were less willing to work collaboratively, and had fewer methods for problem solving. Work for many meant working alone. The level of trust also tended to be low. In one school, teachers indicated that they would not trust 70 % of their colleagues. In contrast, somewhat successful; schools tended to be more optimistic. They were beginning to develop trusting relationships, to engage in more open dialogue, and to share a common purpose.

In the less successful schools there were few indicators of organizational learning. Staff spent little time in collaboration and dialogue. There was little discourse on improvement of instruction. Generally morale tended to be poor and teachers tended to engage in frequent negative talk. As indicated by a teacher : "We don't talk about education. There are little groups who sit together. I would say that usually it is negative talk." Teachers spent more time complaining than problem solving and engaged in minmal professional development.

Less successful school staff tended to be older. As commented by staff in a medium-sized high school , "We have an aged staff and people are not as anxious to try new things. And so when this thing did not get off well, the teachers got a negative attitude about anything new coming along." Furthermore, in many of these schools

little time was spent in building programme and team support. Consequently, many teachers were not emotionally ready. As one teacher noted : " You only have a few saying, 'yeah lets do it', and others saying, 'okay lets go through the process but its not going to work anyway'."

Less successful schools also had teachers who quickly alluded to other failed or dropped change experiences. In the more successful schools, on the other hand, principal and teacher attitudes toward change were more positive. There was a feeling that change was a necessary element for being a good school :
"You have to agree with wanting change". In fact, many staff welcomed change it was perceived be invigorating and growth-oriented.

Community Leadership

Generally, the more successful schools had more contacts with their communities than did the less successful ones, and the contacts were characterized as open and trusting. For example, one principal reported that before the school had begun the SSIP process, the community relations were poor, but that situation had changed dramatically : " We have 35 - 40 volunteers coming into this school ... . We can do just about anything and our community will support us". Principals from the less successful schools made comments such as , " Our community does not support us. It's always been a problem, " while those from somewhat successful schools indicated that school-community relations were improving. " Its getting better. We're really working on this aspect, " one reported. Another concurred : " We have more parents coming to the school now." Less successful schools were more isolated from their communities, and many staff members were unwilling to invest energy in improving those relationships.

Teachers in successful schools invested energy into building better communication with parents through school newsletters, newspapers, "open door" policies, parent surveys, encouraging volunteers, inviting input on educational issues, and inplementing more effective reporting procedures. Teachers felt their efforts in these areas were rewarded by the more positive image the school had in the community, and the professional recognition they received from parents for their work :

> Our school has a relatively high status in the community. Most parents feel that they came to school and sit down and talk to people ... . A lot of them will say "I don't know how you do this !" We have appreciation of parents. I think it is a real eye opener for them.

For many of the less successful schools there was a lack of community support. As a teacher from the mid-sized high school commented : "We never had the trust of the community. There is a negative image of teachers in this community." These schools reported that there was minimal community involvement in the school and they had few school-community programs that encouraged such participation.

Leadership Presence in the School

Principals in successful schools were ever-present but not obstrusive. They were seen as facilitators and confidants. They were also vigilant in their efforts to block opposition and remove obstacles that might hinder an individual teacher's or a group of teachers' school improvement initiatives. School staff frequently sought them out for advice. They would warn teachers to tone down overly ambitious plans, but at the same time point to past successes and remind teachers to celebrate them. "A lot of my teachers come talk to me," one rural principal reported. "That's one of my roles. Everybody communicates with me. If parents have a problem, they can drop in. We have a good level of respect". Another principal spent time with school staff " particularly doing some trust activities and trying to build that trust .... ; we aren't going to have any team building until we have that."

How principals viewed the staff emerged as an important factor. Principals who acknowledged the teacher as persons with unique needs, expertise, and concerns were featured in the successful schools. Similarly, principal advocacy of the professional community and leadership in team building were characteristics of the succesful schools.

Teachers in successful schools described their principals as people who were visible and set the tone for openness and acceptance within the school. These principals listened when staff spoke, supported their staff members during controversy, and gave sincere praise and recognition when it was deserved. Teachers felt that their principals were facilitators and buffers, that they encouraged leadership among their staff members, and that they kept the staff from becoming sidetracked by focusing on the school's goals. One teacher commented, "The administrator should be able to hear what the staff says, facilitate what they can, help where they can, and give advice when they are asked". Teachers recongnized the importance of leadership in sustaining effective improvement. " Without leadership and direction from the top, it would have fallen apart."

For the majority of the less successful schools there was lack of leadership stability. In one medium sized school leadership succession changed three times in five years. It should be

noted however that leadership stability alone did not account for the differences between successful and less successful schools. A number of the successful schools also encountered leadership succession yet this did not impact on the program in any significant way.

In a large, less successful school, staff commented that there was lack of leadership commitment to the extent that the principal and director openly disagreed about SSIP. As soon as the Director stopped attending the SSIP meetings the entire project began to disintegrate. In most less successful schools there was a lack of trust between the teachers and either the principal or director. We did not trust our director. We were not sure what his agenda was". The teachers indicated that for them quality leadership was lacking.

Successful schools were led by leaders that " walked the talk." Teachers found these leaders to share their power so that "everyone is on the same level." Rather than being directive and autocratic, these leaders encouraged discussion and comments on any aspect of school life, upheld staff decisions, shared the teaching load, sat as a committee member rather than as and administrator, and attended to equitable distribution of teaching workloads and preparations. In describing their principal, one teacher suggested," He was an administrator who was able to change the morality of the school, change the direction that it was going in .... Everybody took ownership ... . Everybody was consulted."

Trust

A common theme raised by teachers was the importance of trust that their voices would be heard and their decisions would be acted upon. One teacher reported, "As soon as there was some trust in the process, the process began to work. Trust was a big area." Personal agendas held by administrators diminished staff motivation and commitment to the school improvement processes.

Trust can be built over time, explained the teachers, but it could also be destroyed in an instant. They saw their principals and directors as holding that balance in their hands. Schools where trust was lacking were characterized by teacher isolation, poor communication, and lack of motivation to improve. Schools in which trust was built and sustained, however, were satisfying workplaces for both adminsitrators and teachers.

> Within the space of about one year a lot of trust developed ... The principal was very genuinely interested in changing. He made substantial changes in the way he did things. He ended up with a staff that was very supportive of him.

Discussions and Conclusions

If collaboration is central to the operation of the school and if decision-making is shared, then teachers grow to understand that they can make a difference, that they have a place in the leadership process,and that they are professionally in charge. The direction any school takes is determined by the team. In successful schools, leadership was shared among the staff and decisions were made by those who were affected by them.

The successful SSIP schools displayed many of the expanded characteristics described by Duttweiler (1988) : they have a positive school climate ; they foster collegial relationships ; they promote staff development ; they practise shared leadership ; they foster creative problem solving ; and they involve parents and the community. SSIP provided the mechanism for schools to emphasize the interests of their students and promote student learning while fostering a mangement role for teachers. The willingness of the principal to share leadership directly affected the success of the programme and the effectiveness of the school. In this respect, the position of the principalship continues to hold the greatest potential for maintaining and improving dynamic, high-quality schools.

Organizing for work is done differently in successful schools. At the elementary level, teachers from different grades work together in teams. In secondary schools, teams are composed of teachers from different departments. Although team membership can change from year to year, the structure remains intact. In larger schools, a formal layer of administration is introduced : a council composed of the team chairpersons reports to and collaborates with the principal and the different teams. In successful school, more administrative and leadership tasks are accomplished by teams. Teams are a mechanism both for the decentralization of decision-making and for the binding of teachers to the culture and goals of the school.

Although the notion of teaming has been referred to by Loius and Miles (1990) and Rosenholtz (1989), it has not been discussed in terms of participant structures and management (Sashkin, 1984).

Organizational learning has been viewed as simple behavioural change versus complex congnitive and reasoning shifts (Fiol & Lyles, 1985 ; Klein, 1989) ; as changes in routine procedures versus changes in organizational norms, beliefs, ideologies, and assumptions (Argyris & Schon, 1978 ; Frielander, 1983) ; and as incremental versus transformational change. Our study concluded that the schools exhibiting greater organizational learning had shared ideologies, allowed for open and trusting relationships, and had staff who worked as a team to solve the complex problems that faced their schools. In successful school. teachers were more

amenable to critically exanining their practices.

Mitchell (1995) found that organizational learning progressed through three phases : naming and framing to develop understandings and build relationships ; analyzing and intergrating to examine current practices ; and applying and experimenting to modify the practices. Although the authors' evidence is limited, it does appear that the successful schools were more likely to go through these phases than were the less successful schools. Some of the highly successful schools engaged in double-loop learning (Argyris & Schon, 1978) in that they were learning from their experiences and improving on current practices.

Part of the reason they were able to do this was that they operated in an environment that encouraged risk-taking and supported collegiality.

Schools with a clear sense of purpose were more successful in institutionalizing SSIP. In many schools, a shared ideology evolved overtime. Both Rosenholtz (1989) and Louis and Miles (1990) have noted the importance of a sense of vision and purpose. It seemed to us that schools that were clear about their mandate tended to engage in more innovative practices and tended to get to their core ideology namely, teaching and learning. Successful schools were more willing to deal with instructional strategies, and to improve on what occurred between them and their students.

In summary, the authors' interviews with principals and teachers generated themes that differentiated successful schools from less successful schools in terms of the institutionalizing of change. Successful leaders helped staff members to identify and articulate a vision ; they encouraged shared values, beliefs, and attitudes related to teaching and learning; they shared leadership among the staff, and worked toward school improvement; they stimulated people to focus on activities as they related to students ; they encouraged both personal and professional development among their staff, and treated them as individuals with unique needs and expertise ; they helped their staff to think about the personal ramifications of school change, while ensuring their involvement ; finally, they linked school goals and system goals, and encouraged dialogue on the teaching-learning process. Teachers, for their part, were more prone to change if they were empowered, if a high level of trust existed, if a collaborative culture existed, if there was a shared purpose, if conditions for change were right, and if there was community support. In the successful schools the political influences were minimal and more of the conditions associated with the learning environment and professional community were evident. This research gives us a basis for asserting that there are differences in leadership attributes between the principals in successful schools and those in weaker schools, and these differences may warrant the status of predictive attributes.

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MOVING FROM TEACHER ACCOUNTABILITY TO TEACHER DEVELOPMENT : LESSONS FROM TEACHER APPRAISAL.

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ABSTRACT

The search for quality performance of teachers has of late become an issue for management in educational institutions. Teacher performance appraisal has been identified as an effective instrument for promoting teacher performance quality. This article looks at the teacher appraisal scheme of Britain and argues for its introduction in the Ghanaian school system. It argues that the strategy for assessing and supervising teacher performance in Ghana is inadequate. It does not promote professional development among teachers. It rather instills unnecessary fear in them and eventually suppresses the spirit of initiativeness needed for the advancement of their professional practice.

Introduction

The quest for an improved teacher performance in the classroom has in recent times led Ghana's Ministry of Education to itensify its search for a more appropriate and reliable means of improving teaching quality in basic schools. Through its Basic Sector Improvement Programmes (BESIP), it has been proposed that a performance appraisal system for teachers, ancillary staff and units of the educational system should be set up. When one ponders over this proposal, the major question that emerges is : what is wrong with the existing system of assessing teacher performance in Ghanaian schools? It is this question that this article seeks to answer.

The article is developed in three sections. The first section examines the nature and purpose of the existing scheme for evaluating teacher performance in Ghanaian basic schools. In view of limited literature on the assessment of teachers in Ghana, the discussion is base, mostly on my six year's experience as a teacher in the country. In the second section, the concept and approaches to teacher appraisal are explored and the difference between evaluation and appraisal established. It also looks at the practice of teacher appraisal in the United Kingdom by reviewing some literature on the origin, purposes and the processes involved in the scheme. I am aware the teacher appraisal scheme, as practised in England and Wales, has been criticised for its lack of linkage with School Development Planning. Nevertheless, I anticipate that the scheme would have some lessons

for Ghana since School Development Planning is not yet an issue in the country. The last section discusses the implication of the British teacher appraisal scheme for Ghana.

The Nature of Teacher Evaluation in Ghana

In Ghana, the terms that are most familiar to many teachers, especially non-graduate teachers at the basic school level, so far as performance evaluation is concerned are "supervision" and "assessment." These two concepts are introduced to the individual teacher the moment he or she enrols to train as a teacher in a teacher training college. For the proper understanding of the nature of teacher evaluation in Ghana, therefore, it is essential that the pre-service approach to evaluating student teacher performance in the country is examined. This section therefore discusses both the pre-service and in-service modes of evaluating teacher performance in Ghana.

The first experience of evaluation in the life of a teacher in the country occurs at the initial teacher training college when the student-teacher begins his teaching practice. This type of evaluation, which is officially termed "assessment", is more systematic and more frequently organised than those experienced by regular teachers. A student teacher on a three-year post-secondary initial training course is required to get a minimum of about eight teaching assessments before he completes his programme. The purpose of this assessment is supposed to guide and provide opportunites for the student to appraise his basic personal qualifications for teaching; apply and test his professional knowledge, understandings and skills; have direct contact with examples of the major phases of the public school's operation and develop both personal and professional competencies under optimum conditions ... (Mensah, 1991). Thus during the process of assessment, supervisors are expected to create a non-threatening atmosphere in the classroom, direct and help the student teacher to improve upon his mistakes: the session is to be development oriented in principle. Contrary to the professional development principles underlying student teaching assessment, however, the most crucial moment in the life of the student teacher is when a supervisor is present to assess his/her teaching performance.

As I reflect upon my experience as a post-middle student teacher at Enchi Presby Primary School, in the Western Region (Ghana) in 1982, I remember the frustrating mood I found myself whenever my teaching performance was to be assessed. This was because the supervisors did not create the atmosphere for me to view the assessment process as part of my professional development. Supervision never started with a pre-observation conference to enable the supervisor identify himself with my problems.

Some of them often entered when the class had already begun, collected my lesson notebook, sat comfortably at the back of the class and started rating my teaching. Others never entered the classroom but quietly positioned themselves in an obscure point outside the classroom and suspiciously watched through the window as if I was a prisoner under police surveillance. Even before the lesson ended, my teaching performance had already been rated. After each assessed lesson, the supervisor held a post-observation conference with me supposedly for counselling. In practice, however, the conference always turned out to be a one-way communication session characterised by open criticism as I received information about my performance. Up to date, the supervisor continues to be the principal actor during the student -teacher appraisal process.

Consequently, the actual picture of student-teacher appraisal in Ghana may be described as a process that aims at "inculcating the prospective teacher with prescribed rituals and patterns based on predetermined modes of behaviour, or maintaining mean standards through imposed controls." It does not encourage the student-teacher to develop the ability to make proper value judgement about his / her performance and effectiveness. One would have thought that this trend would be improved for the regular teacher in the school but as the following paragraphs indicate, the situation is nothing different from what the student-teacher experiences at the training college.

In the school situation, two forms of evaluating teachers' performance can be identified : *Internal Assessment* and *External Assessment.* Activities involved in the internal assessment of the teacher's performance in the school are enshrined in a Headteacher's Handbook: the teacher therefore does not participate in determining the assessment criteria. Specifics of the assessment carried out by the headteacher include the vetting of teachers' scheme of work and lesson plans, observing teachers' attitude to work, lesson presentation, social traits, human relations, checking punctuality to school, and observing teachers' use of working hours. Like the case of the student-teacher, no pre-assessment or post-assessment conferences are held with teachers for a discussion of either the issues involved in the assessment or those emerging after the assessment. The head is required to submit a written confidential report based on his discretionary value judgement after assessing each teacher. Even though the report is supposed to be a confidential document, the teacher involved is required to sign the report written about him. This has, on several occasions, led to serious conflicts between teachers and headteachers and has currently become an issue of great concern. This is because many teachers view the appraisal process as vindictive rather than a process of developing their skills.

