EMERGING THEMES IN EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN GHANA AS SEEN THROUGH EDUCATION REFORMS IN THE UNITED STATES

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

by

Padmore Godwin Enyo Aghemabiese, B.A., DIP., DIP., M. A.

The Ohio State University

2007

Dissertation Committee

Professor Charles R. Hancock (Advisor/Chair)

Approved by

Professor Valerie Lee

Professor Mac Stewart

Advisor

Graduate Program in Education
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine Ghana’s education reform initiatives between 1975 and 1996 in the light of contemporary linguistic and diversity issues. The goal was to identify emerging themes and determine the extent to which Ghana’s education reform can be improved by drawing upon the rich resources of education reforms in both Ghana and the U. S. The study sought to create a broader framework for understanding Ghana’s education system by situating it in the contexts of debates and practices in English education in the United States. The context for this study included multiple years of educational reforms in Ghana and the United States as well as the educational reform initiatives put forward by various governments and agencies.

This study addressed a number of research questions related to reform initiatives in Ghana’s educational programs between 1975 and 1996? Drawing upon Kirk and Miller (1986), Bissex (1990), Denzin and Lincoln (2000), the study utilized a qualitative and interpretive case study format to present a critical analysis of issues emerging from Ghana’s educational reform documents. In this study, the argument had been made that, the desire to restructure the education system of Ghana, must include expansion of the
processes of negotiating alternate approaches to education reforms in the nation. Thus, this study drew attention to the educational aims in the U. S. by providing an analysis of educational models in the U. S. education system that might help Ghana to meet the challenge of teaching literacy in its culturally and linguistically diverse classroom.

The main research question addressed in this study was, “What are the emerging issues that characterized reform initiatives in Ghana’s educational programs between 1975 and 1996?” Data analyzed by the researcher revealed that the Ghanaian educational reforms articulated democratic and transformative goals in order to address the socio-economic realities of Ghana; however, the adoption of undemocratic procedures tended to result in dismal outcomes of the educational reform efforts. The lack of programmatic effort and assessments by policy makers tended to create gaps that resulted from the pervasive lack of coordination between education policy and education practice, particularly teacher preparation and classroom practice. The solution that this researcher suggests is the reconciliation of the problem by expanding the notion of democracy to involve the active role of all actors in the education reform process, with deliberate inclusion of classroom teachers and teacher preparation program administrators. Additional findings are described in the dissertation.
Finally, an emergent theoretical model identified desired educational goals and inter-connected variables in the Ghanaian society. The study includes recommendations for further research.
DEDICATION

for my grandmother,

Afeafa Fiador Agbemabiese,
who opened the door to the world of ideas for me,
and my father,

Leo Korbla Agbemabiese,

who believed I could accomplish all my goals and
provided the intellectual guidance.
ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Along the long, steep and winding path I took in writing this dissertation, a number of individuals proved quite helpful. I owe a large keg of debt to them. The last words of my father were, “Girdle your loins and fight hard to complete the last chapter of my book.” In a similar manner, my Grandmother, one day rhetorically expressed her concern about me in these words, “I wonder if he would one day write my name correctly in his notebook.” She was expressing her misgivings to some elders of my village about me moving into the Catholic mission-house in order to complete my middle school education. Today, I have completed the last chapter of my father’s book and engraved Grandma’s name not only in my notebook but also on my memory. If those who reside in “Tsiefe” (the Land of the Dead) have ears, let Grandma and my father hear me, “I, your stammering son owe you a basketful of “akpe” (thanks) and “ahagowo” (kegs of palmwine for libation) for always being with me.”

My dissertation committee deserves my sincerest thanks and appreciation for the timely intervention and invaluable assistance, and encouragement they provided whether through private conversations, questions raised, or careful readings and comments on chapters of this dissertation. They include Dr. Charles Hancock, Professor of Education who
directed this dissertation with caring and intensity; read and commented on each chapter, placed his professional acumen at my disposal, and became the greatest ally throughout the final dissertation journey and through his words of encouragement I have arrived at its completion.

Dr. Mac Stewart, Associate Professor of Education, provided his invaluable Teacher Education expertise assistance, here-and-there, and offered suggestions that enriched my dissertation throughout the process.

Dr. Valerie Lee, Professor of English, whose gift of support and positive influence provided invaluable resources indispensable not only to this dissertation by my academic career in general. Her immense assistance and suggestions brought my dissertation the needed focus.

Dr. Kofi Anyidoho, Professor of English, University of Ghana, Legon Ghana, deserves mention for his continued encouragement and mentorship that has brought me this far in my academic and creative career.

My most thanks is to my mother, Anna Ablavi Kwashie-Agbemabiese for her sacrifices and believing I can always succeed in whatever I put my hands to. I want to express a personal and special gratefulness to my daughters Sena, and son, Elikplim, for sacrificing immensely for me, putting themselves last, accepting my absence from their lives, their years of growing up, as their contribution to this dissertation, and spending countless nights without bedtime stories in order to make Dad’s dream for the family come true.
I will like to thank Ann B. Walker, for her indispensable advice and support and being instrumental in my successful completion of this dissertation. I want everyone who knows and ever meets B. Joyce Robinson to thank her for her spiritual and moral support, for her stimulating words that cheered me on and continue to amaze me with an incredible energy. She was and still is my ‘prop’ in distress. Special mention must be made of Mr. Foster Fraser. Mr. Fraser deserves many thanks for his encouragement, nourishment from his world of knowledge and ideas, enthusiasm and commitment to my welfare, academically and socially. Mr. Foster Fraser ‘medudor wo, loo.’ A thousand thanks to Dr. Isaac Mowoe and Dr. Paulette Pierce, for their insights and thoughtful questions and willingness to stand by me in all adversity ever since I arrived in the U. S. I want to mention Ms. Dzigbordi Yawa K. L Grooms for her love, support, and her gently prodding intellectual curiosity that often challenges my often taken-for-granted assumptions. Special recognition to my brothers Dr. Charles Agbemabiese and Dr. Martin Agbemabiese and cousin Dr. Dela Hartley for their numerous sacrifices, kindness, advice, judgment and care in the dreary years of my dissertation. God bless them. I want to say a special thanks to my friend Dr. Edward Fekpe and his family for being a post in my fence in thick and thin, rain and shine. Words can never describe Mr. Emeka Aniagolu, Mr. Godwin Dogbey, and Mr. Kordzo Willie Agbalevu. They are a friend and brother whose
unqualified and selfless dedication to my welfare in social as well as in academic arenas has no equal. I owe them a lifelong gratitude. And for Mr. A. D. Agbewomu, my uncle who became my father and confidant, “Mawu neyra wo” (God bless you) for keeping the fire in the hearth at home alive and fresh. I am also indebted to Sherri and Bryon Wallington (Mr./Mrs.) for the support they always give when my computer refuses to listen to my ‘cries.’

“The Mouth,” according to an Ewe proverb, “cannot count the colony of the mice.” I have many people to thank than this page can hold. Since space will not allow me to acknowledge their generous support by naming them individually, let me ask for their pardon. I extend my deepest appreciation and gratitude to them for giving me the opportunity to learn and grow professionally from each of them. To all, let me say, “Akpe nami loo. Miawoe wor dor” (Thanks to everybody for a noble work done).

Finally and most importantly, I thank the Supreme Being and the Tutelary Spirits of my departed ancestors for showing me that through them all things are possible.
VITAE

January 12, 1965… ……Born, Abor V. R. Ghana

June 1984 … ……Diploma, Theater Arts,

(University of Ghana, Legon)

August 1985 … ……Diploma, Journalism & Public Relations,

(Ghana Institute of Journalism)

June 1996 … ……BA (Combined Honors) English and Drama

(University of Ghana, Legon)

Spring 1998 … ……MA. Master of Arts,

(The Ohio State University)

MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY: Education, English, African American and African Studies

EDUCATION: English Studies………………Professor Charles R. Hancock

ENGLISH: African American Literature………Professor Valerie Lee

AAAS: African American Literature and African Studies, and Educational Policy and Leadership…………………………Professor Mac Stewart

- ix –
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract .................................................................................................................. ii
Dedication ................................................................................................................ iv
Acknowledgement .................................................................................................. v
Vita ............................................................................................................................ ix
Table of contents ................................................................................................... x
List of Figures .......................................................................................................... xiv

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

Introduction: Insight into Ghana’s Relationship with the U. S. ........................... 1
Background to the Study ....................................................................................... 2
Purpose of the Study ............................................................................................. 10
Statement of the Problem ..................................................................................... 12
Operational Definitions of Key words ............................................................... 13
Research Questions .............................................................................................. 17
Educational Significance of the Study ............................................................... 18
Rationale for the Study ......................................................................................... 23
Limitations of the Study ....................................................................................... 24
Summary ................................................................................................................ 27

CHAPTER 2: Literature Review: Introduction .................................................... 28

- x -
Appendices..........................................................................................204
Appendix A: Language map of Ghana.................................................207
Appendix B: Ghanaian Educational Structure Before the 1975 Reform.....209
Appendix C: The Ghanaian Educational Structure Prescribed by the 1975
Reform..........................................................................................211
Appendix D: The Ghanaian Educational Structure between 1975 and
1987..........................................................................................213
Appendix E: Educational Structure Prescribed by the 1987 Reform........215
References..........................................................................................216
List of Figures

Figure 1: Process from data collection through data analysis ..........92
Figure 2: The hermeneutic methodological process .....................93
Figure 3: An adaptation of Miller and Crabtree’s relationship-centered clinical model .................................................................96
Figure 4: Trustworthiness and validity criteria of Lincoln and Guba (1985) .................................................................................................98
Figure 5: Synthesis: content analysis of education reform documents ......169
Figure 6: Synthesis: context analysis of education reform documents ......170
Figure 7: An emergent theoretical model for education reform in Ghana in the next decade, 2007 and beyond ........................................182
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Insight into Ghana’s Relationship with the U. S.