The external system of appraising teachers in the country takes the form of inspection. The people involved in carrying out this exercise are officials from the Inspectorate Division of the Ghana Education Service. A teacher experiences this type of assessment when he/she needs to be confirmed as a professional teacher after completing his period of probation, when he is due for promotion in rank or when he has been nominated for the President's Best Teacher Award. Newly trained teachers in Ghana cannot regard themselves as certificated or professional teachers until their professional skills in the classroom have been observed and confirmed. After a year's probation, therefore, a team of officials from the District Education Office observe his/her work and based on a pre-determined rating criteria, they make judgement concerning the professional capabilities of the teacher. On the day of the inspection, a team of officials visit the teacher's classroom and observe his/her lesson notes, lesson presentation, pupils' exercise books and other skills related to his/her teaching task. After the session, no conference is held with the teacher and he/she is not given feedback on his/her performance until after some months. This same approach applies to the inspection of teachers who are due for promotion. In both cases, the headteacher's confidential report on the teachers involved are greatly relied upon in making a judgement on the teacher's performance .

Another instance where the teacher's work is assessed is when there is a whole school inspection aimed at assessing the level of efficiency and effectiveness of the school in promoting learning among pupils and how appropriately resources allocated to it in terms of money, equipment, learning materials and others are put in use. The focus of this type of inspection is accountability. The teacher, during this period is expected to account for how effectively he/she has used the syllabuses, textbooks, chalk, learning time, teaching time etc. to advance pupils' learning. His/her skills in keeping systematic record on pupils' academic performance is also evaluated. After the inspection which often lasts between three and seven days, a conference is held involving the headteacher and all teachers where some aspects of the inspectors' observations are made known to them. The conference activity, just like those mentioned earlier, exhibit features that can best be described as "essentially monologic, ... one way declarations about the state of things." (Gitlin and Smyth, 1989, p. 7). This situation has resulted in the situation where the mention of "supervision, assessment, inspection" or any word associated with the evaluation of teacher performance tend to make teachers very apprehensive.

From the foregoing, it is obvious that "hierarchy" and "accountability" are the major features of the existing procedure

for evaluating teacher performance in Ghana. Those responsible for evaluating the teacher's skills : supervisors, circuit officers or headteachers tend to impose pre-determined standards concerning desirable teaching outcomes on those who are evaluated : teachers. On the whole, it reflects what Hargreaves & Fullan (1992) classify as traditional teacher evaluation which "does not fit too well with the ideas of staff development ..." (p. 162) because basic assumptions of staff development models require "an emphasis on co-operation, collegiality and decisions from the bottom up rather than from the top down" (Dawe, 1989, quoted in Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992). Though some people may argue that the system has the strength of making teachers more accountable to the public, its major shortcoming is that it does not provide the requisite avenue for the teacher to participate fully in the process of developing as a profesional. This is not desirable because as Gitlin and Smyth (1989) argue,

> Leaving the teacher out of the process amounts to regarding the teacher as a commodity to be shaped and manipulated. It also leaves unattended and unquestioned the underlying orientation that guides teachers' practices. It is through involvement ... that teachers come to consider and challenge taken-for-granted views about their pedagogy ... (p. 40, par. 3).

Having identified the problem embedded in the nature of assessing teachers in the country, the next question is "How do we improve the system to make it more relevant to the professional development needs of teachers?" Are there any lessons to be drawn from the theory of teacher appraisal? How different is the concept of evaluation, as exemplified by the Ghanaian situation, from that of appraisal? In the next section, attempt will be made to address these questions.

What is Teacher Appraisal ?

Generally, the term "appraisal" is used interchangeably with the words "assessment, supervision and evaluation" to denote the process by which the value or quality of personnel performance is estimated. For instance, it has been asserted that Appraisal is synonymous with evaluation, a major feature of every teacher's work. Teachers in the classroom are constantly assessing how pupils are doing, what they have learned and where difficulties lie' (Mathias and Jones, 1989, p.5). Sharochs, et al., (n.d.) have also noted that "Assessment is all about making judgements based on valid and appropriate evidence for the purpose of well informed decisions". On his part, Cameron-Jones (1991) asserts that, "The appraisal of teaching performance is the evaluation of its quality" (p. 24)

On the surface, therefore, one may be

tempted to conclude that there is no distinct difference between "Teacher Evaluation" and "Teacher Appraisal". However, a look at relevant literature reveals that the two concepts are, in practice, not the same.

According to Bollington, et al., (1991), the term "appraisal" has been defined as "a continuous and systematic process intended to help individual teachers with their professional development and career planning, and to help ensure that the in-service training and development of teachers matches the complementary needs of individual teachers and the schools ..." (p. 6). Mathias & Jones also explain that appraisal of performance is an activity which is central to the effective management of the teaching and learning situation. It is a process of promoting 'effectiveness of the teacher's work in the classroom ... (p. 5). Inference from these definitions indicates that the focus of appraisal is the teacher's professional development rather than accountability and "for many teachers appraisal linked to professional development is the least threatening" McMullen, H. In Bell, L & Day, C, 1991. p. 165).

On their part, Wise & Darling-Hammond (1984) identify two perspectives of "appraisal": the bureaucratic perspective and the professional perspective. In the bureaucratic perspective, appraisal is highly standardised, procedurally oriented and organised by checklist. It is designed for the purposes of monitoring conformance with routines and treats all teachers alike. Musella & Hickcox describe this type of appraisal as the traditional approach. According to them, traditional approaches to performance-appraisal which "tend to be narrowly focused, concentrating for the most part on classroom performance rather than on a reflective examination of teaching life; ... always mix appraisal for professional-growth procedures with making a judgement" and also lay strong emphasis on "standardisation across widely disparate situations, attention to record-keeping and written reports" (in Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992 p. 162). The principal actor in the traditional method of appraising teachers is the appraiser. This approach reflects the description of Ghana's system of evaluating teachers' performance in the previous section.

From the professional perspective, appraisal is considered to be clinical, practice-oriented, analytic, designed to assess the approapriateness of strategies and decisions, based on professional standards of practice and client-oriented. Teachers are involved in the development and operation of the appraisal process and are treated differently according to their teaching assignments, stages of development and classroom goals. In the professional approach,

"'There is a move away from the highly structured, rational and linear characteristics of the traditional approaches to a less hierarchical and in a sense, less organised set of

procedures ... Appraisal patterns are seen as a move toward professionalism for teachers ... in the sense of promoting autonomy, independent thinking, reflective practice and the assumption of responsibility by the individual for both personal and professional growth," (p. 163).

Thus, even though in general terms some people tend to use evaluation and appraisal interchangeably, in practice the two concepts are not the same. A system of judging teacher performance which focuses on accountability and adopts a strict "top-down" approach could be best termed an evaluation system.On the other hand, a system that focuses on the development of the teacher's professional skills and makes room for a "bottom-up" as well as "colleague-colleague observation and judgement" approach could be termed appraisal. The Table below sums up some of the features of evaluation and appraisal.

So far, the discussion has established the concept and approaches to teacher appraisal. As summed up in the Table,

Features Contrasting Evaluation and Appraisal

	EVALUATION	APPRAISAL
Purpose	• accountability • monitoring conformance	• professional development • improve quality teaching/learning • improve staff relations
Communication	• evaluator-evaluatee (hierarchical) • strictly formal e.g. written reports	• appraiser-appraisee-appraiser • formal/informal
Major actor	• school inspectors • headteacher • subject organisers	• appraiser and appraisee • (active teacher involvement)
	• externally imposed (non-involvement of teachers)	• (active teacher involvement)
Teacher attitude	• avoidance • fear	• co-operation • enthusiasm

In practice, there is a difference between evaluation and appraisal : whereas the former focuses on accountability, the latter focuses on development. In the next section, an example of the practice of teacher appraisal will be examined by using Britain as a case study.

The Practice of Teacher Appraisal in Britain

According to Mathias & Jones (1989), the origin of the Teacher Appraisal Scheme in Britain can be traced to the early 1960s when the then Minister of Education, Sir David Eccles, made moves to examine what was actually taught in schools. By the middle of the 1970s, there had been an increasing public concern about what was going on in the school, following an allegation that teachers were misusing their power in relation to their pupils' education. In 1976, the Auld Committee that investigated this case, recommended that teachers should be made accountable to the community for the education they were offering. In addition to this, a decline in the nation's economic performance which compelled the government to take steps to rationalise public expenditure as well as the establishment of an Assessment of Performance Unit (APU) in the Education Sector in about 1978 enforced the need for school accountablity.

By the early 1980s, the Education Sector had become very concerned about curriculum development and the role that school performance appraisal could play towards the positive realisation of that concern. It therefore recommended that schools should be made to analyse and set out their aims in writing and make it part of their work regularly to assess how far the education they were providing matched those aims. In 1983, the Government, convinced of the positive effects that the move towards self-assessment by schools and teachers could make on improving school standards, welcomed the recommendation but emphasised the need for teacher performance appraisal with the explanation that :

> employers can manage their teachers only if they have accurate knowlege of each teacher's performance. The Government believes that for the purpose the formal assessment of teacher performance is necessary and should be based on classroom visiting by the teacher's head or head of department, and an appraisal' of both the pupil's work and the teacher's contribution to the life of the school (The White Paper "Teaching Quality", GB. DES, 1983, in Mathias & Jones).

In 1986, the Government enacted an Education Act wich gave legal backing to Local Education Authorities (LEA) to implement the scheme in schools. For example, Article 49 (Sections 1b, 2b & c) of the Act, as quoted in Mathias & Jones, explicitly enjoins LEAs to "secure that the performance of teachers ... is regularly appraised" and makes provision "with respect to the disclosure

to teachers of the results of appraisals and the provision of opportunities for them to make representations with respect to those results." By 1988, the Teacher Appraisal Scheme had become an integral part of the conditions of service of teachers in Britain with focus on enhancing the professional development of teachers.

Historically, therefore, two major factors can be identified as leading to the official introduction of Teacher Appraisal in the United Kingdom: public demand for accountability and the need for professional development. As articulated by Bollington, Hopkins & West (1991), the introduction of appraisal can be said to reflect

> a climate in education, characterised by concern for improved quality, a greater degree of accountability and more efficiency, particularly in terms of resources. Within this climate has come the call for systematic performance appraisal, designed to bring about a better relationship between pay, responsibilities and performance, especially teaching performance in the classroom (p.2).

The second factor emanated from the desire to improve the professional development of teachers and to identify precisely their in-service training needs. This factor is very significant because as Kelchtermans and Vandenberghe (1994) have rightly observed, "the end of a teacher training programme does not mean the end of the training process and the achievement of performance. Professional development is a major factor in efforts to improve schools".

The Purpose of the Teacher

Generally, West & Bollington (1990 p. 8) and Mathias & Jones (1989, p. 5) agree that the first purpose is to enhance the professional development of teachers. This purpose is often expressed in terms of improving the impact of inservice training on professional development, with clearer identification of INSET needs and raising the performance of teachers. Thus through teacher appraisal, both the appraiser and the appraisee can get a better understanding of the in-service training needs of the individual teacher. The second purpose is to improve the management of the school. This purpose is based on the assumption that the two way communication involved in the appraisal scheme could help increase teachers' understanding of the issues confronting senior management and also improve senior management's understanding of the perceptions that teachers may have about the school. It is believed that through the appraisal scheme, meaningful job descriptions are produced.

Thirdly, the appraisal system seeks to improve the education offered to pupils in the school : it focuses on the provision of quality teaching and learning. The writers indicate that the

appraisal of teachers is seen as essentially a developmental process, not a narrow checking activity, though the quality of development achieved must be influenced by the accuracy of available information concerning past performance, present constraints and opportunities, and future policies. In this sense, they argue that "appraisal itself can be seen as part of the teacher's professional development, not simply a means of identifying development needs". (West & Bollington, 1990). The statement below emphasises the purposes for introducing teacher appraisal :

> Appraisal clearly has the potential to strengthen and develop the quality both of teaching and of management in schools in ways which will lead over time to better education for pupils ... It should provide an opportunity for individual teachers and heads to explore ways of improving their professional skills, and enhancing their contribution to the overall management and development of their school (MacGregor, October 1989, in West & Bollimgton, 1990).

To understand the purposes of the scheme as they relate to the LEA, the School and more specifically to the Teacher, West & Bollington have simplified the objectives as follows :

Objectives for the Local Education Authority (LEA)

- To provide an overall picture of INSET needs and priorities.
- To help schools to think and to talk about whole-school policies, and the relationships between these policies and individual roles and tasks..
- To facilitate development planning, processes and activities in the schools
- To provide an informed basis for teacher references, and to improve the quality of promotion/selection decisions within the authority.

Objectives for the School

- To ensure that individual targets / objectives relate to school objectives and priorities.
- To help individuals improve performance in their current jobs.
- To improve communication and relationships.
- To increase teacher involvement in determining and commitment to securing their own targets.
- To identify individual strengths and weaknesses and improve the match between individuals and organisational tasks.
- To improve the quality of information on which INSET planning is based.

- To identify interest in and potential for promotion to specific jobs, and to help individuals to prepare for this.

A crictical look at the objectives outlined for the LEA and the School by the writers seems to suggest that the focus of the interest of these two institutions for appraising teachers lies more in the development of quality management and the achievement of school targets. Since the practice of teacher appraisal dwells greatly on the principle of confidentiality between the appraiser and the appraisee, a major issue that emerges is how the LEA and the School can easily gain access to the needed information for achieving the objectives they seek to achieve. The co-operation of the teacher will be greatly required if these goals could be achieved. The last set of objectives identified by the writers focuses on the professional and personal development of the teacher.

Objectives for the Teacher

- To increase the scope for personal achievement, job satisfaction and, where appropriate, career development.

- To improve working relationships with colleagues.

- To provide balanced, objective feed back on previous performance, and guidance, support, reassurance and motivation for the future.

- To provide opportunity to express views about the school, or how it is managed in the expectations that appropriate action will be taken possible and necessary.

The discussion so far makes it very clear that the professional development of teachers is a major purpose for appraising teachers in Britain. Justifying this purpose, Jones argues that the present rapid pace of change within the education sector has far reaching implications for the quality of teachers, teaching and ultimately that of pupil learning . Consequently, he argues that :

> no member of the profession can, realistically, enter teaching and remain in it for several decades possibly, without the necessity for frequently updating both their professional knowledge and skills. There is a need for the professional development process to be managed in a systematic way for both the individual teachers and schools to benefit (p. 9) .

Unfortunately, this is a purpose which the present scheme for evaluating teachers in Ghana least emphasises.

Having delved into the reasons for introducing a systematic teacher appraisal scheme in Britain, the next section will examine the processes involved in the appraisal scheme.

The Processes Involved in Developmental Teacher Appraisal

Since developmental teacher appraisal is based on data derived from a two-way communication channel between the appraiser and the appraisee, *interview* as a data collection instrument has been identified as the pivot around which the whole process of teacher appraisal evolves. (Mathias & Jones, 1989, p.21 ; West & Bollington, 1990). The writers, however, observe that "the success of appraisal interviews has been seen, for the most part, to hinge on effective preparation" (p. 15) . The first process involved in teacher appraisal is therefore preparation. This stage provide appraisers and the appraisee the opportunity to prepare adequately for the appraisal session. It involves meetings between the head and appraisers to find answers to questions related to the scope, procedure and time frame for the appraisal process.

It also involves an initial meeting between the appraiser and the appraisee to "arrange a mutually convenient date, time and venue for the meeting, to discuss the objectives of the interview, and the procedures to be used by both parties, including the documentation " (Mathias & Jones, p. 22). Such a meeting offers the appraiser and the appraisee the opportunity to establish rapport and trust between them. This is very essential because without the assurance of confidentiality, it will be difficult for the appraisee to frankly disclose his weaknesses and his feelings to the appraiser during the interview stage.

The Graham Report of 1985, for instance stresses that "Appraisers must have credibility and inspire the trust and confidence of the staff they appraise ..." Issues to be covered at this stage include :

- the areas (s) of the teacher's work on which it reflects accurately his or her work.
- the specific information to be gathered.
- who will be involved in providing the information to be carried out
- the number and length of class room observations to be carried out
- the timetable for the appraisal cycle .

After arriving at an agreement regarding which of these areas the appraiser and appraisee will want to focus on, they have to decide on how the data on the selected areas can be collected. West & Bollington have identified "self -appraisal, task observation / job shadowing, collecting the views of relevant people by interview / questionnaires, classroom observation, analysing documentation, looking at pupils' work and analysing test /exams results" as some approaches to information gathering to adopt. There is also the need for the parties to agree on the criteria for

using whichever approach(es) they decide on.

The second component of the appraisal process is the *interview* phase . As earlier mentioned in paragraph one of this section, the appraisal interview is central to the appraisal process. This centrality is articulated in the statement that" ... appraisal programmes should in all cases include an interview " (NSG Report, 1989). This is the stage when the appraiser and the appraisee actually engage in discussion related to the information they have gathered during the pre-interview phase for the purpose of planning for future improvement. The success of the appraisal interview largely depends on the skills of the appraiser in terms of " facilitating and maximising the potential of the process" (Mathias & Jones, 1989, p. 22) and the availability of a clear and mutually agreed agenda. The following inputs have been suggested for the agenda of all teacher appraisal interviews :

- review of the teacher's current job description
- review of the teacher's work, successes and progress, in any areas for development identified in the previous appraisal .
- discussion of current professional development needs .
- discussion of career development as appropriate
- discussion of the appraisee's role in, and contribution to, the policies and management of the school
- identification of targets for future development
- clarification of the points to be recorded in the appraisal statement. (NSG, 1989, in West & Bollington)

To this end, it is essential that the appraiser takes particular note of the interviewee's interests and career aspirations and also create a congenial atmosphere for the advancement of the interview session. The session is to be skilfully handled in such a way that at the end of the interview teachers will feel that ,

> there has been a basic acceptance both of them and their work; there has been a confirmation or a new understanding of areas of success; there has been a realisitic understanding of areas of failures; a manageable plan or action has been formulated which will enable them to develop professionally; they have a new sense of their own value within the school and of commit ment to the aims and goals, particualrly

those which affect their area of work (Blackburn, 1985 p.)

Hewton (1988) has identified "listening and encouraging the interviewee to talk, using appropriate questions, paraphrasing and summarising" as qualities of an effective interview session.

One issue that needs stressing in this section is the fact that training people prior to the introduction of any appraisal scheme is very essential. A number of writers have stressed its importance (e.g. Everard, 1986 ; West and Bollington, 1990; Bollington, Hopkins & West, 1991 ; Murphy & Broadfoot, 1995. p. 115). As articulated by Nuttall, D. L. (1986a), none of the desirable qualities for conducting an effective appraisal "can be realised without adequate training ... that training must embrace not only particular skills (such as those of observation, interviewing and counselling) but also more general managerial skills and a discussion of values and assumptions." Generally the programme of training in appraisal skills is to include three distinct but practically interrelated phase : awareness raising, information giving and skill training (Mathias and Jones) and must be based on a format that at least include "establishing job descriptions and identifying performance criteria ; recording and documenting ; methods of assessment ; counselling and reviewing."

The third component of the appraisal process involves follow-up activities. This stage offers both the appraiser and the appraisee the opportunity to systematically monitor the progress of targets set during the appraisal interview session, identify problems related to the process of attaining those targets and, where possible, agree to review the targets. Two major areas of concerns are covered during this phase : the production of an agreed statement between the appraisal and the appraisee which should comprise a summary of the appraisal dialogue and records of the main points emerging from the review of the appraisee's recent work performance. This statement must be linked to targets and/or action plans . Information in the agreed statement on action plans necessary for effective planning of either the school or the Local Education Authority is to be made available to them. However, every effort must be made to ensure that all confidential matters are protected because,

> appraisal statements are personnel statements of a particularly sensitive kind; they should be treated carefully and kept in asecure place in the school (NSG, 1989).

The second major area for post-interview action concerns the need for a continued appraiser-appraisee dialogue during the review period for support on agreed priorities and outcomes. It involves a formal review meeting cover ing an assumed two-year appraisal cycle (NSG, in West & Bollington, 1990, p. 48) with the purpose of

considering the appropriateness of previous targets, considering current career development needs of the appraisee, reviewing appraisal interview targets and others. Having looked at some of the implementation processes involved in the teacher appraisal scheme in Britain, the question is : What are the implications of this scheme for Ghana? Is it possible to transfer the system to improve upon the teacher evaluation scheme in Ghana? This question will be addressed in the next section.

Implication(s) of Teacher Appraisal Scheme for Ghana

Even though the scheme for appraising teacher performance in the United Kingdom as discussed in the preceding section reflects the features of developmental appraisal, one cannot jump into conclusion that its transfer to Ghana will meet the teacher development needs of the country. Any recommendation regarding the possibility of transferring the scheme to Ghana would have to be based on an evaluation of its impact on the professional development of teachers since its introduction. Thus questions related to its strengths and weaknesses have to be critically addressed first.

Evaluators of the school teacher appraisal pilot study by the Cambridge Institute of Education (CIE) in 1989 have identified four areas where the scheme has led to some level of motivation and job satisfaction among appraisees. The following statement makes this point explicit :

> No less than 87% of the 315 appraisees, who responded to our spring 1989 questionnaire indicated as significant or very significant the outcomes of their appraisal in terms of obtaining candid feedback on their performance and reassurence and motivation for the future. Given the assumption that increased job satisfaction and better morale contribute towards more positive and successful teaching, then such outcomes, commonly attributed to appraisal, are clearly both desirable and encouraging (p.55).

It was also noted that the scheme has the strength of helping teachers to get a clear view of their needs and greater confidence in asking for them to be met. 79% of the respondents were reported to have indicated as significant or very significant the outcomes of their appraisal in terms of identification of INSET needs. Thus through appraisal, teachers are able to clearly identify their classroom practice needs which in turn enable them to influence the development of their in-service training. This view is corroborated by the TTA's observation that "the strengths of the current appraisal system include the emphasis on the setting of clear and practical targets... and the opportunity it gives to teachers to take control of, and pride in their professional and career development" (Review of Headteacher and Teacher

Appraisal : Summary of Evidence Document, p.3).

Another area where the impact of appraisal is felt is career development. The CIE report, for instance, makes reference to one interviewee who felt in general that appraisal had made her think more critically about her work and career and given her a chance to look at herself. The degree of the appraisees' positive view about the strength of appraisal in their professional and career development reflects in the comment below:

> My most positive feelings were about (i) being able to review my career and discuss at length my concerns, future etc. with an experienced senior colleague who was able to offer professional advice (ii) review my teaching in the classroom and think about the things that I can do well and that others feel I do well. (iii) I found appraisal a real morale booster (CIE Report, p.61).

Even though the foregoing discussions suggest that the appraisal scheme has had great impact on the teacher's activities, a number of weaknesses have been identified in the implementation of the scheme in many schools. The main weaknesses are that " it lacks rigour, has poor impact on the quality and standards of teaching and that the process has become protracted, expensive and often extraneous to the annual cycle of management activity directed at school improvement". (TTA, 1995 : 7).

As mentioned in the introduction, it has also been noted that the scheme's 'arrangements' as currently practised "are not sufficiently linked to policies for school management, including process for INSET and school-development planning. This has been exacerbated by misunderstanding of confidentiality requirements and by the two year cycle " (Ms Morris' Speech to the 7th British Appraisal Conference, January, 1998). The speaker supported this weakness by referring to an OFSTED evidence that only 20% of schools visited showed improvements in teaching following appraisal and further stressed, "closer integration of appraisal with other aspects of management could also increase the impact on the quality of teaching and reduce the bureaucratic burden". From these shortcomings, it could be seen that even though the scheme has had some impact on the teacher and the school's improvement, the changing demands on the school requires that the teacher appraisal scheme is improved.

From the strengths and weaknesses discussed above, it is very clear that the current practice of the scheme will be of little benefit to Ghana. The shortcomings identified with the scheme need to be improved in order to gurantee its transferability. To this end, it is worth noting that some steps are being employed to improve the scheme. In

a speech delivered at the Seventh British Appraisal Conference (January, 1998), the speaker indicated that the government had instituted measures to tackle the problem of lack of linkage between the teacher appraisal scheme and policies for school management as a major problem. It was disclosed that developments in appraisal are now expected to take account of other initiatives"' such as OFSTED inspection; school target-setting, which will be introduced in all schools from September; Education Development Plans; which will provide a link between school-level targets and an LEA's overall strategy to raise standards;... the new relationship between schools and the planned induction for new teachers." It was stressed that the government deems it "vital for there to be sensible integration between the school target setting and appraisal processes". The implication that this new arrangement has for Ghana is that any attempt by the country to adopt the developmental approach to teacher appraisal must first take into consideration ways of ensuring that school inspection and teacher appraisal programmes are effectively co-ordinated towards teacher development goals.

Closely linked to the issue of linkage is the need to improve the appraisal cycle activities. The current cycle extends across two years and activities involved in the first year includes provision for observation and an appraisal interview to review the teacher's work to identify achievements and aspects for further development. In the second year, the appraisal and the appraisee meet to review the appraisal statement, the progress towards achieving any targets and to set revised targets for action. It has been noted that the outcomes derived from this process can be more useful if the information deriving from it is made available for planning purposes. To improve the situation, an annual appraisal cycle has been proposed. In addition to this, it is the expectation of the government that "objectives relating to pupil performnce would need to be agreed upon between a teacher and his or her line manager."

Another revelation made at the conference which has an implication for Ghana is the fact that the British government recognises the importance of a continuing emphasis on and improving the teacher's professional development. To improve the teacher's professional development, measures have been taken to increase funding. The statement below clarifies this point:

> We will provide more than £500m through the Standards Fund in 1998-99 in support of literacy, numerical and other key areas for school improvement. Therefore ... I would expect the appraisal process to enable teachers, in discussions with their appraisers, to identify their professional development needs and to ensure that they are reflected in plans made at school and LEA level (p.11).

The challenge that this statement poses to Ghana is that the government needs to invest willingly in developmental teacher appraisal. Resources required for promoting smooth teacher appraisal schemes in the school needs to be heavily budgeted for. This is very essential because without adequate funding, the efforts being made towards improving the present scheme for evaluating teacher performance in the country will yield nothing.

Lastly, there is the need for policy makers in Ghana's educational sector not only to make the appraisal of teachers mandatory in schools but also ensure that room is created for teachers in the school to get the opportunity of appraising the teaching performance of their colleagues.

Of course, the introduction of such a scheme in the school will pose some teething problems, especially in the primary school where the teacher population is quite small but this should not be an excuse for not introducing developmental teacher appraisal scheme in Ghana

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PARTICIPATION IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN GHANA: THE CASE OF FEMALES IN RURAL BRONG AHAFO

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ABSTRACT

Formal education, especially at the higher levels, plays a vital role in the development of human resources for both personal and social advancement. A cursory observation seems to indicate that, as elsewhere in Ghana, a vast proportion of females in rural Brong Ahafo does not participate in secondary education. The study was motivated by the desire to investigate the extent of participation in secondary education among females in Rural Brong Ahafo and to examine the possible underlying factors.

The study revealed gross under-representation of rural girls in secondary education, with the key factors observed to be poor economic circumstances of parents and socio-cultural conditioning of the rural folk. These factors would need to be addressed if the participation of girls in secondary education in rural Brong Ahafo is to improve.

Introduction

The crucial role played by education in developing human resources for both personal fulfilment and social advancement, is an indisputable fact recognised the world over (Anamuah-Mensah, 1995; Kwapong, 1993; UNDP, 1993) Educational provision takes various forms including, among others, formal in-schooling, on-the-job training and adult literacy programmes.

In-school education offers greater opportunities for providing literacy education to more people than do the other forms of education. Especially at the early stages of life before entry into adulthood, in-school education is the most appropriate form of providing literacy education to people.

At the basic level, in-school education introduces pupils to general and basic literacy skills, and predisposes them to rudimentary practical and vocational skills which help to expose their innate practical abilities (Owusu, 1981). However, the value of schooling, socio-economic and otherwise, becomes well-defined at the secondary and tertiary levels. At these higher levels, the recipients of school education become more mature and capable of gaining a better understanding of the world around them. The exposure of students at this stage to more complex problems and skills, is a key ingredient for stimulating high level productivity (Meier, 1976), as well as promoting greater personal advancement and self-fulfilment.

Females constitute about 51% of the total population of Ghana which is an indication of the significant position they occupy in the national economy as a vast source of human capital formation (Statistical Services, 1988; Asamoah, 1997). It is again to be noted that about 69% of the Ghanaian population is found in the rural sector . This readily reveals the enormous size of the female population living in the rural communities of the nation. Participation of Ghanaian females, including the vast majority in the rural sector in schooling, especially at the secondary level onwards, as do their male counterparts, is an important factor in the process towards the attainment of the total well-being of all Ghanaians.

In principle, Ghana's education system provides equal opportunities to all its citizens regardless of sex differences or geographical location. Thus, each person is capable of pursuing any course of education to any level according to his or her ability and interest without any apparent administrative policy of restriction.

However, a cursory observation within the rural communities of the Brong Ahafo region indicates that many girls there, as elsewhere in the country, who should have been pursuing education according to their ages, are out of school with a considerable number of them engaged in petty trading and subsistence farming. Apparently most of these girls are actual non-school-goers who may have never attended school at all, who have dropped out of the basic level, or who have completed the basic level without continuing further at the secondary level.

With such a situation one would easily conjecture that relatively a lot of girls in these areas are not sharing in the benefits of secondary and for that matter higher education to enable them adequately develop their God-given potentials for their own self-actualization and for their effective involvement in social, political and economic issues.

The desire to find out the true picture of the extent of participation in secondary education among girls in rural Brong Ahafo and to have an in-depth exploration of the factors accounting for the observed level of participation, provided motivation for the study.

Method

Two main sets of data were used in the investigation. Documentary data concerning the relative extent of girls' participation in schooling, were collected from selected basic schools and second cycle institutions in three main education districts of the Brong Ahafo Region. The data consisted of enrolment figures of pupils and students, and results of Basic Education Certificate Examinations. The second set of data involved the interviewing of subjects in the rural communities

on the factors affecting participation of girls in schooling. The subjects comprised parents, female basic school leavers and dropouts, and Heads of the basic schools and second cycle institutions in rural centres that were contacted for the documentary information. The main procedure for analysing the data was the calculation of percentages of the various aspects of the data.

Results and Discussions

The study recorded a number of findings relating to the extent of participation of females in secondary education in rural Brong Ahafo. Generally, the findings were consistent with those of other studies conducted in Ghana and elsewhere concerning females and their education (ILO-JASPA Report, 1980; UNDP Study No.3, 1980; Dugbaza, 1984; Bayo, 1985, etc).

1. The study revealed that girls were generally under-represented in schooling in the rural areas of Brong Ahafo. The under-representation was much greater at the secondary stage than it was at the basic level. Averagely there were about three boys to every two girls at the basic level in the rural areas. The sex ratios of selected basic schools over a five year period ranged between 149 and 169. At the secondary level, there were five boys to one girl in the schools located in rural areas (with sex ratios of selected rural secondary schools ranging between 458 and 572) while those located in urban centres of the region had about three boys to one girl (with sex ratios of selected urban secondary schools ranging between 268 and 244).

2. No significant difference was found between the academic achievements of males and females in the schools at the basic level. Both the boys and the girls performed equally in their academic achievement levels. For all the selected basic schools and years put together, the rates of success for boys and girls were 49.8% and 50.2% respectively with the girls, thus, performing slightly higher. A 't' test of significance for independent samples computed on the rates of performance for the two sexes for all the schools for the period, at 0.05 level of significance with 28 degrees of freedom, showed no significant difference between the performance of boys and that of the girls. This is an indication that the performance level of girls could not be a cause for their lower rate of participation in further schooling than that of their male counterparts in the same area. It also shows that girls could pursue any type and level of course as could their male counterparts .

3. The notion that girls do not so much need more education as do boy was found to be very prevalent in the rural areas of Brong Ahafo. It was discovered that this notion was shared by the parents and the girls alike (see Table 1 below).

Table 1
Sex Preference for Further Schooling as Provided by Girls Themselves and Parents

Preference	Parents (P)		Girls (G)		P & G Combined	
	No.	%	No	%	No	%
Male	75	71.4	51	68.0	126	70.0
Female	19	18.1	12	16.0	31	17.2
Equal for both	11	10.5	12	16.0	23	12.8
Total	105	100.0	75	100.0	180	100.0

Even though the respondents accepted that further education and for that matter schooling generally, is important for girls, they contended that boys need it the more. The reasons offered for this view held showed that there were no definite traditional beliefs or taboos that inhibited the further schooling of girls in the area of study.