This dissertation specifically draws upon the accomplishments that the United States (U. S.) made in educational outcomes to enrich education reform initiatives in Ghana due to the long-standing connections between the U. S. and Ghana. The relationship between Ghana and the U. S. dates back to the beginning of slavery through the inception of Ghana’s struggle for independence to the more recent efforts by Ghana to utilize U. S. investments to advance socioeconomic and educational goals.

Furthermore, Ghana is a country through whose ports millions of Africans passed on their way to plantations and other settings in the United States, Latin America and the Caribbean. Later, Kwame Nkrumah, who had become a disciple of Du Bois, the father of Pan-Africanism, saw the struggle for civil rights in the Diaspora and Ghana’s fight for independence from colonial rule as inextricably linked, both being expressions of the desire of black people everywhere to have their freedom. Today, Ghana is culturally closer to the U. S. than any African country. This closeness is due to efforts of African Americans in seeing the
participation of Du Bois and Martin Luther King Jr. in Ghana’s independence and Marcus Garvey’s Return-to-Africa project, through which he establishment the Black Star Line shipping agency, as a way of reconnecting to their African roots, the ancestral past.

In addition, Ghana’s rich cultural heritage offers a vivid and definitive picture of hope that seems to shape the culture and identity of Blacks in both the United States and other countries. Like the U. S., about sixty per cent of the population of Ghana is Christian. Ghana’s Kente cloth and the Adinkra symbols have also become elements of pride and identity among African Americans. In Ghana, the biennial Pan African Historical Festival (PANAFEST) is celebrated to promote Pan Africanism through Arts and Culture. This event frequently brings African Americans to Ghana. The celebration takes hundred and thousands of African Americans through Martin Luther King, Marcus Garvey and Malcolm X memorial parks as well as to visit slave dungeons along the coast of Ghana. This historical interconnectedness makes it possible for this researcher to examine Ghana’s education reform to study ways in which education reforms in Ghana can be improved by drawing upon the rich resources of U. S. education reforms.

Background to the study

The implementation of Ghana’s 1987 Education Reform by the Provincial National Defence Council (PNDC) in 1987 highlighted many issues and concerns in the objectives, content, administration, and management of education in Ghana.
One of the emergent concerns associated with the educational system was in the acquisition of literacy through education programs. In Ghana as well as most African countries, postcolonial governments saw formal education that was introduced by the colonial administration as essential to the acquisition of skills for economic productivity and national development hence they made every effort to expand access to education after gaining independence from their colonial masters. The feeling was also that an investment in education could bring broader economic benefits to the socioeconomic advancement of the newly independent African countries such as Ghana. The desire to make education accessible to all was due to the fact that citizens of independent African states were also demanding from their leaders the education, which they had been denied during colonialism. The citizens wanted and believed in the benefits that schooling could guarantee; namely, secure employment, influence, prestige, affluence, status, and authority. Not only did the citizens want social mobility but they also wanted an increase in the development of their families and communities’ standard of living including linguistic identity.

In Ghana, one of the issues was which language should be developed and used in multicultural/multilingual classroom settings in Ghana (Agbedor, 1994). The problem of language choice in education in Ghana is closely related to the provision of skill training facilities, educational outcomes, crisis in tertiary education to meet the needs of modernization, and the limited opportunities for
post secondary education in Ghana (Nwomonoh, 1998). The arrival of Europeans, particularly the Portuguese in the sixteenth century, brought Western education to Ghana. This was soon followed by the Dutch in 1644, then by the British in 1694 and the Danes in 1722 (Antwi, 1992). The establishment of schools ushered into the Ghanaian community new languages such as English, French, Spanish, German, and Portuguese.

Schools that were opened by the Europeans were particularly for immigrants from each European nation, children of merchants, and wealthy Ghanaian business families. In the schools, the English language was the only medium of instruction. It was between 1800 and 1850 that Western education began to include ordinary Ghanaians. Educational development of Ghana, then Gold Coast, was geared towards missionary activities where it was a means of converting Ghanaians school-going children to Christianity. According to Cutrufelli (1983), historically, the spread of western education in Ghana was by Catholic missionaries from Italy and England, the Moravians from West Indies, the Basel missionaries from Switzerland, the Wesleyan Methodists from Great Britain, and the Bremen or North German missionaries. Each of these missionary groups established the schools in the inner territories with the sole objective of spreading the gospel. Hence, skill training was geared towards acquisition of English language or a language akin to the missionaries, training teachers to become missionaries, catechists and interpreters for the European ministers who
spoke only English, or other European languages namely, French, Spanish, German, and Portuguese.

According to Fishman (1968a) and Pool (1971), there is a correlation between economic development and multilingualism (quoted in Agbedor, 1994, p. 4). Ghana is a multilingual country with over 45 to 60 indigenous distinct languages (Agbedor, 1994, p. 17). To this end, with the imposition of English as a de facto language official language used in government, education, commerce, mass communication, international trade and politics, science and technology, Ghana’s linguistic landscape became multi-layered and each Ghanaian student had to deal with three major types of languages in the typical Ghanaian classroom. First, the Ghanaian student had to deal with one or more of the approximately forty-four indigenous languages. Second, there were the exogenous languages of French and English confronting the Ghanaian child. In this context, exogenous languages refer to languages that were not native to the community of the Ghanaian student. Thirdly, the Ghanaian student had to also deal with a neutral language, namely pidgin English. According to Akinnaso (1990), pidgin English is a language that developed from two or more languages and in Ghana more especially in Africa, pidgin English developed as a result of contact situations of English, French, Portuguese and African languages (in Agbedor, 1994, p. 22).

In the Ghanaian context, language choice should be linked to the ten
geographic regions in the country. These regions include Volta Region, Eastern Region, Brong-Ahafo Region, Ashanti Region, Central Region, Greater Accra Region, Northern Region, Upper East Region, Upper West Region, and Western Region. According to Chazan (1983), Ghanaian languages fall into three language groups (see figure….for language map of Ghana). These groups include:

a. Kwa: this group is made up of major languages such as Akan, Ewe, Ga,
b. Mande: this group is made up of two notable northern languages, Ligbi and Bisa, and
c. Gur: a group that comprises most of the northern languages such as Dagbani, Kasem, Dagare etc. (Agbedor, 1994, p. 17)

There is no available immediate data on the linguistic distribution at the time of this study, however, Chazan (1983) estimates the distribution according to ethnic groups as follows:

a. Akan (Kwa): 44.1 %
b. Ewe (Kwa): 13.0 %
c. Ga/Dangme (Kwa): 8.3 %
d. Mole-Dagbane (Gur): 16 %
e. Guang (Kwa): 3.7 %
f. Gurma (Gur): 3.5 %
g. Others: 11.4 % (p.35)
Further discussion of language choice in Ghana’s educational will be discussed in the dissertation.

The issue of provision of skill training facilities and language in formal education in Ghana has therefore long been debated extensively among numerous “dynasties” and “moguls” in Ghana. The debate became essential because education is seen as crucial to the socio-economic and political success of the individual as well as the society and the nation as a whole. On the other hand, the discussion about language in formal education in Ghana was not among dynasties, moguls, linguists, educationists, or psychologists alone, but also among economists as well. The importance attached to education and the interest in it was also due to the fact that, “traditional African societies, including Ghana, have a remarkable history of educational tradition” (Nwomonoh, 1998, p. 4). Indigenous ethnic groups in Africa used education to “transmit cultural and linguistic identity; develop skills for men and women; prepare youth to respond to pressing problems found in the communities, and to initiate development programs for the society” (Nwomonoh, 1998, p. 4). Thus, as a component of national development, “issues of language in education are linked to language policy and economic development in Ghana” (Agbedor, 1994, p. 6). This connection related to the influx of immigrants, including refugees from Liberia, Sudan and Eritrea into Ghana. Language policy became a national issue and
nowhere was the impact of the linguistic and cultural diversity felt more than in
the Ghanaian classroom.¹

Since independence from Britain in 1957 through to post-colonial periods
of the Nkrumah Era (1951-1966), the Ankrah and Busia Era (1966-1972), the
Acheampong, Akuffo, Rawlings² and Linman’s Era (1972-1981), and Rawlings³
(1981-1986), numerous reforms have characterized Ghana’s education system.
The reforms became necessary because Ghanaian educational system inherited,
since the Nkrumah era, systematic flaws through indiscriminate importation of
European models and concepts of education, which ill-suited Ghana’s social,
cultural, and economic systems. The reforms initiated in Ghana’s educational
system included objectives of education, teacher education and the preparation of
teachers for Ghana's multicultural and multilingual classroom.