The notion was rather a sheer frame of mind developed through socio-cultural conditioning which is given greater impetus by, especially, the fear of the risk of pregnancy leading to dropout and wastage of scarce resources.

That the girls themselves shared this negative conception about girls' further education is quite revealing. Stereotyped patterns of socialization that differentiate between roles for the two sexes are very prevalent in such areas with these patterns inherited right from childhood in the homes and in the community. Rogers (1980) notes that in the socialization process, while boys are thought to be fit for places of responsibility, girls are considered to be dependent, their important role in life being marriage. Thus right from childhood, girls themselves

lose their self-motivation for upward mobility, thinking that such is the prerogative for males and not for them.

With costs borne by education users being generally higher at the secondary level than at the basic level, the limited economic

Table 2
Parents' Occupation as Given by Parents

Occupation	No.	%
Farming	93	88.6
Trading	4	3.8
Food Processing	1	1.0
Driving	1	1.0
Teaching	3	2 9
Not working	3	2.9
Total	105	100.0

Table 3
Type Of Farming Practised By Parents

Type	No.	%
Food crops for home consumption only	58	62.4
Food crops with surpluses for sale	20	21.5
Cash crops	15	16.1
Total	93	100.0

4. The study showed that the poor economic status of the parents adversely affected the participation of their daughters in further education. As revealed by tables 2 and 3, these parents were mainly subsistence farmers.

resources of parents, against a backdrop of their negative taditional mentality about the female gender, make them give preference to boys rather than to girls where a choice has to be made.

5 Readily available economic opportunities for the self-employment of girls were found to be existent in the rural areas of Brong Ahafo. These are mainly traditional subsistence farming and petty trading which invariably require little or no educational background for engaging in (see Table 4). Due to the involvement of girls in these economic activities by their parents, the girls tend to develop the desire for them as readily available means of satisfying their financial needs. The exposure of the girls to these ventures at such early stages of their lives could stifle their desire for any further schooling. Though the activities are "low-productivity" and "low-income" ventures (Oppong and Abu, 1981), because of the girls' early attraction to them they are seen as perhaps the only or easiest means of getting money without the need for any further schooling.

Table 4
Available Economic Attractions Open to Girls

Type of Activity	RESPONSES					
	Parents (P)		Girls (G)		P & G Combined	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
	150	100	110	1000	260	1000
Farming	86	57.3	51	46.4	137	52.0
Trading	33	22.0	37	33.6	70	26.9
Dressmaking	13	8.7	8	7.3	21	8.1
Hairdressing	3	2.0	2	1.8	5	1.9
Teaching	2	1.3	6	5.5	8	3.1
Ward Assistance	1	0.7	1	0.9	2	0.8
Food processing	8	5.3	5	4.5	13	5.0
Uncertain	4	2.7	-	-	4	1.5

Table 5
Level of Schooling as Given by Girls Themselves and Parents

Level	Parents (P)		Girls G		P & G Combined	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
No Schooling	61	58.1	108	72	169	66.3
P1 - P6	13	12.4	8	5.3	21	8.2
M1 - M4	26	24.7	25	16.7	51	20.0
Above M4	5	4.8	3	2.0	8	3.1
Not Aware	-	-	6	4.0	6	2.4
Total	105	100.0	150	100.0	255	100.0

6. The little educational background or the lack of it of the vast majority of parents in rural Brong Ahafo, tends to limit their perception concerning the importance of formal education generally (see Table 5 above). With their lack of any inner drive, they would not be able to easily perceive the need to sacrifice the necessary means towards the further schooling of their children especially the girls who are already placed at a disadvantaged position as a result of socio-cultural conditioning.

   It is worthy to note that, while the factor that apparently bears the greatest sway resulting in the low participation of girls in secondary education is the poor economic status of families, a much closer look reveals that the main underlying factor is the negative socio-cultural orientation concerning the status of a female in life. With an improvement in the economic circumstances of females, the effects of the various other factors that militate against the further schooling of girls are likely to be minimised to a considerable degree. However, a complete eradication of the problem may be achieved to the extent that the socio-cultural orientation of people concerning the place of a woman in society is redirected.

Suggested Remedial Measures

On the basis of the findings of this study and comments of other scholars on the subject, the following remedial measures are suggested for improving the participation of females in secondary education in rural Brong Ahafo.

1. An improvement in the economic circumstances of the rural folk is of paramount importance to enable parents, in addition to their other commitments, afford the secondary education of their children including the girls. Harbison (1973) points out that as one of the ways of improving the living levels of rural dwellers, there is the need for farmers in the subsistence sector to have access to technical help and credit to enable them work out their farm holdings more intensively. To this end, positive steps would need to be taken by the Ministry of Agriculture to ensure that agricultural extension services actually reach the subsistence and small-scale farmers in the rural communities with a view to exposing them to modern and appropriate farming techniques to improve their farm yields. Credit facilities are to be extended to these farmers so as to provide them with a capital base on which to expand and improve their farms. The credit institutions and the agricultural estension services department may need to collaborate in directing the farmers as to how to put the credit to the most effective use including the proper maintenance of their farms in order that unnecessary losses are not incurred.

2. The change in the negative traditional conception about the status of females in society and the total recovery of the self-image of womanhood constitute a key issue that need to be addressed. To this end, concerted action should be consciously and vigorously pursued from various dimensions. District assemblies would be required to take the lead in organising regular campaigns within the various constituencies to arouse public awareness on the subject of the equality of the sexes and the avoidance of any form of discrimination and abuse against the female sex.

   The District Assemblies need to collaborate with the Traditional Councils to create forums to educate chiefs, regents, queen mothers and elders of the towns and villages for their thorough understanding and acceptance of the issue of the equality of the sexes, and the achievement of their total support and involvement in the awareness creation processes within their various localities.

   Women organisations such as the

National Council on Women and Development (NCWD) and the 31st December Women's Movement would need to organise regular meetings with the queen mothers and the general women folk of the towns and villages to educate them on the equality they share with men and to stimulate a sense of self-confidence and self-motivation in them. Religious organisations are to be encouraged to give expression to the subject at their gatherings.

3. During the public education processes, emphasis would have to be placed on the importance of schooling generally, and further education in particular, and the equal opportunities available to both boys and girls to develop their full potentials at all levels of education in the country. The important role women could play with their developed potentials in community and national development programmes would have to be emphasised.

4. Parents would have to be educated during the public forums on their need to take an active interest in the overall education of their girls, making the same amount of sacrifices on them as they would on their boys.

5. There would be the need for an intensification of education against teenage pregnancy and the encouragement of girls to lead sound moral lives to protect their dignity by not cheapening themselves out to satisfy the unrestrained passion of some men. This would go a long way to allay the fear of dropout and wastage resulting from pregnancy that has often heightened parents' lack of desire to cater for their daughters in further schooling.

6. In the schools, girls need to be encouraged to recognise themselves as possessing similar capabilities as their male counterparts, and to strive to compete on equal basis with boys in all subject and course areas, and at all the levels of education. They are to be encouraged to, as much as possible, depend on their own female colleagues for assistance in problems they encounter in their work rather than on their male counterparts.

   Teachers would need to be urged to refrain from making any remarks or doing anything that would seem to portray girls as naturally low-achievers relative to boys.

   There may be the need to organise occasional career sessions in the

schools where females would be encouraged to take to the more technical and scientific disciplines which have long been styled as masculine areas in order to ensure their equal chances as males in their future employment careers. In connection with this, artificial barriers in schools in which certain courses are sex labelled are to be discouraged so that as girls consider entering certain courses they would not be haunted by the fear that they are venturing into male "sacred" zones.

7. Female resource persons may also be invited to deliver lectures to pupils in the schools occasionally in order for their presence to motivate the girls for more schooling.

8. Finally, it is recommended that periodic excursions be organised in the basic schools in the rural areas for pupils to visit establishments and institutions in urban centres where women are found in various job positions, in other to broaden the horizons of the girls in the world of work.

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CHOOSING A SINGLE-SEX SCHOOL : ELITE CLONING MOTIVE OR QUEUE JUMPING AMBITION ?

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ABSTRACT

Headmasters and headmistresses, who are the direct managers of our secondary boarding Schools, each year go through stessful pressures from parents who besiege their offices seeking admission for their children. Those who manage single-sex secondary boarding schools, as observed, tend to undergo more of the pressures. This study shows that both elites and non-elites want these single-sex boarding schools for their children because the formet see such schools as a means of socially reproducing themselves, while the latter see these schools as a means of upward social mobility through their children. The implications of the findings for educational management / policy are discussed.

Introduction

One area that has long deserved sociological research in Ghana is the quest for an explanation for the increased and increasing preference for single-sex schooling. The choice between single-sex and mixed-sex schooling has been left with the Ghanaian parent for decades. The special liking for single-sex schooling has also been with us for decades. In recent times, however, this special liking has turned out to become an undue pressure on heads of senior secondary schools when admissions open for fresh students in January each year.

Not enough studies have been done to find out the class of people who typically choose single-sex or mixed-sex schools for their children and wards. Nor have enough studies been done to determine the factors that influence parents and gurardians' decision to choose single-sex schools in particular (Lee and Marks, 1992). I argue that a two-tier reason explains the phenomenal increase in the preference for single-sex schooling. I argue that both elites and non-elites perceive schooling in general as a structure providing opportunities for status maintenance and status attainment. That is, whereas the elites perceive schooling as a structure providing opportunities for them to clone themselves socially , the non-elites on the other hand, perceive it as a means of upward social mobility through their children. In this regard, single-sex schooling is perceived by both elites and non-elites as the true opportunity structure.

Background

Western education made its debut in Ghana in the 16th century, but it did not really get extablished until the arrival of the Christian missionary societies in the 19th century. Even though the Christian mission schools got established through a lot of difficulty, eventually they were embraced and clamoured for by a large section of the community. A remarkable feature of these schools was their predominantly single-sex character.

Whereas the all-male schools among them were set up essentially to train pastors, catechists, teachers, professionals and other sections of the intelligentsia, the all-female ones were set up essentially to train worthy partners for the pastors, catechists, teachers and other gentlemen being educated in the all-male schools (Edwards and Tisdale, 1989). Hence the curricular emphasis of all-female mission schools, until recently, were literature, languages, cookery, dressmaking, home management and others (Masemann, 1974). In spite of their initial disparate curricular emphases, both all-male and all-female schools tended to, and still tend to be academically oriented.

Mixed-sex schooling became a common feature of the Ghanaian secondary school system when the colonial administration entered the field in the 1920's. Since then, mixed-sex schools have made useful contributions to the deveopment of education in the country. In spite of their contributions, however, these schools have not enjoyed as much prestige as their single-sex counterparts. Instead of their strong points, some weaknesses inherent in mixed-sex schooling have been highlighted. One such apparent weakness is that the mixed-sex school setting does not seem to provide a salutary academic environment for adolescents (Goodlad, 1984). The reason assigned is that when adolescent boys and girls meet together in the same school, there is usually the tendency for them to be distracted from academic work.

It is further argued that mixed-sex schooling is a means of socialising boys and girls into different roles in a gender-stratified society such as ours. In other words, boys are prepared for their roles in the world of the dominant class, whereas girls are prepared for their roles in the world of the silent dominated class. In spite of these alleged negative features and outcomes of mixed-sex schooling, it still has a large clientele.

Literature Review

Most of the research on single-sex and mixed-sex schooling usually deal with the relative advantages in single-sex schooling, particularly for females (Lee and Lockheed, 1990). There is paucity of research the world over, on who goes to a single-sex school or a mixed-sex school. In Ghana in particular, such studies are virtually non-existent. The few studies done elsewhere reveal, however, that single-sex s chools tend to

recruit their students from among the elite (Marsh, 1989 ; Riordan, 1990).

Regarding why most parents prefer single-sex schools to mixed-sex schools, Lee and Bryck (1986) as well as Lee and Marks (1992) seem to suggest that many parents believe that single-sex schools have a more academic orientation, and that such schools have more protected environments. Hence they are perceived to be functioning as opportunity structures for status attainment. One other reason, according to Lee and Marks (1992) is that most single-sex schools have a strong religious orientation which minimises, if not rule out acts of indiscipline. They conclude that parents choose single-sex schools for their children and wards because of the safety and discipline in their religious environments. Such enviornments, they argue, offer guarantees of academic excellence, which in turn guarantees high chances of University admission.

With particular reference to females, single-sex schooling is said to be devoid of stereotyped patterns of gender relations which intimidate them in mixed-sex settings (Lee and Marks, 1992). Hence single-sex schooling is said to offer an equitable and sound education for females. Single-sex schooling therefore, is said to equip females with the ability to overcome the disadvantaging effects of discrimination in a gender-stratified society (Lee and Marks, 1990).

The scanty literature thus suggests that different categories of parents send their children and wards to single-sex schools for essentially different reasons. Some parents do so because, as perceived, such schools offer guarantees of University entry, whereas others do so because of their religious and safe enviromnents. I extend this literature by exploring for the factors that influence parents and guardians in their choice of single-sex or mixed-sex Senior Secondary Schools for their children and wards. My point of departure, however, is that whereas previous researchers attribute choice of single-sex schools to conservative (religious) motives and educational opportunity motives, I try to attribute the tendency to social reproduction (elite cloning) and status attainment (social mobility) motives. I hypothesise that :

H_1 : The higher the socioeconomic status of the family, the more likely it is that they will choose a single-sex school for their child or ward.

This hypothesis is derived from the literature. According to the literature, most students in single-sex schools come from high-status backgrounds (Lee and Marks, 1992. Naturally then, elite parents will be more likely than non-elite parents to choose single-sex schools apparently because they have greater insight into what goes on is such schools.

Robert Merton (1965) theorises that an opportunity structure is required if social goals are to be achieved. Translated into concrete reality, the theory suggests that in every society there is the need for an opportunity structure to enable individuals and groups to achieve their goals. Two of such goals are social mobility and social reproduction. Thus single-sex schooling would appear to serve as an opportunity structure for individuals to either clone themselves socially, or to be upwardly mobile. Aware of the dynamics of society, the elite would consider single-sex schooling as the sure and meritocratic way to the realisation of their goal of social reproduction, whereas the non-elite would consider it as a sure means of jumping the queue. Accordingly, they would select single-sex schools for their children and wards. On the basis of these. I hypothesise that:

H_{2a} : The perceived promise of social reproduction through academic success will be predictive of parents' choice of single-sex schools for their children and wards.

H_{2b} : The perceived promise of upward social mobility through academic success will be predictive of parents' choice of single-sex schools for their children and wards.

Method

The Sample : Data for the study were collected between March and April 1996 from 614 parents with children or wards in senior secondary schools in a Ghanaian municipality. The multi-stage sampling technique was employed. First, all the Senior Secondary Schools in the municipality were purposively included in the sample. At the next stage, classes from which individual students were to be selected in each school were selected through simple random sampling. Finally the students in the selected classes who were to be selected for the final sample were also selected through simple random sampling. In each of the mixed-sex schools, separate lists had to be compiled for boys and girls. Through this three-stage procedure, 304 students were selected from the single-sex schools, 158 males and 146 females. Three hundred and ten students were selcected from the mixed-sex schools ; 152 males, and 158 females.

Instrument and Procedure

The sole data collection instrument was the questionnaire. Information sought through the questionnaire included items such as sex of the student and the level of education of the father or male guardian of the student. Other items sought information on reasons why the school the focal student was attending was chosen by the parents or guardians.

Towards the end of the first term of the 1996 academic year, questionnaires were distributed to the students randomly selected for onward submission to their parents or guardians. Seven hundred questionnaires were sent out. Out of this 614 (about 88 %) were returned.

Data and Measures

The dependent variable is choice or non-choice of a single-sex school, a dummy variable. Single-sex school was weighted 2, and mixed-sex school, 1. The independent variables are socio economic status of the family, perceived mobility opportunities through further education. and perceived opportunities for social reproduction through education. Finding appropriate questions to measure these two opportunity structure motives was quite difficult, because unless carefully framed, a question might turn out to be leading subjects to respond in a certain directtion. To come around this problem a number of statements were drafted and shown to colleagues and graduate students to comment on. The question and statements below emerged as the most suitable measure of the two opportunity motives :

" What is your view regarding the following statements supposed to explain your choice of the school this child is attending ?"

1. Because we believe that only schools of that type offer the prospects for further education for the child..

2. Because we notice that most of the top people in our society are known to send their children to schools of that type.

The assumption underlying the second statement is that elite parents naturally arrive at this reason after a careful observation that the established elite have the tendency of reproducing themselves socially through the education of their children in certain types of school. The response categories were recoded, so that, "very necessarily so", came to have a value of 4, "necessarily so," 3, "not necessarily so," 2, and "not at all necessarily so", 1. Father's education was used as proxy for the family's socioeconomic status. It was measured in number of years, and then recoded and categorised into 4, namely, no formal education, 1, less than secondary school education, 2, secondary school education or equivalent, 3, and the bachelor's degree and beyond, 4.

The control variables are the sex of the focal student, the fact that the school has boarding facilities, the fact that the school has no disciplinary problem, the fact that the school has a strong religious orientation and because of the school's gender composition. With the exception of the sex of the student, which is a dummy variable, male or female, all the control variables were measured on a 4-point scale.

Analysis and Results

Descriptive Analysis

An essential component of most data analyses is the determination of relationships between variables. One basic means to this end is cross- tabulation. Though it is unable to capture all the complex interrelationships among variables, cross -tabulations have the

advantage of yielding straightforward interpretable results (Bankston and Zhou, 1995). Against this background, cross-tabular analyses were done to determine the various relationships in the data.

The first of the cross-tabular analyses concerned the relationship between father's education and choice of school type. The results of that analysis show that among the fathers with children and wards in the single-Sex schools, most of them have secondary school education or beyond. Not so many of fathers with children and wards in the mixed-sex schools are so highly educated. This relationship between level of education and choice of a single-sex school is statistically significant ($x^2 = 37.66$, $d\ f\ 1$, $p < .01$). This relationship suggests that though a large section of the community tend to prefer single -sex schooling these days, the elite tend to do so more often that the non-elite do. This finding is thus consistent with previous findings (Jimenez and Lockheed, 1989; Lee and Bryck, 1986; and Lee and Lockheed, 1990).

Other cross-tabular analyses were done to determine the proportion of parents who agreed or disagreed with the statements suggesting the reasons why parents choose single-sex or mixed-sex schools for their children and wards. The results are shown in Table 1.

The results present an interesting picture. Opportunity seems to be a very important explanation for the choice of a school. Regarding " prospects for further education ", the respondents were so overwhelmingly in agreement with the statement.

Parent with children in single-sex schools, however, seem to be more in agreement ($x^2 = 43.59$).This suggests that parents will choose a school for their children and wards after they have convinced themselves that the school has a strong academic orientation guaranteeing prospects for further education for their children.

We notice further that most parents tend to compare themselves with successful elites in their choice of schools for their children and wards. However, regarding "most respondents send their children there", the respondents were so overwhelmingly in agreement with the statement that there is no statistically significant difference between the two categories of parents. The tendency may suggest that elites, in their bid for social reproduction through education, tend to compare themselves with their like who have succeeded in reproducing themselves socially through education. Successful and established elites thus serve as reference groups for the burgeoning elite. The two elite groups also serve as reference groups to the non-elite.

Table 1
Percentage Distribution of Parents Agreeing with Statements Explaining Choice of School Type

Statement	Parent 1	Parent 2	X^2
Prospects for further education	84 %	60 %	43.59 * *
Most prominent people send their children there	99 %	99.4 %	0.00
School has religious orientation	49 %	43 %	1.84
Because of the school's gender composition	70 %	54 %	17.80 * *
Because the school has no discipline problem	44 %	27 %	7.50
Because the school has boarding facilities	52 %	63 %	19.40 * *

Note : * * P < . 01
Parent 1 = parents with children in single-sex schools
Parent 2 = parents with children in mixed-sex schools

Table 2
Logistic Regression Coefficients of Variables Explaining Choice of Single-Sex Schools

	Model 1	Model 2
Variable	Beta	Beta
Father's education (SES)	.39 * * (.07)	.38 * * (.18)
Prominent people send their children there (social reproduction motive)	.37 * * (.09)	.36 * * (.10)
Opportunities for further education motive (social mobility motive	.64 * * (.16)	.57 * * (.16)
No discipline problem		.15 (.10)
School's gender composition		.14 * (.07)
School's religious orientation		.08 (.11)
School's boarding facilities		.31 * * (.08)
Sex of Student		.03 (19)
Constant	2.14	1.78
_ 2 Log Likelihood x^2 = 743.15		721.92
df = 3		df = 8

* P < 05 * * P < . 01

Standard errors are in parenthesis

Multivariate Analysis

As indicated earlier, the dependent variable is a binary response, choice or non-choice of a single-sex school. Because the variable has a binary response, 1 or 2, logistic regression was employed for the data analysis. The multivariate analysis was done in two phases. The first phase involved a model designed to test the three hypotheses. The results of that analysis are presented in Table 2.

As Table 2 shows, the data support the first hypothesis. That is, the higher the socioeconomic status of the family, the more likely it is that they will choose a single-sex school for their child(ren). Socioeconomic background is thus a predictor of the choice of a single-sex or a mixed-sex school. The two-tier hypothesis is also supported by the data. The belief that single-sex schools offer high prospects for further educatiuon, and the observation that prominent people in society tend to send their children and wards to single-sex schools, both explain parents' preference for such schools. Both of these results suggest that both elite and non-elite parents choose single-sex schools for their children and wards because of the promise that their social goals will be realised through the education of their children and wards in such schools.

The second model was designed to test the three hypotheses when factors identified in the literature are taken into account. This phase of the analysis shows that even when these background factors are controlled for, socioeconomic status and opportunities for social self-cloning and social mobility are still important explanations for parents' special preference for single-sex schools.

Summary and Discussion

This study was designed to seek explanations for the increased preference of Ghanaian parents for single-sex secondary schools for their children and wards. All the three hypotheses are supported by the data. The results show that socio-economic status in most cases determines the type of school parents will choose for their child or ward. Thus we notice that higher-status parents tend to choose single-sex schools more than less high-status parents do. If single-sex schools and mixed-sex schools charge comparable fees, then something inherent in single-sex schooling may account for their relative popularity. That something is the opportunity for social reproduction and social mobility.

I theorise that the opportunity for either maintaining one's social status, or the opportunity to ascend into a higher social status are the most important explanations for the choice of a single-sex school. The reason is that those who have had the advantage of the "Eurupean school" have always sought to reproduce themselves socially. The non-elite, as well as the up-and-coming elite, seeing

the established elite as their reference groups, also have sought to raise their social status so as to come socially closer to the established elite. And as Merton (1965) theorised, an opportunity structure enabling groups and individuals to achieve their social goals must be available if the effects of the stratification system are to be mitigated. The desired opportunity structure is perceived to be provided in single--sex schooling. I conclude and emphasise therefore, that the elite choose single-sex schools for elite cloning purposes, whereas the non-elite choose these schools for social mobility purposes.

The outcome of this study has implications for educational policy. A relevant question is why some parents have to cross districts and even regions seeking admission for their children in single-sex schools. The obvious answer is that parents want good quality education, for their children. When we talk of good quality education, however, we do not have one item in mind ; good quality education means good teachers, good and adequate materials and facilities for effective teaching and learning, and a congenial atmosphere for education. It is obvious that whereas a few of the well established schools, most of them urban-based and single-sex, are endowed with these resources for education, the mass of younger less established schools cannot boast of even the barest minimum amounts of these resources. As long as the less established schools continue to languish in apparent neglect, parents with educational aspirations for their children will continue to "invade" the "good schools" in January each year.

All this suggests that the resources for teaching and learning are not equitably distributed to the nation's schools. Thus as we talk so much of community schools these days, unless the state takes a more critical look at the distribution of the human and material resources for education in the schools countrywide, we cannot talk of equalisation of educational opportunity. We cannot talk of the democratisation of secondary education either.

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ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT FOR THE TEACHING OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORTS COACHING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the areas where administrative support are offered by physical education teachers and sports coaches in the discharge of their duties. The paper also analyzes how the adnibistrative support is being offered. It is hoped that such an awareness will make them conscious of the need for them to be effective, dynamic and creative as physical education teachers and sports coaches.

The paper discusses the position of Physical Education in the country's educational policy as recommended by Ghana Education Review Committee of 1994 which made the subject a non-externally examinable subject. The paper suggests that the subject should be made a core subject at all levels and an externally examinable subject at Senior Secondary Certificate Examinantion level. It is concluded that if adequate and genuine administrative support is offered and the subject is made a core and an externally examinable subject it will be more appreciated and a better awareness of its usefulness will be enhanced.

Introduction

There is no question about the laudable role that Physical Education as a discipline plays in the school. PhysicalEducation plays many roles and these roles can be beneficial to individuals, groups and even the society at large depending on how they are viewed and what is to be achieved. One of the key roles as Nixon & Jewett (1980) stated is for health and fitness and every other thing depends on this role.

Other roles of physical education are for cognitive development, soical emotional development, physical development, developing body-image and creativity (Freeman, 1982, Fait, 1971 & Dowell, 1975). Through Physical Education we develop the spirit of cooperation as well as build the much desired qualities of life such as endurance and versatility. A well planned and executed programme of Physical Education exposes children to the basic element of social life, human relationship and dynamics of living.According to Dauer (1971), when a child is at leisure, an experience of Physical Education will enable him/her to spend the leisure time wisely and effectively.

It must be realized that the main concern of Physical Education is human movement as it concerns primarily, the gross movements of the body. Physical Education can also be seen as education through the physical in which the aim is to influence all facets of educational development, such as the mental, social and emotional growth. This way, Physical Education develops a person's whole body through the use of the physical means. As Physical Education develops the body, the mind is equally growing and expanding to influence daily living positively. (Nixon & Jewett, 1980 ; Freeman, 1982 ; Fait 1971 and Dowell, 1975).

In the opinion of Dauer (1971), physical education helps in reaching one's full potential intellectually, physically, socially and emotionally through the medium of physical activities and these activities in turn are useful in motivating the learning of other subjects.

Physical Education is interested basically in all human movements and since human movements are so numerous and encompassing, according to Nixon & Jewett (1980), formal studies and programmes in Physical Education in contemporary societies are concentrated in movements designated by such terms as sport, athletics, dance, gymastics, aquatics and exercise.

In Ghana, Physical Education is accorded a less popular position by the recommendation of the Ghana Education Reforms Review Committee of 1994. The reform makes Physical Education a compulsory core subject in both 6 years of Primary School, and 3 years of Junior Secondary School. It is compulsory in the last 3 years of the Senior Secondary but not externally examinable. The fact that the subject will not be examined alongside other subjects such as Chemistry, Biology, Mathematics etc, at the SSCE level makes it unpopular and less appreciated. The 1994 Education Reform Review Committee agreed that Physical Education should be emphasised at all levels of education, and be included amongst the subjects from which the syllabus for Integrated Science and Life Skills should be carved. This is a postive development but the subject itself is yet to be fully embraced by the students, teachers and even the parents, because of its status as a non externally examinable subject. The other subjects, such as Geography, Economics and History are more popular than Physical Education in Ghana because they are externally examinable. There is also the need for the evolvement of a comprehensive national syllabus for Physical Education at the Elementary and Junior Secondary School levels.

In order that Physical Education as a subject will adequately play its role both to the society at large and to individuals, it is imperative that there must be effective administrative support for its

teaching and for sports coaching in schools.

Admistration has been explained in different ways by writers, researchers and practitioners. A simple definition as presented by Frost and Marshall (1977) is that it is the guidance, leadership and control of efforts of a group of people towards achieving a goal. Providing effective administrative support is one of the most important responsibilities of a physical education teacher or sports coach. With adequate administrative support, students will be motivated to outstanding performance since they will have a better attitude towards physical education, which in turn will elicit more commitment and dedication. By providing adequate adminstrative support, Physical Education teachers or Sports coaches are increasing the number and kinds of rewards available to sutdents. They are also helping to clarify realistic expectations and reduce barriers to the accomplishment of valued Physical Education objectives (Halpin, 1966 ; Frost and Marshall, 1977 and Onifade, 1994).

Chelladurai (1985), argued that Physical Education teachers and sports coaches as administrators must provide guidance and teach structured activities for children in addition to providing social support especially when these are lacking in the school.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the areas where adminsitrative suppport should be provided and how Physical Education teachers and Sports coaches can provide administrative support in discharging their duties.

Administrative Problems and Support in the Teaching of Physical Education and Sports Coaching in Secondary Schools

Frost and Marshall's definition of administration will translate to mean that everybody at whatever level in the school system is expected to provide some adminstrative support to the teaching of physical education or coaching of sports. Some of the administrative problems that need support in the teaching of Physical Education and sports coaching are :

A. Funding

The bulk of the funding for Secondary School Physical Education is from government grants. It will be an understatement to say that this grant is never suffiicient for the teaching of physical education and sports coaching. Almost all African schools are grossly underfunded, thus making the teaching of physical education ineffective, since money is not available to procure needed equipment and build facilities. (Adeoti, 1986 & Onifade, 1992).

What is needed in the area of funding is that physical education teachers, sports coaches and school principals must

solicit more aggresively for funds. This could be from Parent Teacher Associations, Philantropists, Corporate bodies. Students too could be made to pay a special sports levy to improve funding.

B. Personnel and Support Staff

There is a serious shortage of Physical Education teachers and sports coaches in our schools. Omidiran (1987), confirmed this when he argues that there was only one Physical Education teacher to 922 students in Oyo-state of Nigeria. This situation is similar in most African schools. Some schools do not even have any but make do with a classroom teacher performing the function of a physical education teacher.

Even when Physical Education is on the time table some teachers use the periods for teaching other subjects. Onifade (1988), argued that adequate and quality teachers are what we need to achieve Physical Education objectives in schools. Ideally there should be 1 teacher to 25 students for effective learning of the subject to take place. The inadequate number of Physical Education teachers and Sports coaches could jeopardize the achievement of the obvjectives of Basic Education Sector Improvement Programme in Ghana. Furthermore, the few available Physical Education teachers are overworked, thus making them unable to give their best. One wonders if Physical Education teachers and Sports coaches alone can achieve their respective objectives.

There is the absolute need to have well trained, qualified, efficient and committed support staff in form of groundsmen and store keepers. These support staff are simply not available in our schools.

The groundsman is to function in the maintenance and repairs of some sports facilities and equipment. On the other hand, the store keeper is to ensure proper storage of materials and equipment. Some form of adminstrative support will be provided if adequate and quality staff are employed. Another adminstrative support is to ensure that staff improve themeselves through attendance of professional in-service training courses, seminars and workshops.

C. Facilities and Equipment

Facilities and equipment are grossly inadequate for the teaching of Physical Education and sports coaching in our schools. The scientific nature of Physical Education makes the use of up-to-date facilities and equipment for practical physical education, very essential.

Omidiran (1990), Ayodabo (1986) & Onifade (1989) diagnosing the Nigerian schools contended that most schools do not even have what can be referred to as the minimum standard of facilities and equipment. The problem of facilities and equipment is two fold : one is that some schools have spaces which are not developed while some, especially in cities and hilly or undulating low lands do

not even have the space for the construction of facilities. Yet in some other schools, playing spaces are converted to additional classrooms. The case is not different in other West African countries.

The consequence of all these is that the practical activities domain of physical education are not taught, hence the objectives of Basic Education Sector Improvement Programme in Ghana to a large extent cannot be realised with regards to Physical Education. The adminstrative support needed in this direction is that Secondary School Physical Education teachers especially, and sports coaches should become creative and have a high sense of initiative in improvising for facilities and equipment..

The truth of the matter is that it may be unrealistic to expect government alone to provide adequate and standard facilities and equipment in every school. A new development could be joint provision and joint use. Onifade, (1989) and Omidiran (1990) suggested that all levels of government : national, regional and district as the case may be in any given country should jointly provide and develop one or two sports facilities for a particular school and then do the same for another neighbouring school but this time for a differenct sport. The idea is that if the three levels of government develop different sports in different neighbouring schools within a walking distance, these schools can still teach their Physical Education classes adequately through a joint use of facilities and this can be referred to as a "SCHOOL VILLAGE CONCEPT ".