Although Ghana’s educational reforms were aimed at the diversification
of the curriculum, studies of the history of policies on education in Ghana (Mc
William and Kwamena-Poh, 1975; Bening 1990) indicated the education reforms
did not meet the cultural and linguistic diversity of the Ghanaian population.
Other studies, such as education reform and social change (Foster 1965; Ahiable-
Addo 1980; Scadding 1990; Antwi 1990), and the churches’ contribution to

accessed on 9/15/2006
² Flt. Lt. Jerry John Rawlings became Head of State through a military coup on June 4, 1979.
³ Flt. Lt. Jerry John Rawlings became a Head of State for the second time in a second military
coup on December 31, 1981.
educational expansion (Bartels 1965; Smith 1966; Quist 1994) revealed that reform agendas identified problems associated with “issues of language and the goals of education in national development” (Agbedor, 1994, p. 13) yet, these issues were not resolved. In addition to issues of language, Ghanaian politicians after independence saw the need to close the technological gap between the economic powers of the West and Africa, particularly Ghana, and indiscriminately adapted characteristics of Western educational system.

The adaptation of Western educational system seemed to have led to the formulation of bourgeois prejudices against manual labor, which in the end created a new privileged class system of highly educated Ghanaian persons. Ghanaians saw higher education and white-collar jobs as the only way to upward mobility, material prosperity, social prestige, and political power. This seemingly led the Ghana government to utilize national funds for higher education instead of improving K-12 education. This educational policy created an educational system that led to income disparity between the small, educated elite and the mass of the Ghanaian people who had little or no education. The vision of an education that meets Ghana’s socio-cultural, economic and developmental need became marred needing further reforms to provide needed educational outcomes.
Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to examine Ghana’s education reform initiatives between 1975 and 1996 in the light of contemporary linguistic and diversity issues. The goal was to identify emerging themes and determine the extent to which Ghana’s education reform can be improved by drawing upon the rich resources of education reforms in the U. S. Thus, this study is inspired by the need to address factors that have influenced education reforms in Ghana. By the early 1970s, Ghanaian educators and stakeholders in Ghana’s education system observed and expressed concerns that Ghana’s education system needed major reforms. According to critics of the education system, Ghana’s education system was not meeting the needs of the changing dynamics of Ghanaian society (McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, 1975; EAC, 1972; Nimako, 1976; Antwi, 1992).

According to the Education Advisory Committee (EAC), the system was ‘undemocratic’ because it was highly selective and elitist (EAC, 1972). To this end, in June 1972, “the EAC was established to review Ghana’s education system and reverse the trend” (Nwomonoh, 1998, p. 4).

The study of emerging themes in educational reforms in the multicultural and multilingual setting of Ghana was indeed a case study of multicultural education in the educational system of Ghana. This study strived to contextualize a case study of Ghana within the larger framework of multicultural education in the United States by analyzing issues, which in the past have determined and may
continue to determine education policies within the framework of education reforms in Ghana.

In discussing problems related to education, particularly in relation to education reforms in Ghana, it is appropriate in this preliminary discussion to realize that one needs to observe changes in education in conjunction with the objectives for which the changes have occurred in formal education in Ghana. At each point, Ghana’s education policies were designed to address identifiable problems and cause the ‘new’ education system to reflect the new emphases. However, it seemed that in many instances education reforms did not affect general practices in the Ghanaian education system. Largely, the education reforms in Ghana were initiated against the background of an education system that was widely described at varied points as dysfunctional, undemocratic, oppressive and inefficient (Ghana, 1966a; Education Commission (EC), 1986; Fobi-Koomson and Godwyll, 1995). In any effort to reform Ghana’s education system, it is important to note that teacher education sector is not the only area within the Ministry of Education where changes occur, but it is the area where one can observe changes on a daily basis. Thus, this study is motivated by the need to address issues that have emerged for decades and were likely to have contributed to the results of education reforms in Ghana.
Statement of the problem

In discussing issues relating to Ghana’s educational reform, one will realize that the term, education reform, itself is fraught with problems, because there are competing definitions for the realities that the term represents. The problem exists in the assumptions that underlie the understanding of the relationship between the socio-economic and political context and the purposes of education that educational reform seeks to address. In this study, reforms in education are viewed as adjustments of an educational system (e.g. a national education system) to meet the socio-economic and political needs of society.

In the past three decades, three periods of educational reforms have characterized Ghana’s educational history because of the socio-political transformations that Ghana experienced. These attempts to reform education in Ghana include: (i) The Dzobo Reforms of 1975; (ii) The Anfom Reforms of 1987; and (iii) The Basic Sector Improvement Program, also known as the Free Compulsory and Universal Basic Education Reform (FCUBE) of 1996. These periods of reform were widely thought to be the vehicle for accelerating the implementation of governmental development policies and programs in Ghana. However, implementation of these reform initiatives did not seem to focus on the continuing aim of making education more relevant to Ghana’s world of work, and the development and modernization of Ghana’s economy.
The education reforms therefore seemed not to meet expectations in terms of coverage, quality, equitableness and the economic development needs of Ghana. Re-examining Ghana’s education reforms in the light of developed countries like the United States of America might highlight implications in the structure, content, and the objectives in Ghana’s effort at providing educational reform that is linked to its socio-economic and political development. Therefore, the present study aims to establish a framework based on theoretical principles that address this linkage.

Operational definition of key words

Acronyms like GNAT, GES, MOEYS, as well as words such as emerging issues and reform initiatives in education are terms that are used in Ghana’s education arena. In order to set the parameters for this study, an operational definition of these terms is necessary. This section includes an operational description of key words that are used repeatedly in the study. In many instances, the constitutive, formal denotation of a term is presented, followed by an operational interpretation of how the term is used in this study.

1. SSS in this study refers to Senior Secondary School, a term introduced by Dzobo Commission on Ghana’s education reforms in 1972. In view of this, SSS 1 automatically refers to First year of the SSS program and SSS 2 refers to Second year of the SSS program.
2. Emerging Issues are the culminating concerns that seem to frequently become visible in Ghana’s education system and needing collective action in the education reforms.

3. Reform Initiatives in this study are the steps outlined in the Ghana’s education reform documents to address the emerging issues in the education system.

4. GNAT is the Ghana National Association of Teachers. GNAT is an association of all teachers from pre-school through to K-12 level. The Ghana National Association of Teachers is a service organization for teachers and is concerned with ensuring better conditions of service for its members who are drawn from pre-tertiary levels of the educational system (i.e. from public and private primary, junior and secondary schools, teacher training colleges, technical institutes and offices of educational administration units).

5. GES is the Ghana Education Service. GES administers pre-university education in Ghana.

6. MOEYS is the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. MOEYS is responsible for education and oversees five units within the ministry. These include the Ghana Education Service (GES), which administers pre-university education; the National Council on Tertiary Education; the National Accreditation Board; and the National Board for Professional and
Technician Examinations (NABPTEX).

7. Transmissive educational practices: Transmissive educational practices ensure strict conformity to an educational system that has been handed down by an external interest party (such as the colonial authority, World Bank, International Monetary Fund, etc.) with no room for the user of that educational system to restructure and translate the educational policies to meet the needs and goals of development at the individual level, as well as, improving the nation’s socioeconomic and political concerns of the user. In the context of Ghana, post colonial educational systems copied and adapted, without discrimination and realism, many of the characteristics of the colonial educational system. It led to stifling of the Ghanaian economy, and subsequently to the self-perpetuating of poverty and destruction of Ghana’s broad-based educational system.

8. Transformative educational practices: Transformative educational practices allow the translation and restructuring of educational policies to meet the needs and goals of development at the individual level as well as improving the nation’s socioeconomic and political concerns of the user.

9. Holmes Group was founded by a consortium of education deans from a small number of research universities who were concerned about the generally low quality of teacher preparation in the United States. This consortium was concerned with transforming teaching from an occupation
status to a professional status geared toward serving the educational needs of children. This consortium is organized around two objectives: the simultaneous reform of the education of educators, and the reform of schooling (Holmes Group, 1995).

10. Multicultural Education: this is an idea, a reform movement, and a process. As an idea, all students, regardless their background, the groups they belong to, in fact, regardless the gender, religion, race, culture, language, social or exceptionality should experience educational quality in education. As a reform movement, schools must be transformed to enable students from diverse backgrounds to have an equal chance to experience educational success. As a continuing process, the idealized goals such as educational equality and eradication of all forms of discrimination can never be fully achieved in human society (Banks, J. A., 2001 paraphrased).

11. Preservice Teacher training program: in the United States as well as Ghana, traditional teacher training was a four-year teacher preparation program. The program followed almost similar curriculum and instruction pattern, whereby the first two years are devoted to studying general liberal arts curriculum, and the other two years are devoted to taking specialized, professional courses in education, which includes field experience (Feiman-Nemser, 1990 paraphrased).
12. Multicultural Education Movement: is a movement that emerged out of the Civil Rights movement in the United States. During the Civil Rights era, African Americans scholars started to demand desegregation of schools and equal education opportunities for all students. The multicultural education movement led to the inclusion of minority cultural perspectives into mainstream Eurocentric curriculum.

Research questions

With the implementation of education reforms in Ghana since 1957, there emerged series of issues about educational reforms in Ghana, which this study sought to investigate. These topics relate to educational objectives, teacher education, and the preparation of teachers for multicultural and multilingual classrooms in Ghana. Considering education as a political and cultural institution through which society creates, maintains, and transforms its cultural standards, education must fit into the cultural and political milieu of that society. It is within this concept that this study addressed the research questions. The main questions were:

(i) What are the emerging issues that characterize reform initiatives in Ghana’s educational programs between 1975 and 1996?

The main question led to related research questions, which were:

(ii) Did the reform initiatives address issues and concerns of multiculturalism and multilingualism in Ghana’s educational setting?
(iii) What factors seem to have shaped the present educational system in Ghana and transformed it to be more responsive to a pluralistic and technologically advancing society?

A combination of relevant theories and analytical research procedures were used to respond to these research questions. The focus was on issues that called for Ghana’s education reform initiatives to address the pluralistic and technologically advancing society of Ghana.

Educational significance of the study

This study was motivated by the vision of a systematic and comprehensive teacher education program that will consistently and successfully correspond to dynamics in a developing and linguistically diverse society like Ghana. This motivation guided the conceptual framework of the study.

Western formal education is described by Rodney (1982) as “the transplanting of a western version of European education into Africa” (p.246). This form of education in Ghana can be divided into four distinct periods: (i) formal schools introduced by English representatives of trade in Cape Coast, (ii) mission schools instituted by English and Swiss Christian Missionaries, (iii) formal education implemented under British colonial policy and, (iv) formal education today in its Postcolonial context. These periods of western formal education have distinctive characteristics.
Ghana is a multilingual country. Research on the languages of Ghana indicates that “there are between 45 and 60 indigenous languages in Ghana” (Birnie and Ansre, 1969, p. 5), excluding regional dialects. These indigenous languages include Ewe, Akan, Ga, Nzema, Hausa, and Dagbani to mention a few key languages. This multilingual situation in Ghana presents problems in many sectors of Ghana’s national life: education, national development, and transcultural communication (Hymes, 1967, p. 8). By virtue of the colonial presence of the British for many years, the English language became the official language employed by the government to document both governmental policies and laws. The dominance of the English language alongside the multiple indigenous languages already existing in the Ghanaian education curriculum poses a problem in terms of literacy. Because of the Colonial experience, Ghanaians are bilingual—“able to speak at least two languages perfectly” (Andoh-Kumi, 1997, p. 107). Since independence from Britain, in 1957, citizens from Europe and other African states have migrated from their economic habitats to Ghana, making Ghana a pluralistic country. With the influx of immigrants including refugees from Liberia, Sudan, and Eritrea, to mention a few, the impact

---

of linguistic and cultural diversity is more felt in the Ghanaian classroom than in any sector of the society\textsuperscript{5}.

A study of education reforms in the United States offers, not only insights, but also an important background resource that facilitates the identification and analysis of what goes on in education programs in Ghana. Developing countries like Ghana can, therefore, draw lessons from United States educational reforms, which were sometimes initiated to address the country’s multicultural and developmental needs. My Grandma used to say “\textit{xoxoa nu wogbea yeyewo do}” which is an Ewe\textsuperscript{6} proverb meaning “we mold new ropes according to samples of old ropes.” In this sense, United States educational reform provides this study with a sample on which to model Ghana’s educational reform.

By 1957, Ghana had gained independence from British colonial authority and initiated moves to change the prevailing models of teacher education to be more responsive to a pluralistic and technologically advancing Ghanaian society. Earlier, in the United States, by 1954, the Brown v. Board of Education ruling led to systematic demands for changes and improvements in the curriculum and methods of preparing teachers. In 2001, a comparative study of Teacher Educational reform was carried out between the U. S. and the United Kingdom

\textsuperscript{5} According to the UNESCO, 2003 World Population data “Around 175 million persons currently reside outside the country of their birth, and almost one of every 10 persons living in the more developed regions is a migrant. The more developed regions receive each year about 2.3 million migrants coming from the less developed regions, accounting for two thirds of their population growth”. \url{http://www.unpopulation.org} accessed on 9/15/2006

\textsuperscript{6} Ewe is a Ghanaian language
(including England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland). The objective was to locate “the right balance between the need to take complete professional responsibility” for preservice teachers as well as help them “become new teachers,” ready to meet “the right and proper expectation of the public” in the sense that they become “the kind of teachers” society needs “for their children” (Newby, 2001 in Glenn, 2001, p. 6). Though this study did not include Ghana, much of the education system of Ghana was borrowed from Britain. Employing the American situation as a guide offers a ‘lens’ to develop a model that fits the needs of Ghana through which other countries experiencing or with similar cultural and linguistically diverse background can find insights. Part of America’s concern in the education program is about “traditional cultural values are not receiving sufficient attention” (e.g., Hirsch, 1987) values that include language diversity and skills; part also came from attempts “to reinforce the academic curriculum” (e.g., Bennett, 1988); and part from teachers who question whether “changes in writing instruction, for example, as proposed by certain educational planners can meet the challenge of teaching literacy in a culturally and linguistically diverse classroom” (Andrasick, 1990).

The issue of language and cultural diversity is a concern in developing countries like Ghana, and these countries are continually seeking ways to give attention to their traditional values in the curriculum, especially in under-represented populations. If one considers language as a cultural bank in which
traditional values and the history of the people are enshrined, and also actively cultivated, renewed, invented, then absence of a lingua franca in the Ghana’s school curriculum and teaching pedagogy robs the Ghanaian child of their cultural values as well as their history.

Today, one overarching belief in developing countries is that “learning in schools will not improve until teacher quality is upgraded” (Piazza and Wallat, 1987, p. 46). In fact, teacher training colleges and curriculum development programs in Ghana are decreasing as funding of education programs are declining. Similarly, other questions are being raised about how to meet standards and the methods of assessing students in culturally and linguistically diverse classroom.

This study is designed to benefit all ends of the globe at a time when there is migration and widespread movement of people from one place to the other, which in turn is reflected in classroom experiences. By examining outcome of education reforms in the United States, one can evaluate reforms put forward by various committees in Ghana to see whether the reforms transformed schools or raised the level of literacy in the country at the level reformers have envisioned.7 Findings from this study can guide other studies on Ghana’s educational reform

agenda and provide significant insights into what goes into education programs in a culturally and linguistically diverse classroom.

Rationale for the study

According to Nwomonoh (1998), “the manifest functions of the education enterprise include the socialization of the young; cultural transmission and social integration; the creation of new knowledge; the development of personal skills; training for work; and the promotion of social and economic mobility over time” (p. 19). However, education also has latent or hidden functions. To this end, during the period between the 1950s and 1960s new nations in Africa set out to modify the colonial education legacies, typically trying to establish systems of education corresponding to their social, economic, and political aspirations and circumstances.

On attainment of independence, Ghana also observed that the type and quality of the education system inherited from the colonial era did not address the country’s needs for equity and national development. Various stakeholders in Ghana’s education system and review committees emphasized this perspective and proposed remedies to link education to modernization. In many instances, weaknesses in the implementation of the reforms became part of the common reasons why the reforms failed to achieve their goals, thereby exposing the education sector to public criticism. In other situations, in an effort to provide effective education in a cultural and linguistically diverse community like Ghana,
the goals of education policies need to be established and the means of implementation identified. This goal in a way needs to include the examination of educational reform programs as well as how far the goals set were being fulfilled in a multicultural and multilingual setting. Thus, the need for a study like the present one is justified based on an examination of education reforms that affect societal outcomes.

Limitations of the study

Limitations of this study include time, proximity of Ghana’s education reform documents, and the cultural relevance of the research findings. As an international student with a relatively small number of years of education in the United States the researcher took graduate classes and undertook this research to learn about the education, cultural norms, values and goals of education in the United States. Undertaking a study of this kind, as a researcher, was limited in a number of ways including opportunities, time and space. In the first place, the researcher is a non-native American and is not a product of the American school system, except in graduate study. It is possible that certain essential nuances in the documents will not be recognized. Some documents may have a deeper meaning for a native researcher. In view of that, independent second readers—several American scholars—who are experts in the field of English Education read the researcher’s interpretations of the documents to validate findings and ensure trustworthiness.
Second, the study is limited by availability of Ghana’s educational reform documents. Ghana is a developing country; hence, it faces technological advancement in terms of preservation of the documents such as the education reform documents. Until 1997, a majority of official documents were typewritten on typewriters, then labeled as “Top Secret” by the government and guarded as bona fide properties of the government that initiated the reform project. As such, it was difficult to access certain documents as original sources. Instead, excerpts and abridged versions presented at donor conferences by representatives of the Ghana government were used.

Another limitation of the study was the appropriateness of the end results of the study. The findings of this study are limited to education reform initiatives in Ghana and the United States. The results may not reflect the perceptions of what may have taken place in other situations across the developing world. Thus, the results may have limited generalizability to other countries in analyzing their educational experiences.

Finally, this study is an interpretive case study within the framework of qualitative research. The purpose was to gain insight into the education reform initiatives in Ghana within the social and historical contexts defined. By choosing an interpretive research paradigm, the goal was “to advance knowledge about the reform documents and share the dynamics with others” (Bassey, 1999, p. 44). Since the reform proposals are from various sources, it is important that the
researcher define his role as an “interpretive-bricoleur” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000, p. 367). The researcher-as-interpretive-bricoleur exists in a world of values, thus, the researcher confronts this world through the lens that a scholar’s interpretive perspective provides (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000, p. 367). This approach is important because data as “cases” to be analyzed, “whatever kind or form they take, are about specifics…..and inevitably are about the context in which the specifics are embedded” (Gideonse, 1999, p. 2). In the process of analyzing the data, the researcher became actively involved in learning as the documents were studied. In the course of reading and analyzing the data the researcher was also testing his “own understandings and perceptions of the documents” (Gideonse, 1999, p. 3). As an interpretive-bricoleur in an interpretive case study, the researcher received a “firsthand account of the situation under study, and when combined with paradigms of document analysis, he became grounded to pursue an interpretation of the phenomenon being investigated” (Merriam, 1988, p. 102).