Another administrative support in solving the problem of inadequate facilities is the development of multi-purpose facilities. This way a particular facility could be developed to allow for the teaching of up to four different sport skills. (Onifade, 1989 & Imidiran, 1990).

D. Scheduling

In most Secondary Schools, Physical Education is on the school time table. However, most Physical Education teachers prefer to utilize the period for sporting activities or for teaching of other subjects. Teachers in the profession must ensure and endeavour to enhance and propagate their profession by preparing well for the classes and going out to teach these classes. Teachers, no doubt are accorded low status in our society but this mnust be changed by physical education teachers by displaying a positive attitude and pride towards their job..

E. Changing Room / Showers

One serious problem of Physical Education teaching in our schools is lack of changing room / showeres. This has prevented many teachers, especially women from showing interest in teaching Physical Education. Many students too, for a similar reason have refused to choose the subject as one of their school subjects. This facility is just not available in our schools.

more over, most school time-tables are such that there is no opportunity for students to take any shower. This is because students in most cases have to go for another lesson immediately after the Physical Education lesson.

The time has come for a radical approach to the issue of non-availability of changing / shower facility. Physical education teachers must now insist on the provision of changing rooms and shower facility for their students, taking into consideration their peculiar school environment and situations.

F. Textbooks / Materials

There is a serious dearth of Physical Education textbooks and materials for both teachers and students. The few available ones are not standard and are mostly written by foreign authors with facts based on their own local environment. The facts might not be applicable and relevant to the African environment. With scarcity of textbook materials, students have little opportunity of complementing and clarifying facts given in class. It is difficult for them to read to discover and learn on their own. Another problem is that available textbooks, especially those written by African authors emphasize only games and sports. They do not therefore reflect Physical Education as a subject having both practical and theoretical components.

The needed administrative support on textbooks is that physical educa-tion teachers, especially those with a minimum of first degree should either individually or jointly strife to write textbooks, monographs and journal or magazine articles in line with secondary school Physical Education syllabus.

Conclusion

In conclusion, if adequate and genuine administrative support is provided in the teaching of physical education and coaching of Sports, there could be a change of attitude towards the subject as a profession and an academic entity and the subject could earn the needed respect and recognition it deserves. The subject could also become one of the school popular subjects. In fact if the subject is to be well taught, its relationship with the various physical sciences should be capitalised on in all teaching and learning situations in the classroom, laboratories and on the field of play. Physical Education can only be given a pride of place in Ghana if it is made an externally examinable core subject at the Junior and Senior Secondary School levels.

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THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL HEAD IN FINANCIAL ADMINISTRATION IN GHANA

(Modified version of paper presented at a seminar on school management and financial administration for heads of newly opened SSS and newly appointed heads of old Senior Secondary Schools at GESDI, Adjumako, 1993)

J.S.K. Owusu

ABSTRACT

A very crucial aspect in the head's administration of a school is his financial management. Sound financial management results in efficient utilization of resources and succeeds in raising the development of the school.

Many of the heads of schools in Ghana do not, unfortunately, have the opportunity to pursue a basic course in financial administration prior to their appointment as heads. This paper attempts to discuss certain fundamental principles and practices in financial management, knowledge of which heads urgently require.

The paper discusses the role of the head as School Business Manager and the efforts he has to make to obtain extra funding for his school. It raises pertinent issues that guide effective preparation of budget estimates and touches on the head's responsibilities in important fiscal control measures.

It is hoped the paper will be of some benefit to heads and prospective heads of our schools in Ghana.

Introduction

The head of a school performs a number of administrative functions. His success as an administrator, leader and manager of the school is assessed in terms of the efficiency with which he performs these functions. His performance sets the tone and quality of the school. This is exemplified by the observation of the Commonwealth Secretariat (1993): "it is widely recognised and agreed that one of the key factors influencing school effectiveness is the nature and quality of the leadership and management provided by each school head" (p.v).

Of all the functions that confront the head, the role he plays in financial administration is the most crucial, critical and, perhaps, the most important. The head's entire operation as an administrator is hinged on an adequate provision of funds and their effective disbursement to cater for the work programme of the school. Resources are scarce relative to the demand for them. It has been the common remark by many statesmen

and economists that "educational expenditures, and thus costs, have been rising over the years," as Akongbou (1987), for instance, points out, "and it is therefore necessary to know the factors that are responsible for this increase and how it can be controlled" (p.74). For this and other reasons, heads experience much strain and anxiety about what funds will be released to them to enable the work programme of their institutions proceed as planned. They hardly obtain the funds they actually need for the activities of the schools to be carried out. Any amount released to their schools must be carefully and appropriately utilized not just because public opinion is always critical about how school funds are expended, but mostly because the best possible returns are expected to come out of available funds.

The role of the head in financial administration is therefore a very crucial one and the head has to strictly adhere to the financial regulations as they apply to his school. To be an efficient manager, the head has to equip himself with sufficient knowledge of and acquire competence in financial management.

The financial administration of the school head covers a number of important aspects. In this paper, only some of the most pressing issues that constantly recur in the head's financial administration are discussed.

School Business Manager

The head of an educational institution is considered the School Business Manager. As his major responsibility, he has to work towards the procurement and effective disbursement of funds and facilities which are essential for carrying out the work programme of the school. He has to make extra effort to obtain the required funding and he needs to adopt the right procedure which will enable him to succeed in obtaining the funds he requires. Considering the head of an educational institution "as a school planner and finance manager," the Commonwealth Secretariat (1993) strongly advises that the head "should take an active rather than a passive role in determining, mobilising and acquiring financial resources" (p.10). It is in such a way that the head is "more likely to ensure the effective implementation of your school programmes" (p.10).

Funds for the activities of the school come from various sources. Normally the Central Government makes a variety of financial provisions to the schools in the form of :

- payment of salaries of teachers and the non-teaching staff
- payment of grants for expandable and non-expandable equipment

- payment towards the construction and maintenance of school plant and provision of pavillions in some cases

- provision and maintenance of school vehicles

- subsidization, in some cases, of the feeding cost of pupils

- Health maintenance of staff and pupils.

These Government grants and fees collected from pupils/students are the normal sources of funding the school. The head has to explore other avenues for funding. Some financial assistance could be obtained from the District Assembly.

The responsibility of Local Authorities (Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assembles) in Ghana in the provision and maintenance of school buildings, school furniture and the supply of teachers' textbooks and stationery have been documented since the publication of the Education Act of 1961 (McWilliam, 1962, pp.111 & 112). The inability of these Local Authorities to effectively play their role in the provision of educational resources is reflective of the difficulty they experience in obtaining funds for their operation.

In recent years, a more effective practice of the policy of decentralization, coupled with development of the community school idea in Ghana has placed a greater amount of financial responsibility on Local Authorities. They continue to be responsible for the provision and maintenance of school buildings, furniture and the supply of other forms of equipment for basic schools and, to some extent, for secondary schools as well, particularly in respect of the newly established community secondary schools. With financial assistance from the Central Government, such as the provision of District Assembly Common Fund recently introduced in Ghana, Local Authorities are strengthened to play their financial responsibility towards development of schools in their respective local areas.

The chief and people of the community in which a school is situated have made and continue to make significant financial contributions, either direct or in kind, to the school. Their contributions include :

- providing land for school buildings, playing grounds, school farms and gardens

- providing communal labour to carry out school development projects

- making per head financial contributions for the development of the school

- carrying out fund-raising activities to raise funds for school development

- making special gifts to the school in the form of money, furniture, a plaque, or a vehicle by former pupils in the area (as well as those form outside the area)

- providing financial assistance of various types to the school by enthusiastic and public-spirited individual community members and groups.

The role played by Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs) in the finance of schools has become a living experience, particularly within the last decade or so. The construction of school blocks and science laboratories, the provision of school furniture and the supply of equipment to schools by PTAs have become a common practice in many developing countries. The PTA of the University of Cape Coast Primary School, for instance, is known to have spent close to three million cedis (¢3,000,000.00) on the rehabilitation of the school block, provision and repairs of pupils' and teachers' furniture, and the provision of doors for some classrooms which had their doors broken.

Students and their parents are the immediate recipients of direct benefits from schools. Parents therefore contribute immensely towards their children's schooling and so have a major role to play in the finance of schools. Their contributions, in addition to services rendered to the school by the PTA, include :

- providing school resources, such as textbooks, exercise books and other writing materials in respect of their children

- paying for their children's meals in boarding houses and for lunch in respect of day students

- paying sports and games fees

- paying for a building project, such as school building, housing for staff, building a shed for project work

- providing desks or tables and chairs for their children in school

- paying teachers for extra classes

- providing pocket money for their children

- paying for children's transport

- providing for other warfare needs

(Commonwealth Secretariat, Module Five, 1993, p.4).

These financial resources and material contributions do not just flow neatly and regularly to the schools. The head can be sure of receiving funds from Government sources. He, however, has to work hard to ensure the receipt of funds from other sources. His success in obtaining extra funding depends on his foresight, sense of integrity, business acumen and a development of sound relationships between him and the school staff, students, Board members, PTA members and the local community.

As a School Business Manager, the head has the responsibility of making efficient use of funds and other resources provided for his school. He must be accountable for the expenditure of any amount of money or the utilization of any physical resource. Here also, he is likely to obtain the cooperation, assistance and support of his staff, students, Board members, the PTA and others in his efforts towards extra funding only to the extent that he maintains sound accountability of funds and other resources placed at his disposal.

Preparation of Budget Estimates

The budget involves the preparation of estimates for probable incomes and expenditures for the future. It is a work programme which translates work policy of Government into monetary terms. The budget of a school translates the work programme of the school, as carefully planned by the head and his staff, into monetary terms. "The budget for the activities of an agency fixes the magnitude, the scope and the quality of services which government renders" (Millett, 1954, p. 202).

The preparation and submission of budget estimates constitute an aspect which is one important approach to obtaining funds to carry out the activities of the school. While the preparation of budget estimates is essential, the right approach to budget preparation could make a difference between schools which receive adequate or near adequate funding and those which receive just a little amount of funding.

The head of a school should make sure that budget estimates are prepared and promptly submitted. The budget, reflecting the work programme of the school, gives indication of the amount of work the school can undertake during the ensuing year. It also helps the government to know the total volume of production that will be carried out in the economy, the total expenditure, and to compare the amount of possible expenditure with probable revenue. This will enable government to decide whether to give approval to the total anticipated expenditure, that is, if the probable income will match the expenditure; reduce the volume of production if total expenditure exceeds probable income; or resort to deficit financing

and approve the expenditure to be incurred even when probable income falls short of total possible expenditure. While the ideal situation is for governments to present balanced budgets, it sometimes becomes necessary for the government to embark on deficit financing. As Millett (1954) points out, some economists and statesmen"would accept the desirability, or perhaps the necessity, of an 'unbalanced' national government budget" as a way of solving the problems of "large-scale unemployment and declining levels of industrial output" (p. 207).

If some administrative agents, such as some school heads, fail to prepare and submit their budget estimates, the volume of production, that is, total amount of productive activities in the economy in the ensuing year and its corresponding total expenditure presented to Parliament by the Minister of Finance and Economic Planning,will not portray a true picture of the productive capacity of the country. The total expenditure presented to Parliament would not cover part of the productive activities that would be performed in the economy. Such a situation is likely to result in financial constraints.

To avoid unnecessary constraints or, a least, to reduce their magnitude, it is imperative that heads of institutions, like those of other administrative agencies, do prepare and submit, through the appropriate channels, budget estimates of their organizations.

The preparation of budget estimates should not be left alone with the school accountant. It is true that the accountant will provide the detailed writing of the estimates, it is the head who, in consultation with his staff, determines the work programme of the school. It is the head who, assisted by some members of his staff, particularly the heads of department, will have to determine, for instance, the numuerical strength of his staff, both teaching and non-teaching. Again the head will have to assess, for example, the amount of expendable and non-expendable equipment and all the other physical resources the school will require for the performance of its educational activities during the next academic year, to which the budget estimates relate. The budget should necessarily reflect the educational plan of the school. In the words of Adesina (1990) "the educational plan within a school budget shows the range of educational activities of the school system during the ensuing year" (p.143). The head therefore has to direct the preparation of the budget estimates. He has to be conversant with the right approach to the preparation of budget estimates. He will receive, each year, through his super-ordinate, the District/Regional Director, guidelines for preparing budget estimates. He will have to

consult other documents like the Financial Administration Decree, 1979; Financial Administration Regulations 1979; and Financial and Accounting Instructions for Secondary Schools, Training Colleges and Educational Units.

The preparation of budget estimates is further guided by certain fundamental principles, such as the following :

The principle of limitation of time. This principle enjoins the head of an administrative agency to prepare budget estimates limited to the work programme that will be accomplished during the fiscal year. This principle underlines the necessity for administrative agencies, including schools, to prepare and submit budget estimates annually. This principle, however, applies to only recurrent (or current) budgets.

The principle of limitation of powers. By this principle, the head has to consult and obtain approval from his super-ordinate - the District/ Regional Director - before budgeting for certain priorities which constitute a new demand for the school. For example, a headmaster/headmistress has no authority to open a new stream or convert an agricultural secondary school into a secondary grammar school. He has to submit application for approval of any such a change. If the change is effected without prior approval from the Regional Directorate,a budget sumitted in respect of the change will not receive authorization. The increase in the number of streams or change in the status of the secondary school will not be permitted and the resultant budgetary implications will not be authorized. Adesina (1990), talking about what he refers to as "the budget message" states, among other things, that the budget message "explains the materials and contents of the budget" and that "it makes a statement of the educational policy of the government with which the school operates" (p.144). The school head should carry out budgetary programmes within the limits of the educational policy of the government.

Zero budgeting. This is another principle which heads should take into consideration when preparing budget estimates. Zero budgeting is resorted to by presenting every request in the budge estimates as an entirely fresh item based on current demands of the institution. The temptation of copying everything or almost everything from a previously approved budget is not recommended. Current demands should be based on the present condition of the school, although past experience will guide the present situation. As Adesina (1990) puts it, "the expenditure plan must rely on past experiences and estimates of current costs" (p.143). It is most likely that an item or a few items

presented in previous budget estimates may be repeated in the current estimates since such requests might be pertinent now as they were a year or two ago. However, the practice of some heads making current estimates almost a photo-copy of a previous budget should be avoided. Presenting requests for the current budget as fresh demands instils in the head the responsibility of planning for the future development of the school and projecting this development on the budget. Budgets should be made to portray the future developments of administrative agencies such as a secondary schools. To show the relationship between the current and existing or past budgets, Millett (1954) points out :

> To portray a realistic situation it is common practice to make administrative heads state three headings of figures in the budget estimate : the actual expenditures in the most recently completed fiscal year, the actual appropriation made for the current year, and the requested expenditure for the next fiscal year (p.216).

Such practice compels the administrative head to plan specifically for the new budget and present estimates that portray a new financial demand for the school. In Ghana, the actual appropriation made for the current year is limited to the first six months of the current year since expenditure for the whole y ear will not have been made before commencement of the budget estimates preparation.

Current-expense budget and capital-improvement budget. School heads or perhaps more appropriately prospective school heads should be conversant with these two types of budgeting since they entail different modes of financing.

(i) Current-expense budget, as Millett (1954) calls it, or Recurrent Expenditure, in the words of the Commonwealth Secretariat, is a budget that concerns expenditures to be incurred in the fiscal year.

This type of budget incorporates such items as :

> salaries and other benefits to administration, supervision, teaching, special services and support staff, maintenance and other operating costs in travel and communication, and scholastic materials. This is the expenditure on consumables (Commonwealth Secretariat, Module Five, 1993, p.13).

(ii) Capital - improvement budget, using the words of Millett, or Development Expenditure, as the Commonwealth Secretariat calls it, is prepared for major projects, payment for which may not necessarily be made during the fiscal year. The financing of the physical plant of the school, for

could be undertaken by a contractor through pre-financing and it may take the contractor a few years to complete the project. Total payment towards the project could be spread over a few years but not in one fiscal year.