Because of the complexities of the contexts and situations unique to education reform proposals there were bound to be problems in the data collection (Merriam, 1988, p. 103) as well as in the analysis. According to Guba and Lincoln (1981), “In situations where motives, attitudes, beliefs, and values direct much, if not most of human activity, there are biases the investigator brings to the situation (p. 213) and these may affect the interpretation of the documents. This researcher, therefore, is not an exception.
Regardless of these limitations, the researcher’s outsider-insider view, however should shed light on the examined issues, reveal “gaps and blind spots” in the documents under study, and bring a novel approach to resolving various problems. This research offers room for an assessment that may be different from a study that is carried out by a native researcher who may be influenced by the same socio-political and cultural perspectives associated with the education documents themselves.

Summary

The focus of this chapter has been to examine Ghana’s education legacies and the effort to establish systems of education corresponding to the country’s social, economic, and political aspirations and circumstances. In an effort to find out weaknesses in the implementation of the reforms, three research questions were posed. These questions include: (i) What are the emerging issues that characterize reform initiatives in Ghana’s educational programs between 1975 and 1996? (ii) Did the reform initiatives address issues and concerns of multicultural and multilingualism in Ghana’s educational setting? and (iii) What factors seem to have shaped the present educational system in Ghana and transformed it to be more responsive to a pluralistic and technologically advancing society? In the next chapter, I will discuss literatures that form the background to this research.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The focus of this chapter is to review relevant literature essential to this research. The review of literature purposefully encompasses where this research is coming from, and then provides major conceptual areas that inform multicultural education reforms with the goal of investigating the extent to which multicultural education can be utilized in an educational context like Ghana. Since the 1970s, Ghana has witnessed three major attempts to restructure its education system. These three periods of reform include the Dzobo Reforms of 1972, the Anfom Reforms of 1987, and the Basic Education Sector Improvement Programme (1996-2000). Various accounts comprising primary reform documents and personal experience, and secondary literature written by Ghanaian educational theorists were examined in this chapter to show how the reforms align with the socioeconomic needs of the changing society of Ghana.

The first area of review presents a brief overview of the history of education reforms in Ghana and the widespread dissatisfaction that led to subsequent reform initiatives. Second, the literature also examines reform initiatives in the United States at all levels and the recommendations made to address education and schooling
problems. The review then leads to a more focused investigation of multicultural education reforms, the various conceptions of multicultural education theory, and multicultural curriculum reform. Finally, the review of literature examines the philosophical underpinnings of multicultural education as a reform agenda to meet the accelerated development needs of a society that is culturally pluralistic.

Education as an institution must be viewed and understood within the context of the society of which it is a part. In like manner, its development and status within the society can best be understood as part of its institutional values, norms, and goals. It is the assumption of this researcher that the development of western formal education is tied to national development. In this perspective, it is appropriate to examine Ghana’s educational reforms to understand how Ghana’s educational system is tied to the country’s national development. In order to achieve the synthesis regarding the context and objectives of the reforms and evaluate the history of Ghana’s education reforms a theoretical framework that includes a multicultural aspect is proposed for this study.

A SHORT OVERVIEW OF GHANA’S EDUCATION REFORM

The history of education reform in Ghana dates back to 1592, when the Danes and Portuguese first arrived in what was then called the Gold Coast, now Ghana. Since that time educational reforms have had many different goals such as
training teachers to acquire skills essential in spreading the gospel to creating an elite group to run the colony alongside the colonial masters. After gaining independence from Britain in 1957, Ghana’s educational system, then modeled on the British system, underwent a series of reforms. Significant among them are the:

1. Education Act of 1961
2. New Structure and Content of Education 1974
5. Education Reform Program 1987

Though each of these education reform initiatives helped in its own way with a structural transformation of the education system in Ghana, the reforms seemed not to recognize the crucial contribution of language issues as part of educational reforms, especially, the quality of teaching in a pluralistic classroom. In addition, other concerns were also not sufficiently recognized in the areas of teacher preparation and learning in the multicultural and multilingual setting of Ghana. These concerns with language are crucial since newly independent nations...
including Ghana were faced with problems of language of education. Some of the concerns raised dealt with the following types of questions:

- Which languages were to be used in schools and classrooms?
- Which language(s) were to be used for instruction?
- What should be the role of indigenous languages and the languages of the colonizers? (Agbedor, 1994, p. 3).

Ghana by its very nature is recognized as a multilingual society because it is an amalgamation of previously independent and linguistically distinct kingdoms, each with its own traditionally organized systems of administration (Agbedor, 1994, p. 3). These linguistically and culturally distinct Ghanaian kingdoms were brought together by the colonizers through many conquests and treatises. An example of this is The Treaty of Fomena (1844) through which the British took over the administration of the Fante Kingdom. Despite the amalgamation, however, these linguistic communities still maintain their distinct ethnic identities of language and culture (refer to Ward, 1965 for full history of Ghana and quoted in Agbedor, 1994). Thus, with the introduction of English by the colonial administration into the education system, Ghana chose to become a bilingual society. In cases where a foreign conquest resulted in the transfer of foreign institutions such as western formal education in Ghana, how much more complex are the interactions of indigenous culture and foreign (formal) education? Its history includes the transfer of
British formal education into Ghana’s indigenous culture. A study of Ghana’s formal and informal education at the intersection of national and indigenous cultures allows the development and application of insight into the significance of education as an institution.

While the period of western education has its unique characteristics the adaptation of its educational structure in the Ghanaian context did not yield the required dividend. Adaptation of a western educational system manifested itself through the curriculum, instruction, and organizational processes that is western in origin up to concepts that reflect norms, values or goals that are compatible with Ghanaian needs. Foster (1965) described the adaptation of novel perspectives in Ghanaian education as an “acculturative situation,” resulting in a dual social structure in nature and composed of both traditional and modern European criteria of status (p. 97-99). Foster explained its dualistic nature as the result of “an historically European dominated educational system and the demands of an African clientele” (p. 103-104). However, in Ghana as well as most African countries, postcolonial governments saw formal education, introduced by the colonial administration, as essential to the acquisition of skills for economic productivity and national development. In addition, after gaining independence from colonial authorities, African leaders including Ghana realized that education of women has positive correlation with lower infant mortality rate, malnutrition, reduction in
family fertility and a means to increase productivity, which will guarantee
subsistence economy. Hence, African governments sought ways to reshape their
educational institutions and systems to guarantee the citizenry secured
employment, social mobility and ensured national development.

As this study investigates what factors seemed to shape the educational
system in Ghana and transform it to be responsive to a pluralistic and
technologically advancing society, it must be recognized that much research on
western formal education in Ghana had seemingly accepted European and
American style educational institutions as the standard. A review of studies on
Ghanaian education supports this perspective in education research, including
Bame (1991), who conducted a study on teacher motivation and retention; Hyde
(1993) studied the variables that limit women’s access to formal education; and
Bamgbose (1976), a collection of articles on implementation of bilingual and
multilingual education policies in West Africa. Concerns identified in these studies
were also confirmed by Feinberg and Soltis (1992) as a strong tendency to overlook
social, political, and cultural factors that have helped to create certain situations and
to also serve both possibilities as well as limitations in the education system (p. 10).

With this background the question that arises is what are the emerging
concerns in Ghana’s education reform and how can the Ghana’s education system
learn from developed nations such as the United States to achieve the desired goals
of its education reforms. The study asks the question about how reforms in the United States’ programs shape the structure of education in Ghana to derive its societal goals?

A BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

The genesis of teacher education in the United States in the nineteenth century was not only based on European cultural and intellectual heritage, but also on new vision of America’s position in the world (Tomlinson, 1994, p. 83). Since the American Revolution, older political, economic and social patterns had been changing and newer philosophies had emerged. Egalitarianism and the rights of the common man were advocated in the newer philosophies. The extension of the male suffrage, the widening of the candidacy for election, the birth of industrialization, and the growth of nationalism underlined the increasing necessity of education for both the rich and the poor (Tomlinson, 1994, p. 7). The influx of migrant workers, most of whom were seeking a better way of life, with freedom from conflict, oppression, and persecution, caused a growing demand for education to satisfy expectations and ensure progress (Tozer et al, 2002, p. 34). Universal public schooling with competent and well-trained teachers was promoted to create a new sense of community that could oversee the differences in culture, language, and religion (Tomlinson, 1994, p. 85).

Although various types of schools and colleges existed in the United States
during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, it was not until the 1820s that an institution was established specifically for the education of teachers. Up to this period, the vast majority of schoolmasters and mistresses were untrained, with many having no more than a basic elementary education themselves. With the increase in public education and the rise of the common school at the beginning of the nineteenth century, the need for more competent teachers and higher standards of instruction seem to be recognized. It was recognized that these goals could be realized through the provision of some kind of teacher training prior to employment. Thus, there was a growing awareness that there should be proper qualifications for teaching, that the status of the profession needed to be raised, and that certain skills and abilities for all teachers are needed beyond knowledge of academic content (Tozer et al, 2002, p. 56).

Academies and private colleges were the first institutions to pay attention to these problems and issues, although a form of teacher education was provided at several monitory schools. The academies concentrated on liberal arts subjects, rather than professional studies. The programs were based on the academic tradition that teachers mainly needed an understanding of subject matter to be able to teach, although a few institutions established normal school departments and offered combined courses including the principles of teaching. The academies were greatest in the number before the outbreak of the U. S. Civil War, after which time
they were gradually assimilated into the expanding high schools and liberal arts colleges, with their teacher education training programs being superseded by normal schools as well as college and university departments of education.\(^8\)

Higher education in the United States can be divided into four main historical periods. These include, (a) the founding of colonial colleges, 1636-1776; (b) experiment and diversity, 1776-1862; (c) the rise of the university, 1862-1900; and (d) the period of expansion, 1900 to the present (Tozer et al, 2002, p. 32). These periods are characterized by structural components in the complex structure of U. S. higher education (Lieberman, 1993, P. 45). Teacher education began during the period of experimentation in the late 1700s with the emergence of normal schools in American Higher Education. The Normal Schools served as the prototype for Teachers Colleges and subsequently Schools, Colleges, and Departments of Education. The first three normal schools to be opened were in Massachusetts, where initially courses were short and enrollment was small.\(^9\)

However, before 1865, several others normal schools were opened in the U. S. East and Midwest, with one also being founded in California.\(^10\) Additionally, some city and county normal schools were established before this date.\(^11\) The majority of these early institutions focused on teaching skills and methods, rather than subject matter. This marked the beginning of the professional studies tradition, with almost

\(^8\) NSCTE, “The Education of Teachers” NSCTE 23\(^{rd}\) Year Book, 1933, p. 1-241
\(^9\) Elsbree, 1939, p. 147-148
\(^11\) Ibid.
all the schools offering instruction in “school-keeping,” a course on the principles of teaching, a review of the common elementary subjects and how to teach them, and observation and practice teaching.  

The Establishment of colonial colleges began with the creation of Harvard College (1636), a liberal arts college, which served as the model for the other colonial colleges (Tozer et al, 2002, p. 110). The objective for which Harvard was established was “to raise pious and learned clergy and prepare men of refinement and culture to assume positions of power and leadership in society” (Lucas, 1989, p. 20). According to Lucas, (1989), the curriculum was defined as classical liberal arts, composed of the Trivium (Grammar, Rhetoric, and Dialectics) and the Quadrivium (Geometry, Arithmetic, Music, and Astronomy). The objective of this curriculum was largely to develop a “cultured scholar” (Lucas, 1989, p 56).

The Experiment and Diversity period provided separately organized Specialized and Professional schools (Lucas, 1989, p 56). Institutions of higher learning started to follow the classically oriented curriculum of the colonial colleges, “in opposition to the ideal of training cultured scholars, increasing demand for more specific training which would produce the skilled professionals” (Lucas, 1989, p 58). However, the scientific training of teachers aimed at producing skilled professionals became the objective of the Specialized and Professional schools. In furtherance of this objective, the institutions demanded relevance and

\[12\] Ibid.
practical utility for their curriculum, and existing colleges established professional schools. Significantly, this was the period of the revolutionary war in America, and an evolving accelerated economic growth and industrial revolution seemed to no longer able sustain the ideals of the liberal curriculum (Lieberman, 1995, p. 171). This was the period of the first Morrill Act of 1862, which made federal funding available to establish public land-grant colleges and universities (Williams, 1997, p. 45); and the second Morrill Act of 1890, which gave birth to Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) (Lucas, 1989, p 59). In addition, women’s colleges were established. This period also saw the proliferation of normal schools.

The rise of universities in America is linked to two earlier major events; these were, the establishment of land-grant colleges, and the emergence of the U. S. university (and graduate education) as a dominant structure in higher education. Due to the passing of the second Morrill Act of 1890, federal grants were given to many states to establish at least one college whose principal mission was to provide training in the agriculture and mechanical arts (Lucas, 1989, p 58). With the founding of John Hopkins University in 1876, the idea of the university was firmly established, and it assumed a position of leadership in American higher education. Research universities, on the other hand, came about in the United States because of the German model. A majority of the faculty, who had returned from Germany where they studied, adopted the German universities’ broad mission of
emphasizing scholarship, research, and preparation for the learned profession (Lucas, 1989, p 70). The curriculum emphasized science and technology as in the case of John Hopkins University, which gained a reputation as the leading center for medical research (Lucas, 1989, p 70).

The period of expansion also brought about the establishment of community and junior colleges. The primary goal in these institutions was to provide a parallel to the first two years of liberal arts instruction given in four-year colleges, particularly to relieve universities of the need to provide vocational and general education courses. The colleges enjoyed growth in student numbers and diversity because they were typically affordable; they also served as an entry point to higher education for poor and minority students. The programs were flexible, thus making it attractive to nontraditional students, and normally had an open admissions policy. These colleges served a dual mission of preparing students for work (vocational preparedness) and the feeder function of providing students for four-year institutions. Their curriculum was broad; they basically were all things to all people because they responded to local community needs, such as training for work, provided remedial education, and the teaching of English as a Second language to immigrant populations (Lieberman, 1993, P. 45).
A SHORT HISTORY OF TEACHER EDUCATION REFORM IN THE UNITED STATES

The origins of the present-day paradigm of professional training in education dates back to the late nineteenth century (Lieberman, 1993, P. 47). According to Cremin (1997), three decisive models of professional training emerged in the United States during the era. These include Law, Medicine, and Education (p. 401). Professional training in education was developed by James Earl et al. at Teacher's College, Columbia University at a time when Columbia (then a colonial college) was in the process of transforming itself into a university (Cremin, 1997, p. 401).

By 1910, students in leading colleges and universities were typically completing about twelve professional courses to graduate. However, as in many types of training institutions, the requirements to graduate were increasing, and by 1920, the average number of ‘technical’ courses had risen to about twenty (Monroe, 1952, p. 368). The main reason for the professional training was largely due to “widening dissatisfaction with contemporary professional training” (Cremin, 1997, p. 403). Around that time Christopher Columbus Langall et al. at Harvard and William Henry Welch et al. at John’s Hopkins developed a model for training in Law and Medicine. Together these reformers were somehow able to impose standards upon their fields. Like his fellow reformers, Russell advocated reforming
the curriculum to focus on "courses considered essential to success in teaching" (Cremin, 1997, p. 405). In addition to raising standards, Russell advocated lengthening the course of study, and formed alliances with state departments of education, professional associations, and faculty members in other university education departments (Cremin, 1997, p. 406). Some of these alliances still exist today, and they often are the key players in teacher education reforms. Cremin (1997), notes that, “all three reformers studied in Germany, and drank the heady wine of Wissenschaft” (p. 406).

Prior to Russell's reform of 1898, teacher education was diverse and somewhat haphazard. Most primary school teachers had no training beyond primary schooling, and the few who obtained preparation beyond primary schooling attended only an academy or a high school (Cremin, 1997; Ornstein & Levine, 2000). Some went on to study for a year or two in pedagogy and history of education, and completed their practice teaching at an affiliated school or a local high school (Cremin, 1997, p. 407). However, for those who worked at the high school level, most of the teachers were educated at colleges or universities with emphasis in the school subject taught (Cremin, 1997, p. 407).
AN OVERVIEW OF AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL REFORM INITIATIVES

It has been observed that a large number of institutions of higher learning undertake teacher education programs in the United States. Over the years, these institutions have made efforts at restructuring the education sector through various educational reform initiatives. Apart from professionalizing teacher education, the early reform initiatives centered on developing normal schools, teachers colleges, and schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDE). Whereas higher education has a longer history in the United States, as far back as the colonial college era, the formal preparation of teachers did not take effect until the early nineteenth century (Spring, 1994; Pullian and Patten, 1995). Initial efforts at teacher education occurred outside institutions of higher learning and were focused on preparing teachers to meet the needs of the large agrarian community of the time. However, with the dawn of the twentieth century, the focus on teacher preparation shifted in the United States to preparing teachers for an urban, industrialized society rather than on an agrarian community.

Teacher preparation in institutions of higher learning in the U. S. occurred concurrently in three related areas: (i) normal schools, (ii) teachers colleges and, (iii) schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDE). The reforms had similar intentions, with priority on improving the quality of teacher preparation in
the United States. Hence, reforms were overlapping in content, though each reform was different in nature. Even though the present research focuses on English Language Arts teacher preparation, the following section provides background information on the genesis of the key reforms under the broad title of Evolution of Teacher Education.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF TEACHER EDUCATION AND NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES

Teacher education in the United States has a long-standing tradition that dates back to two concurrent developments namely, normal schools and SCDEs, which were housed within the universities (Morey, Bezuk and Cheiro 1997, p 20). The first development focused on training elementary school teachers for the flourishing common schools in the late 1800s. The founding of the first normal schools under Horace Mann (then Secretary of Education in Massachusetts) in 1887 was an “attempt to professionalize the teaching career in order to recruit a more highly educated and stable workforce” (Grow-Maienza, 1996, p. 514). According to Morey et al. (1997), the normal schools were “single purpose institutions (that) combined methodological study with actual classroom experience. They were generally not affiliated with colleges and universities during this period” (p. 1). The normal school emerged in the second half of the 19th century to offer preservice teachers training in the basic pedagogical skills and mastery of the curriculum content to make it possible for them to teach effectively.
According to Feiman-Nemser (1990), “the idea of teacher education as a special kind of academic training did not exist before there were normal schools” (p. 213). Normal schools emerged simultaneously with the emergence of academies (secondary schools). Thus, normal schools required “a high school diploma for admissions (in order to) offer two-year course of study” (Feiman-Nemser, 1990, p. 213). The typical curriculum of the normal school included course work in elementary subjects (e.g., reading, spelling, and arithmetic), pedagogical subjects (e.g. history of education, psychology, teaching methods) and practice teaching at an affiliated school or secondary school (Monroe, 1952, p. 28; Cremin, 1997, p. 87).