In Ghana, a new approach to the preparation of budget estimates under the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) has been introduced since the latter part of 1998. With effect from January 1999, preparation of government budget estimates should conform to the new format.

The new approach integrates the capital-improvement expenditures and the recurret expenditures into a unified form. The new approach compresses items 1-5 of the old format of recurrent expenditure into items 1-3, while capital budgets constitute item 4 of the new format. This new approach is adopted, it is stated, in order to bring out clearly the inter-relation that exists between the capital expenditure and the recurrent expenditure (Guidelines for the Preparation of the 1999 Budget - Ministry of Education Circular No. B/ 1/99, June 15, 1998).

[See Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 for examples of the old format and the new format respectively).

F1G.1 : Recurrent and Capital Expenditure

A : Recurrent Expenditure

ITEM 1	SUB-ITEM	Personal Emoluments
	1	Established Posts
	2	Contract & Other Non-Est. Posts
	3	Monthly Paid & Casual Lab.
	4	Miscellaneous Allowances
	5	Rent Allowance (20%)
		Total Personal Emolument

ITEM 2	SUB-ITEM	T. & T. Expenditure
	1	Travelling Allowance (Night Allowance, Mileage Allowance Leave Claims)
	2	Vehicle Maintenance Allowance
	3	Running Cost of Off. Vehicles
	4	Maintenance of Official Vehicles
	5	Other T & T Expenses (Air Fares, Government Transport, Railways)
		Total T.T. Expenditure

ITEM 3	SUB-ITEM	General Expenditure
	1.	Water Charges
	2.	Postal Charges
	3.	Telecommunication Charges
	4.	Office Facilities (sanitation)
	5.	Stationery
	6.	Printing
	7.	Rent (Accommodation)
	8.	Rent (Equipment)
	9.	Departmental Training
	10.	Library & Publications
	11.	Bank Charges
	12.	Electricity Charges
		Total General Expenditure
ITEM 4	SUB-ITEM	Mtce, Repairs & Renewal
	1.	Maintenance of Office Machines
	2.	Maintenance of Buildings
	3.	Maintenance of Roads & Grounds
	4.	Maintenance of Plants & Equipment
		Total Mtce. Repairs & Equipment
ITEM 5	SUB-ITEM	Other Current Expenditure
	1.	Technical Education Materials
	2.	Sports & Game
	3.	Agriculture
	4.	Ad-hoc Furniture Grant
	5.	Special Subsidy on Text-books
	6.	Demonstration Materials
	7	Assistance to Needy Students
	8.	Boarding Subsidy for Mampong Technical Teachers College
		Total Other Current Expenditure
		Total Current Expenditure

B : Capital Expediture	
Item 6	Subventions
Item 7	Renovations
Item 8	Plant , Equipment, Vehicles, Furniture
Item 9	Constructions

FIG. 2 New Format for Preparing Budget Estimates (1999)

ITEM 1	SUB-ITEM	Personnel Emoluments
	01.1	Established Posts
	01.2	Non-Established Posts :
	01.2.1	Contract Appointments
	01.12.2	Daily Rated
	01.2.3	Probation
	01.2.4	Other : Part-Time
	01.3	S.S.F.
	01.4	Car Maintenance & Fuel Allow.
	01.5	Miscellaneous Allowance
		Sub-Total
2	SUB-ITEM	Administration Activities
	02.1	Utilities :
	02.1.1	Electricity
	02.1.2	Water
	02.1.3	Telecommunications
	02.1.4	Postal Charges
	02.1.5	Sanitation Charges
	O2.2	Office Clearning

ITEM 2	SUB ITEM	
	02.3	Office Consumables
	02.4	Printing and Publications
	02.5	Rent
	02.6	Maintenance
	02.7	Travel and Transport
	02.8	Financial Charges
		Sub-Total
3	SUB IT EM	Service Activities
	03.1	Training and Conferences Costs
	03.2	Consultancies
	03.3	Materials and Cousumables
	03.3.1	Stationery
	03.3.2	Refreshment
	03.3.3	Uniform and Protective Clothing
	03.3.4	Printing and Publications
	03.3.5	Rent of Plant and Equipment
	03.3.6	Travel and Transport
		Sub-Total
4	SUB ITEM	Investment Activities
	04.1	Construction
	04.2	Rehabilitation
	04.3	Plant, Equipment, Furniture and Vehicles
	04.3.1	Plant (Library Books)
	04.3.2	Equipment
	04.3.3	Furniture
	04.3.4	Vehicles :
		Sub-Total

Supplementary budget. These budgets are prepared and submitted to make requests for extra funding which might become necessary due to changing circumstances in the financial policy of the nation. For example, increases in the price of goods or upward adjustment in salaries of workers could result in the approved budget being inadequate to meet the expected expenditures. A supplementary budget covering the actual difference in salaries or estimated difference in the prices of goods will have to be prepared and submitted through the appropriate channel for the extra funding.

Budget time-table. The preparation of budget estimates, their submission and their defence usually follow a fairly exact time-table. In Ghana, educational institutions and district offices are expected to submit their budget estimates to the Regional Education Offices in September. At the Regional Office, these budget estimates are checked, collated and summarized before they are submitted to the national headquarters where similar exercises take place. Submission of budget summaries to the Minister of Finance and Economic Planning and budget defence should be undertaken according to schedule to enable appropriation measures to be enacted by mid-December. Approached in this way, operation within the new budget can begin smoothly on January 1, when the fiscal year beings.

The problem most often experienced in Ghana is that there is much delay in the submission of budget estimates from our schools and education districts. Late submission of the budget estimates results in eventual delay in the submission of budget summaries to the Minister and delay in their subsequent defence before Parliament. It therefore becomes necessary oftentimes for administrative agencies, such as schools and district/regional offices, to be made to operate on provisional estimates by the commencement of the financial year for the first or second month of the fiscal year. Heads are therefore advised hereby to promptly submit the budget estimates for their schools. It would be a great achievement in this country if it could become possible for administrative agencies to operate within the new budget at the commencement of the fiscal year.

Fiscal Control Measures

The total draft budget estimates, collated and summarized, are presented to Parliament by the Minister of Finance and Economic Planning for the necessary debate, discussion, modification and final adoption or approval by Parliament .

Following Parliamentary authorization, the Minister of Finance issues a general warrant to the Comptroller and Accountant-General who, in turn, issues warrants and financial encumbrances to

all the Ministries, authorizing them to begin the spending of their current votes. Authorization to begin spending departmental votes or execute the budget goes down the line to administrative agents, such as headmasters. The whole process involved in the execution of the budget, as Millett (1954) puts it, is what is referred to as **fiscal control** or execution of the budget. The authorized budget fixes "the general scope and magnitude of the operations of an administrative agency for a period of time, usually a fiscal year" (Millett, 1954. p.229).

The approval of the budget of the school does not automatically mean funds are immediately made available to the school. The Treasury has to issue a financial encumbrance which certifies that funds are available for spending before the head is authorized to begin spending on the new vote. It is necessary for the head of an institution to initiate request for the financial encumbrance from the Treasury.

The head of a school has to satisfy two aspects of responsibility in fiscal control measures. Firstly, he has to carry out the programme of activities within the limits of funds made available to his institution. Recurrent votes are released on quarterly allocations and expenditure should not exceed the quarterly allocation without prior authority of the Minister of Finance and Economics Planning through the Regional Director and the Director-General. The head has to adopt strict measures towards control of expenditure. He has to institute tight measures of accountability which might mean saying "no" to operating officials in financial matters if the ideas presented for the expenditure of certain funds appear fanciful. For example, suppose the mother of a staff member of a secondary school dies at a place roughly 80 kilometres from the school. Some staff members, wishing to express their love and sympathy for the bereaved colleague, approach the headmaster, appealing to him to arrange with school funds, four 50-seater buses to convey the staff and some 180 senior students of the school to attend the burial of the late mother of their beloved colleague. A plea such as this will not be entertained by a principled and well-meaning head, in spite of the social climate surrounding the appeal. He is likely to say "there are no funds for such purposes". This is because the head has no authority to use school funds for such a purpose.

However, fiscal control measures should not involve restricting the use of funds and leaving work undone, even when funds are available. The most important aspect of the head's functions is to make sure the planned work is

accomplished, given funds, and not to place unexpected limitations on expenditure of funds to the detriment of work accomplishment.

The second responsibility of the head in financial control measures involves efficiency in the use of resources. Heads have to make efforts to obtain the greatest possible returns out of available funds. Economic use of resources must be their guiding principle at all times. Millette (1954) considers as one of the major responsibilities of the head of an administrative agency, his ability "to obtain the greatest possible return from the expenditure of authorized funds" (p.229). In like manner, Adesina (1990) points out that "in administering the school budget, the primary concern is to ensure that the results achieved by the school system justify the financial outlay" (p.145). Lewis (1952) emphasizes the same viewpoint when he states : "The economic aim of budgeting is to achieve best use of our resources" (quoted in Millett 1954, p. 224).

Funds to meet payment of capital expenditures, such as equipment, vehicles, furniture are usually released enbloc. In many cases the items are presented physically to the school in response to requests, reflecting already submitted budget estimates. The head may not have to purchase them. His control measures should be realized in the economic and efficient use of these resources. The head is responsible for the maintenance of quality of any physical resource provided for his school.

The following aspects require special attention of the head :

Misappropriation of funds. This concept refers to the use of school funds for some other private purposes, such as for the head's own private activity. It is a criminal offence and should be strictly avoided.

Misapplication of funds. This is the practice of transferring funds meant for the performance of one activity to the performance of another activity. If, for example, funds are made available for equipping the school library, it will be a misapplication to use the funds, without authorized permission, to buy tyres and spare parts for the rehabilitation of a broken-down school vehicle. Heads must ward against any aspect of misapplication. School heads, as well as other administrative agents, are required to strictly adhere to the use of public resources as provided for in the approved budget. This is an important aspect of accountability.

Supervision in financial management. It is really necessary for the school head to exercise adequate supervision over the work of the accountant and other accounting officers of the school.

Supervision is required in a number of ways.

In the preparation of annual budget estimates, the head does not only have to supervise the work of the accountant; he has to direct the accountant with respect to the items that have to be budgeted for in the estimates.

One important aspect that requires a very effective supervision is concerned with the writing of cheques. Before appending his signature to a particular cheque, the head should carefully make sure of the following issues :

- There should be no unduely large spaces left in-between the words indicating the amount on the cheque leaf and a line should be ruled to cover the space left after the word "only" written on the cheque leaf.

- The amount in figures should be written as close as possible to the cedi sign (¢) and the two zeros written to represent no pesewas (if there are no pesewas as it is usually the case these days) should be crossed. The uncovered portion of he cheque should be covered by double lines.

- As a rule, any alteration on the cheque must be counter-signed by both signatories , or all signatories if they are more than two, and they should use their normal signatures, not initials. If the alteration involves the need to change both the words and the figures, that cheque must be cancelled and a fresh cheque written.

- A cheque leaf that is cancelled should not be removed from the check book.

- It is important to have the counterfoil also counter-signed by both signatories (or all signatories).

- Obviously, the head should never sign a blank cheque.

- It is always necessary to make sure a cheque leaf is not taken from the back (or middle) of the cheque book. The practice of always checking whether the remaining cheque leaves are intact is highly recommended for heads to adhere to.

- The amount on the cheque should reflect the amount stated on the payment voucher which, in turn, should be supported by documentary evidence.

- It is important to make sure there are no large spaces left after the following numbers (in words) since they can be altered : six(ty), seven(ty), eight(y), nine(ty).

- It is necessary to state that there should be at least two signatories for a school cheque (Commonwealth Secretariat, Module Five, 1993, pp.37-38).

Effective supervision and careful check must be exercised in the issue of receipts. A great deal of financial problems do arise in the area of receipts writing. Careful supervision should be extended to the proper use and storage of books of accounts, of the Book Store inventory, General Stores inventory, and the use of school vehicles. The domestic bursar requires adequate supervision in her purchases and use of consumables. Adequate supervision should be directed to food and transport services. Effective supervision of financial matters is the key to success in the head's financial management.

Other Aspects

The head's role in financial management extends to other aspects which may require brief mention.

The head has to make efforts to acquire rudimentary knowledge of accounting. This will enable him to effectively supervise the work of the school accountant. The head has to make sure of correct recording of items and all forms of entries in the accounts books. The Cash Book and other books of accounts should be appropriately used. There should be insistence on neat cancellation of wrong entries and the re-writing of the correct entry. The head should desist from and ensure his accountant does not conform to the practice of erasing or deepening figures.

The head has to develop an appropriate procedure for the collection of fees and other monies, such as PTA dues. Indiscriminate collection of fees and other monies into a common source could result in shortages and an improper approach to accountability.

Purchasing is another crucial area which should receive the head's fullest attention. A substantial part of the school budget could be spent on fraudulent purchases and sound management must be accorded the purchase of items in the school.

Plant operation and its maintenance are issues which should demand the head's prompt attention. These are issues on which much expenditure could be borne. A careful scrutiny and foresight in plant operation and its maintenance could help to curtail unwanted and unexpected expenditures.

It is advisable the head desists from frequent use of certificates of honour.

Efforts must be made to obtain receipts for goods purchased. The use of certificates of honour should be limited to purchases for which it is not normally feasible to obtain receipts.

It is common practice for the head to delegate his authority to other members of staff for the performance and/or supervision of most of the functions discussed above, but the head's check on these issues is highly recommended

Conclusion

It is a laudable achievement for the head of an educational institution to work seriously, faithfully and honestly in the area of financial management. Sound financial management ensures efficient use of resources and contributes creditably to the attainment of institutional goals and objectives. Achievement of success in financial management results in according the head a high degree of respect from his staff, students and the entire school community. Such a situation acts towards development of discipline and sound school climates. The head should therefore exercise effective control and supervision in the financial matters of his/her institution. Funds and other economic resources should be effectively and appropriately used towards maximization of the work programme of the school.

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THE TWO FACES OF THE HIGHER NATIONAL DIPLOMA

A. Amuzu-Kpeglo

Introduction

Two statements purported to have been made by two different public officials regarding the "two faces of the HND" appeared to have ignited the indignation of the Polytechnic students in respect of the status of the Higher National Diploma (HND) Programme. The Executive Secretary of the National Accreditation Board said that "the HND ranks next to a first degree" (Daily Graphic, 23rd June, 1997) while the Minister of Education is of the view that the "HND is a step below first degree", (Ghanaian Times, 16th July, 1997).

The Legal Framework

The Polytechnic Law i.e. PNDC Law 321 which conferred tertiary status on the Polytechnics in Ghana states among other things that "the Polytechnic shall award degrees subject to such conditions as the authority responsible for higher education shall direct".

The Executive Secretary of the National Council on Tertiary Education (NTCE) insists that although the HND will be developed into a degree course, what the Polytechnics are offering now is not the degree programme. He states clearly that "Polytechnics are tertiary institutions with the clear mandate of offering paractically oriented courses and programmes leading to the HND award. Under the law setting up the Polytechnics as tertiary institutions, the Polytechnics were required to eventually offer degree programmes which would also have professional and career-focused content at a highr level. He admits that currently the Polytechnics were running programmes leading to the award of various certificates, including the HND, and that the staff at post were competent to teach these programmes. But he declared: "the HND programmes being run by the Polytechnics are not degree programmes. The HND programmes do not have the same orientation as that of traditional university degree programmes" (Daily Graphic, 23rd June 1997).

Crisis

It seems to this writer that the mere passage of PNDC Law 321 signaled to the Polytechnic students that the HND should be called a degree. The students rose in arms and boycotted classes. Even on the request of their leadership of the Ghana National Union of

Polytechnic Students (GNUPS), Polytechnic students in Accra, according to press reports (Daily Graphic, Wednesday, 23rd July, 1997) beat up, heckled and ponded their leaders for succumbing to influences and pressure from Parliament. They described the leadership of GNUPS as weak and allowing itself to be manipulated by the authorities.