A BRIEF HISTORY OF TEACHER COLLEGES & SCHOOLS, AND DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION (SCDE)

According to Morey et. al. (1997), towards the latter end of the 19th century, some normal schools expanded their curriculum to include more liberal arts subjects, and thus they were transformed into teacher colleges (p. 1). These transformation of normal schools into teacher colleges somehow provided relationship between the content of staff development, the quality of the staff development, and student achievement. This is because the presence of graduate education in the universities provided a means to training teachers for the teaching profession in both the high and later the elementary schools. Morey et. al. (1997) observed that:
Concurrent with the growth of normal schools and their transformation was the establishment of departments, schools, and colleges of education within the existing universities and the emergence of graduate education in the United States. Around 1900, schools of education at universities such as Stanford, New York University, and the University of California at Berkley prepared beginning high school teachers and later elementary teachers. They also provided a place where experienced teachers could return for their bachelor's degree (p. 1).

To this end, institutions of higher learning assumed responsibilities for training elementary school teachers for the flourishing schools in order to meet the needs of the community. One of such responsibilities includes equipping the teachers with skills to enable them to understand and respond to the cultural and educational needs of their students when they enter the classroom.

Since the inception of college-based teacher preparation programs in the 19th century in the United States, efforts have been made to restructure teacher education internally and externally within the Academy. As far back as 1898, James Earl Russell and his colleagues at Teachers College, Columbia University began creating the contemporary paradigm of professional training in education (Cremin, 1997, p. 107).

By the early 20th century Teachers College, Columbia University had made
advances in the organization of education (Cubberly, 1920, p. 125). The major catalyst that gave rise to the creation of this model of professional training in all areas of teacher education was largely due to “widespread dissatisfaction with contemporary professional” (Cremin, 1997, 403). Before the creation of college-based teacher preparation programs, teacher education was diverse and haphazard because the responsibility for preparing teachers to fill the positions in elementary and secondary schools was either non-existent, or was undertaken by the normal schools. According to Cremin (1997), “the present day paradigm of professional training in education” (p. 403) can be attributed to James Earl Russell, then Dean of Teachers College (1894-1927) and his colleagues at the Teachers College, Columbia. Briefly, James Earl Russell, seemed to have responded to dissatisfaction with professional training for teachers at the time by creating a model for teacher preparation. Russell stated, among other things, that a proper curriculum for teachers should contain four components: general culture, special scholarship, professional knowledge, and technical skills. According to Cremin (1978), Russell’s proposed curriculum for teacher education entailed:

By general culture, he (Russell) meant….the kind of preparation that would enable the student to see the relationship among various fields of knowledge….by special scholarship, he meant not only further academic study but the kind of reflective inquiry that would
equip an aspiring teacher to select different sequences of material and adapt them to the needs of different students... By professional knowledge, he implied... systematic inquiry into the theory and practice of education in the United States and abroad... And by technical skill, he implied... expert ability in determining what to teach and by what methods, when and to whom. Technical skills would be acquired in an experimental or model school, serving as a laboratory for pedagogical inquiry and a demonstration center for excellent practice... The teachers in the school would be critic-teachers, capable of exemplifying first class reflective pedagogy at the same time they oversaw the training novices (pp. 10-11).

The above quotation highlights in Cremin’s words, not only the historical context of teacher preparation, but it also provides information on the nature of the preparation. The final sentence provides insight about the type of apprentice model for teachers that had already been established in professions such as medicine. Novice teachers were assigned to work with and learn from more experienced critic teachers.

In an attempt to provide a contemporary curriculum in teacher preparation programs, Doyle’s (1990) observed that,

The content of the preservice level includes general education in the liberal arts and sciences, specialized education in content areas to be taught, and professional education in the disciplines that inform professional practice.
(e.g. educational psychology) and in pedagogy, including a large component of clinical practice in school setting (p. 3).

The above quotation highlights the important relationships of teacher education reform had with subject matter, content and pedagogy.

In many teacher preparation curricula, the basic concepts and components of curriculum reform were adopted throughout the majority of higher education institutions in the U. S. A majority of the institutions that offer teacher preparation programs in the United States have a preservice teacher preparation program which typically consisted of four years of undergraduate coursework, and sometimes a one-year intensive Masters of Education (M.Ed.) program. In many of these institutions, the first two years of the undergraduate program is geared towards general or liberal education and the last two towards a professional studies program (Feiman-Nemser, 1990, p. 98). The liberal arts education component of the curriculum “refers to the general knowledge that educated individuals should have in common,” and the professional education program consists of “coursework and field experiences, including student teaching” (Morey et al., 1997, p. 2-3).
PROBLEMS CONFRONTING SCHOOLS OF EDUCATION
IN THE UNITED STATES

Clifford and Guthrie (1988) in their classic *Ed School* traced the evolution of education schools in United States. According to them there are certain fundamental problems affecting education schools. These include:

(a) Intellectual ambivalence—These authors argued that most of the problems besetting schools of education are endemic to American culture. In this case, schools are blamed for almost all of the nation’s social and political problems (p. 317). For example, the authors pointed out that Americans exhibit ambivalence when it comes to matters of the intellect; teachers, on the one hand, are admired for their intellect but, on the other hand, when measured on the great American index of social status and income, teachers do not measure up to other professionals (p. 327). By extension, Clifford and Guthrie referred to places where teachers are trained, schools of education, as “the crystalline embodiment of society’s mixed view” (p. 327).

(b) Weak Technology—While in other professions like medicine, the knowledge base is said to double every seven years, it is widely believed that the knowledge base in education grows slowly and practice hardly changes. Quite the contrary, teaching is very labor intensive and often involves:

- teaching large numbers of students how to read, interpreting complicated diagnostic test results to parents, or participating in the
legal swamp of “fair hearing” for a handicapped student—nonetheless the public perception of teaching is that it is technologically weak—when staked up against occupations such as surgery, engineering, and architecture coupled with the belief that almost anyone can do it, which reinforces the low status of the field (p. 328).

(c) Feminized occupation—Clifford and Guthrie (1988) pointed out that two-thirds of the nation’s teachers are women, and as such “traditionally feminized occupations are not accorded equal social status and resources with male undertakings. This condition also contributes to the fundamental lack of status of education” (p. 328).

(d) Muddled Mission—Within colleges of education, the faculty is well aware of the status accorded to education professors. As a result, the education professoriate separated academic training from cultural and clinical applications as a way of separating themselves from the K-12 schools. This position is unlike medical, business, law, and engineering schools, where the priority has always been “preparing cadres of respective professionals: physicians, business leaders, attorneys, and engineers” (Clifford and Guthrie, 1988, p. 329).

(e) Dysfunctional Coping Strategies—Clifford and Guthrie (1988) posited that in order to cope with the problem of status deprivation, schools of education on research-oriented campuses apply the strategies as defensive mechanism “aimed at organizational survival in a skeptical to hostile environment” (p. 332).
(f) Interdisciplinary Appeasement—by accommodating themselves to other disciplines and campus departments through the practice of joint faculty appointments and joint faculty recruitment and selection committees, schools of education have tried to increase their prestige in the institutions. Clifford and Guthrie (1988) argued that through multidisciplinary faculty appointments, education benefits from “injecting knowledge generated in ‘real’ disciplines” (p. 333) and by using individuals from the cognate departments as interdisciplinary bridges.

(g) Academic Intensification—another commonly practiced strategy according to Clifford and Guthrie (1988) is described below:

To adopt a scholarly orientation of more prestigious undertakings on their campuses. This takes two major forms. One is the student’s pursuit of the academic Ph.D. degree, rather than the educational professional doctorate. The second is the faculty’s patterning their activities after academic research styles rather than involving themselves with the concerns of the practitioner (p. 334).

In other words, some education faculty intentionally aligned themselves with research institutions to enhance their academic reputation in universities.

Clifford and Guthrie (1988) bemoaned the fact that education schools in their attempts to “acquire the trappings of prestigious academic departments have virtually abandoned professional degrees to concentrate on awarding Ph.D.s” (p. 335). They warned that simply orienting themselves to the doctors of philosophy
does not necessarily guarantee schools of education either good scholarship or respect from other departments or more contributions to the field.

(h) The Route of Social Science legitimacy—Clifford and Guthrie (1988) mentioned the practice of appointing social scientists as faculty members, as a way of enhancing the status-anxious education schools. Such practices have helped in widening the chasm between education schools and practitioners, on the one hand, and alumni, on the other hand. Despite the advances in educational research that reached a peak in the 1960 and 1970s, the union between social sciences and education had “less unifying and practice-sensitive consequences” (Clifford and Guthrie, 1988, p. 339). This practice led to the fragmentation of the curriculum “a cafeteria-like array of social science subject-matter areas, with few integrative course offerings” (p. 339).