The agitating students maintained that the call by Parliment on them to return to lectures was not in their interest. They stressed that they preferred to stay at home for the issue to be resolved than to attend lectures whilst the impasse remained unresolved. They reiterated their demand on the Ministry of Education to withdraw the statement : "HND rank next to first degree". The striking students wanted to know whether their Higher National Diploma (HND) was equivalent to a first degree or not. Besides, they did not know their placement on the job market and therefore sought clarification on the matter. When this was not forthcoming they decided to boycott classess until an answer was given.

The Minister of Education did confirm that there existed a dispute between the government and the Polytechnic students on the status of these students on the job market. This issue led to the boycott of classess by these students. According to the Minister, the misunderstanding came about when two letters came from the same Ministry explaining the value of the HND differently. She said the Ministry in an effort to iron out this contradiction, issued a statement which rather triggered the demonstration.

Parliament was sympathetic, and took up the issue with the Ministry of Education. The Minister was summoned to parliament. The Weekly Spectator (Saturday, July 19, 1997 p. 3) reported that in a rare occurrence on the floor of the House, the Government was taken on by both the Majority and Minority for the display of gross inefficiency in the address of the Polytechnic students crisis. Eventually, Parliament succeeded in convincing the Polytechnic students to call off their 24 day boycott of school.

The students deserved sympathy for two reasons. The confusion had arisen because there had been a problem in the communication chain. Even when they made things known to government, the authorities did not respond till there was fire. What was more disturbing, why should the Polytechnic students be expected to pursue a course when the end qualification was not being made clear.

The Minister had inherited a bad debt; she had taken the posting just a little while ago and trouble was brewing long before she took office. One Member of Parliament put forward evidence which showed that the HND was equivalent to a degree. Another argued that, as an Engineer, he was aware that in the field of Engineering, the HND was not equivalent to a degree.

These two positions must be reconciled to settle the issue once and for all.

HND has an Advantage over the first Degree

It is the candid view of this writer that the Polytechnic Higher National Diploma is not a first degree but it has an advantage over the University first degree.

These are the reasons :

1. The HND Programme is not new under the sun. It has its origin in the United Kingdom. In Ghana it was put forth to replace all analogous technician courses at the Polytech-nics, and be recognized for its worth.

2. The HND Programmes are of three years duration and are expected to complete the cycle of technical education and provide capacity for training of a new breed of graduates who can confidently combine theory with practice and conduct practical research.

3. The need for the HND Programme became necessary when it was realized that personnel were needed to fill the vacuum between a qualified engineer, scientist or technologist and the skilled foreman or craftsman. The holder of the HND certificate is a diplomate and not a graduate. The use of the accolade: 'HND graduate' is ceremonial, eg. "JSS graduate' and cannot be equated with University graduate.

4. At the Polytechnic, the curriculum is career-focused with emphasis on the acquisition of hands-on practical and entrepreneurial skills. Polytechnic HND Programmes are designed to respond to perceived needs of specific sectors of national economy (i.e. to meet the intended purposes of the Vision 2020 for the industrial development of the nation). They may therefore not have exact parallels at the University level..

Explanation

The Principal of Ho Polytechnic (Dr. G. M. Afeti) explains that whereas a student in the university may take a degree in the broad discipline of mechanical engineering, an engineering student at the Polytechnic may study for a higher national diploma in the specific area of engineering, e.g. automotive engineering, production engineering, welding and fabrication, or plant engineering which are all branches of mechnanical engineering. He emphasized that only the Polytechnics offer accredited programmes at the tertiary level in career-specific areas in Ghana. Some of these programmes are catering and hotel management, fashion design and modeling, purchasing and supply, furniture design and construction, and dispensing

technology. (Daily Graphic, Wednesday, July 2, 1997 p. 9.)

The Polytechnic should work for a closer co-opeation with industry. The reason is obvious. Polytechnic education is career-focused. It stands to reason that Polytechnic progammes can only remain relevant and vibrant and resposive to the dynamic and ever changing manpower needs of industry and the overall national interest if only these programmes are centered within the context of a strong bonding polytechnic industry partnership. This is the sort of bondage or linkage our universities lack over the years.

The Higher National Diploma has always been an acceptable entry qualification into a Masters Programme in very many academic institutions of excellence all over the world depending on the candidate's field of study, superior attainment and personal interest.

Besides, it is envisaged that as the Polytechnics upgrade their learning and teaching facilities, they will be in a better position to offer technical degree courses in the vocations and professions of their interest. This is a mater of course, not subject to negotiation. Polytechnic students will have openings in industry and commerce for practical attachments, supervisedpractical work to acquire industrial work experience, and holiday wage appointments. Polytechnics stand the chance of engaging part-time teachers and instructors from industry and commerce. The advantage here is that practicalsituations and case studies from the world of work will be shared in the lecture rooms and discussion panels.

Polytechnic graduates are better placed to secure or create a job. This is because of the very disposition of the HND Programme. Potential job openings exist in all the sectors of the economy, viz: mining, agriculture, manufacturing, and middle level management, etc. They can also assume responsibilities in financial banking and commercial institutions. The opportunities the HND holder has in establishing a very challenging and most rewarding business in the tourist industry in modern day Ghana is better witnessed than described.

What has happend so far is restated as follows. There has been an impasse over the status, academic profession and placement of HND holders between the GNUPS and the government resulting in the boycott of lectures. A committee was set up to find a lasting solution to the impasse whose recommendations were accepted by Cabinet.

Dissatisfied with the committee's recommendations, the students

resolved to continue with their strike action, vowing to ensure that their demands were met. A second year marketing student of the Accra Polytechnic expressed her feelings this way : "we are not demanding equality with the first degree, what we are asking for is that the value of our certificates must be at par with it". (Daily Graphic, Saturday, February 7, 1998 p. 10).

The National Union of Ghana Students (NUGS) appealed to the HND students in the Polytechnics to return to lectures while awaiting government decision on the status of the HND. The Daily Graphic (No. 14656) reported on January 24, 1998 a statement from the NUGS Executive Committee which expressed its dissatisfaction with the delay in the release of the report on the state, placement and academic progression of HND graduates. NUGS maintained that the delay was not in the interest of the nation especially when there was tension on the Polytechnic campuses.

Protest Position

Meanwhile the Central Committee of the Ghana National Union of Polytechnic Students (GNUPS) had protested against the Cabinet decision. They said Cabinet decision did not address their concerns in totality, and until such time that the issue was fully and properly addressed by the authorities concerned they would continue with the boycott of lectures (Daily Graphic, No. 1443 dated February 2, 1998).

A statement which was jointly signed by the National Press Co-ordinator and the National Secretary was issued. They said that the committee's latest position was arrived at after a meeting in Accra, where views collated from the various Polytechnics were seriously analysed and considered. The statement made it clear that : "HND students are not asking for a degree, but want the value of the HND to be the same as that of the first degree".

They reiterated that the government must not lose sight of the fact that the preamble of various syllabi of HND programmes state that "Higher National Diploma Courses have been designed to make personnel eligible to pursue post graduate degree programmes". The statement called on government to come out with a properly documented policy to undertake such programmes. The statement further called on government to show difinite commitment by way of budgetary allocation for infrastructure improvement and recruitment of personnel to meet the proposed deadline. The statement also stated that "the government, as a matter of urgency, should give Polytechnic lecturers similar conditions of service as their University counterparts in order to attract qualified lecturers into the Polytechnics". Earlier, the students demanded that Cabinent should have given them a hearing since the Minister of Education was in

Cabinet and expressed the same views she had always expressed to the students.

Cabinet Action

Cabinet appointed specialised committee to examine the placement level for HND holders in the public and civil services. After deliberations and consultation, the committee put forth its recommendations. Consequntly, Cabinet explained that the Higher National Diploma (HND) is not equivalent to a first University Degree. The Secretary to Cabinet referred to the the Polytechnic Law 431 which states that Polytechnic may award degrees in addition to the HND, and pointed out that the law puts the matter beyond doubt that the HND was NOT equivalent to a First Degree.

There had been some doubts created by the Government White Paper of August 6, 1990 which was issued on the reforms in tertiary education. It was conceded that the White Paper created the impression that the HND was the equivalent of a first degree. But the Cabinet statement was quick to point out that the matter was resolved by the polytechnic Law which supersedes the White Paper. There was no clear evidence in sight why the Polytechnic students held dogmatically to the White Paper to their own detriment of ignoring what the laws says. The law did not say that the HND was equivalent to the First Degree. There is nowhere in the world where a diploma, higher or low, is equivalent to a degree. Cabinet also acknowledged that the programme to upgrade the Polytechnics to enable them award degrees had delayed and directed that the Ministry of Education should work conscientiously toward the year 2000 to commence the degree programme.

Cabinet further conceded that before the Polytechnics could begin the award of their own degrees, they needed to be upgraded in a variety of ways. Any cursory management audit on a Polytechnic campus reveals areas of Polytechnic life that needed to be upgraded from the diploma status to the degree level. These areas include admission requirements, programmes and course content, teaching infrastructure, including physical facilities and science laboratories, teaching and support staff, and demonstrators, etc.

Academic Progression and Placement

The statement said Cabinent took note of the concern expressed by the Polytechnic students regarding their academic progression, meaning the inability of HND holders to enter post-graduate programmes, such as Masters Degree Programmes. It, however, stressed the essential role of the Polytechnics as that of training practical, career-oriented students for the middle-level manpower needs of the country. The statement emphasised that the academic

progression of Polytechnic students should not be used to replicate the academic programmes of the Universities, thereby eroding the key role of the Polytechnic in th e training of students to acquire practical and employable skills rather than mere academic knowledge.

To the relief of all stakeholders in the Polytechnic drama, Cabinet spelt out the scale of entry of HND graduates in various subject areas in the civil and public services.These are as follows :

Holders of HND Marketing, Purchasing and Supply, Hotel Catering and Institutional Management, Statistics, Fashion, Designing and Modelling, Commercial Arts and others would enter the scale at A40 instead of the present range A38, 43 with an entry point at scale 38.

HND Egineering diplomates employed mostly by the Ghana Highways Authority, Volta River Authority (VRA) and the Electricity Company of Ghana, will now be on salary range A43 and 48 and enter at the point of scale 46 instead of the present range A38, 43.

All other certificate holders, in the Grade of Technician Engineers will now enter the Scale at A43.

HND Accounting holders employed mostly by the Controller and Accountant General's Department and the Internal Revenue Service, will continue to be on salary range A52, 54, starting on scale 52, likewise HND Science Laboratory Technology and Dispensing Technology holders employed mostly by the Ministry of Health who will continue to be on range A53, 55 starting on scale A53.

There is also the possibility that, within the framework of these ranges, where market forces create a high demand for certain skills, some HND holders will have a higher placement level and indeed higher remuneration than some newly qualified first-degree holders

Boycott Subsides

Members of the Ghana National Union of Polytechnic Students (GNUPS) called off their boycott of lectures on Friday, February 1998. The boycott had lasted for three weeks during which time they pressed home their demand for a redefinition of the status, academic progression and placement of the HND graduates.

The GNUPS organised a forum which resolved that lectures were to resume at the various Polytechnic campuses the following Monday "pending the intervention of the Council of Polytechnic Principals to take up the issue" (Daily Graphic No. 1466 Saturday February 7, 1998 p. 10). The Principals had taken it upon themselves to find a lasting solution to the issue which had crippled academic life on the Polytechnic campuses. A source close to the Central Executive Committee of the

GNUPS expressed confidence in their Principals as being capable of handling the situation. "We need to respect our principals, we have trust in them and so far as they have promised to pursue the issue, we need to give them that respect".

While expressing faith in their Principals, the students passed a vote of no confidence on the President of GNUPS, Mr Kamel Ford, for accepting Cabinet's decision on the recommendations. Some members of GNUPS said Mr Ford was wrong to have unilaterally accepted Cabinet's position. Whilst majority of the students who attended the forum agreed to resume lectures and to await the negotiations by the heads, some vowed to stay away from the lecture halls until demands were met in full.. Mr . Ford had seriously advocated for the former option.

In another spectacular event to conclude the HND episode, the Deputy Minister of Education (Dr. Mohammed Ibn Chambas) cautioned Polytechnic students against acts that could negatively affect the HND Programme. Dr. Chambas believed that the much respected HND which is career-oriented would make it easy for holders to fit into the competitive job market. He urged the students not to allow the few amongst them who are oriented towards university education to destroy the good foundation laid for them (Daily Graphic No. 14681 ; February 23, 1998).

Lessons

The episode surrounding the HND students boycott has surfaced some lessons which are relevant to educational administrators and business communicators. Some of these lessons are as follows :

1. There should be establsihed mechanisms of communication in the educaion business between cosumers, stakeholders, clients, subordinates and superordinates. Where these channels and mechnanisms already exist they should be used to maximum advantage.

2. Policy statements should be made by only accredited officers as in this case. These statements should be timely and unambiguous.Contradictions and distortions create uneasiness and undue speculations, prejudices and mistruct.

3. Policy formulation, implementation and control are vital integral aspects of the management process. It is safer for the administration to build very quickly a policy around a set of events and keep to it rather than offer personal renditions. Two important officials of the same

organization saying two different things on the same issue at the same time is fertile ground for misconception and confusion leading to unconsidered disruption of school business.

4. Information passing from senders to receivers of wide generation gap should be more carefully parcelled and handled. Students are students and will always remain students. Superior authorities should be mindful of how they handle student concerns.

5. Excessive bureaucracy and red tape should give way to prompt action and realistic resolution of issues involving school authorities and students. In the episode under review, there i s conclusive evidence that the authorities did not respond till there was fire Even Parliament did not move fast enough to avert the crisis as promised.

6. The behaviour of tertiary students in some situations need refinement. These students should be educated on the uniqueness of forum as a means of group communication designed to reach consensus and positive thinking. The student forum is organised by the leadership to clarify issues and roles, and to seek new mandate from the rank and file. Parochial cleavages in thought and action produce negative results to the common cause.

7. There are so many contradictions in the thought process and behaviour of the students in the HND issue.

(a) The HND can never be equated to a first degree. There is no single precedence in the whole world for Ghana to follow. A diploma has its unique advantage over an academic degree. The admission letter to the Polytechnic states clearly a diploma not a degree. A bird in hand is better worth ten in the bush.

(b) The call on government to come out with a properly documented policy on the kind of degrees it wishes to introduce and the category of people who qualify to undertake such programmes is tantamount to muddled thinking or thinking to no purpose. If anything at all, this is the business for the Polytechnic Council

(c) Students must learn to respect authority. They should acknowledge their position as students, and not unilaterally elevate their position to that of cabinet status. Their demand that Cabinet should have given them a hearing "since the Minister of Education was in Cabinet and

expressed the same views she had always expressed to the students" was to say the least, ridiculous and undeserving.

(d) When it comes to utilisation of study time by students, common sense becomes very rare and expensive. Some students are not serious. They can afford to waste three precious weeks of lecture time to idle about and indulge in unprofitable arguments.

(e) Similarly, reasoning deserts the idle and extravagant student. The level of reasoning and maturity differs widely in these students. The majority is not always right, nor the minority always wrong. Kamel Ford's position has been vindicated. But his reward was humiliation.The innocents sometimes suffer for the ruffians.

8. After all said and done, the greatest lesson of it all is for govern ment to pay heed to the call by students (and all stakeholders) to take prompt measures to upgrade and update the Polytechnic in all its spheres, viz., programmes, in frastructure, personnel, equipment and finance.

9 Finally, in a democracy every citizen or a group of individuals has the right to be heard . In our case, the dissenting students were granted this civil right by the Executive, Parliament and the Press. The Judiciary would have been too willing to enter tain them if the case had reached them. This was good showing for this country

Conclusion

There is this lamentation that for far too long in this country, industry has not had that controlling voice in the shaping and conduct of academic preparation and professional training programmes in our tertiary institutions of science, technology and industry. The beginning must come now, with the Polytechnic. When this is done the HND graduate who has a guranteed job position in industry and commerce is worth a million dollar value more than a University first degre holder in the arts or social sciences who may have the street as his/her work place or join the unenviable brigade of graduate unemployment. The only difference then is that a graduate is a graduate, so he must accept the fact that *kenkey* is different from *yakayake.*

NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

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3. The body of the paper should bear only the title of the paper on the front page as a means of identification. Authors are to attach to each manuscript a cover page giving the title, authors' names, professional status and/or responsibility post, institutional affiliation and addresses.

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