Clifford and Guthrie (1988) concluded that the period of experimentation characterized by the appointment of social science faculty: “Did little to forestall the threats which began to develop in the late 1960s. These were among the most perilous times in the history of schools of education and neither all the kings’ men nor all the social scientists could put schools of education back together again” (p. 341).

As in the 1950s, however, there were no fundamental changes at this time in the structure of the preservice curriculum. Many educators like Conant recognized the need for a reassessment of teacher education, rather than just introducing
isolated innovations. The Comprehensive Elementary Teacher Education model (CETEM) project, initiated in 1967 by the US Office of Education, was an attempt to address this issue at the national level. Despite the emphasis on these new ideas, only few of the preservice curriculum proposals were funded. NCTE observed that, “because the language arts teacher lives in an organized society, he is expected to reflect wide cultural interests and a true sense of aesthetic values, he must reason logically and objectively from relevant facts, and he must have intellectual curiosity and zest for learning” (Grommon, 1963, p.50). Thus, the 1950s were a period of research and experimentation in teacher education in the U. S. They marked the era of National Defence Education Act (NDEA), which focused on specialized teacher education in math, science, and foreign languages.

By way of comparison, the 1960s was also a period of considerable experimentation in teacher education, and there were many investigations into new techniques of instruction and the teaching-learning process, although frequently new ideas were implemented with little research or evaluation (Cooper and Sadker, 1972, p. 54). There was greater emphasis on teacher skills and abilities, rather than on teacher personality, and the development of educational technology influenced training methods to use video and audio recordings, teaching machines, and other instructional media. However, it took several years for most institutions to respond positively to these innovations. It was reported in 1968 that 60-70 percent of
college and universities accredited by NCATE were affected slightly, if at all, by these innovations (Cooper and Sadker, 1972, p. 57).

CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION REFORM INITIATIVES IN THE UNITED STATES

Since Russell’s early 1890s reform attempts many reform initiatives in teacher education have been initiated. The main difference between Russell’s reforms and contemporary reforms is an increased role for various external stakeholders in education. Between the 1950s and the 1990s, with notable U. S. education reform reports such as Teacher Education for Free people (1956); The Education of American Teachers—the Carnegie Report, (1963); Teacher Education for Free People—AACTE (1976); A Nation at Risk (1983); Tomorrow’s Teachers (1985); A Nation Prepared (1986); and Tomorrow’s Schools of Education (1995), there emerged a dramatic increase in external stakeholders including professional organizations and the U. S. government in education reforms. These stakeholders, such as the NCTE, were more instrumental in shaping both the structure and content of teacher education than at any other time in the history of United States education. Despite the fact that early teacher education focused on preparing teachers to meet the needs of a rural, agrarian society, with the approach of the twentieth century, teacher preparation in the United States changed in significant ways. It was modified because higher education institutions focused on preparing
teachers to meet the needs of an increasingly diverse, pluralistic, urban, suburban and industrialized society. This emphasis was due to major socio-political and economic changes occurring around the world such as World War II, the launch of Sputnik, and the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s.

For example, the social, political and economic changes caused by World War II stimulated a curriculum movement related to cultural and ethnic diversity. When one applies these events and resulting social changes to a specific aspect of teacher education such as the preparation of teachers of English in the U. S., a number of question can be raised. What did the English language arts reform agenda of the advocate? Did the English language arts reform agenda address issues of diversity in its English language arts teacher preparation programs as part of the multicultural debates that also began? In response to the reform agenda what were the content and instructional methods in English teacher preparation programs? Are there identifiable important “gaps and blind spots” in the major English language arts teacher preparation reform proposals? Why should English language arts reform be a concern for professional teacher organizations? How are English language arts teacher preparation programs meeting the challenges in present-day changing demographics in the U. S. society? These questions provide a framework from which to also examine assumed incongruities, gaps, and blind spots in Ghana’s reform
programs that attempted to alter existing structures of education in Ghana.

Investigating educational reforms as well as the changing patterns in English language arts teaching in the United States as a manifestation of a theoretical position offers a lens through which to see reforms in the preparation of language arts teachers in Ghana as involving complex sets of interactions among various social institutions (Popkewitz, 1993, p. vii). Education is a “socio-political institution and conflicts within education reflect or are strongly influenced by political conflicts in the country” (Goodman, 2000, p. 7). Ideological conflicts between political parties, ethnic groups and other stakeholders in a country such as Ghana can influence reform decisions for an educational reform program initiated by others in power. This perspective leads to the sub-research question of this study, “What reform initiatives seem to also link with issues and concerns of multiculturalism and multilingualism in Ghana’s contemporary educational setting? The next section, therefore, deals with the topic of multicultural education.

CONCEPTIONS OF MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

Multicultural scholars often associate three ideological positions within the discourse of multiculturalism, namely, conservative multiculturalism, liberal multiculturalism, and critical or radical multiculturalism (McLaren, 1995; Sleeter, 1995). This study draws from McLaren’s classification and cites examples from the works of Sleeter.
and Grant (1999) to illustrate the various conceptions of multiculturalism. Bank’s (1995) taxonomy of curriculum integration is presented to illustrate the various approaches to curriculum reform found in teacher preparation programs. Finally, Bennett (2001) collapses all the genres of multiculturalism into four broad clusters which are designed to serve as a framework to inform efforts to rethink and reform teacher preparation programs, broadly defined. The descriptions of these conceptions are presented in subsequent sections as a framework for the present study.

Conservative multiculturalism

According to McLaren (1995), conservative multiculturalism can be traced to the colonial view which depicted Africa as a “savage and barbaric continent populated by the most lowly of creatures, who are deprived of the saving grace of western civilization” (p. 35). Conservative multiculturalism is based on the assumption that a common culture exists, thereby de-legitimating other cultures and languages through educational programs aimed at attacking non-standard English and bilingual education. McLaren (1995) suggested several reasons why conservative multiculturalism must be rejected. First, it refuses to treat whiteness as a form of ethnicity, thus elevating whiteness as a standard for judging other ethnicities. Some advocates of this strand of multiculturalism include Diane Ravitch, Arthur Schlesinger, Jr., and Dinesh D’Souza. Secondly, conservative
multiculturalists use the term ‘diversity’ to cover up an assimilationist ideology. They view ethnic groups as “add-ons” to the dominant Eurocentric culture. Third, conservative multiculturalists support monolingual, English-as-the-only-official United States language policy. Fourth, conservative multiculturalists posit standards of achievement for all children “that is premised on the cultural capital of the Anglo middle class” (McLaren, 1995, p. 38). Fifth, conservative multiculturalism fails to integrate the high status knowledge, which is viewed as most valued white, middle class U. S., such as the multicultural and pluralistic knowledge embedded in the U. S. educational system. The goal of the conservative multiculturalist is to “assimilate students to an unjust social order by arguing that every member of the ethnic group can reap the economic benefits of neocolonialist ideologies and corresponding social and economic practices. But the prerequisite to ‘joining the club’ is to become denuded, deracinated, and culturally stripped” (McLaren, 1995, p. 38).

Grant and Sleeter (1999) presented five approaches to multicultural education namely, (a) teaching the exceptional and culturally different; (b) human relations, (c) single-group studies; (d) multicultural education, and (e) education that is multicultural and social Reconstructionist (McLaren, 1995, p. 38).
Liberal multiculturalism

Advocates of liberal multiculturalism argue that a natural equality exists among whites and other racial groups because equality is absent in U.S. society since “social and educational opportunities do not exist that permit everyone to compete equally in the capitalist marketplace” (McLaren, 1995, p. 40). Liberal multiculturalists believe that through “reforms,” cultural, social and economic equality can be achieved. Sleeter and Grant’s (1999) Human Relations approach fits into liberal multiculturalism. In their approach, the focus is on promoting unity and tolerance in a pluralistic society. The purpose is to promote positive feelings among students and reduce stereotyping. It also emphasizes promoting minority and majority group relations. In this model, there is no mention of issues of power distribution or institutional discrimination including past or present injustices, and implicitly accepts the status quo, with no focus on attempting to change it. This approach assumes that discrimination, oppression and racism simply disappear if people can just get along with one another.

Critical multiculturalism

McLaren (1995) advocated a critical multiculturalism approach by arguing, “multiculturalism without a transformative political agenda can just be another form of accommodation to the larger social order” (p. 42). Unlike liberal multiculturalism, which is immersed in the discourse of reform, critical
multiculturalism goes further in advancing an agenda of social transformation. Sleeter and Grant (1999) present three other approaches to multiculturalism that are critical in their structure (Jenks et. al., 2002); these are Single-Group Studies, Multiculturalism or Cultural Pluralism, and social Reconstructionism. In the Single-Group Studies approach, advocates aim to reduce social stratification and raise the social status of the particular group under study. The main goal is to empower oppressed groups and increase control over their own economic and cultural resources. This approach is a form of resistance to the dominant culture. It advocates that by providing information about the particular group (e.g., women, ethnic minorities, gays and lesbians) and addressing the effects of major past and present discrimination, groups will change the invisible and marginalized status by demanding to be included as equal partners with the dominant group. In the U. S., their argument that the U. S. society is a pluralistic one racially, ethnically, and culturally. They opposed monolingual and mono-cultural education in the U. S. because they claim it emphasizes a white male, Anglo-Saxon protestant culture to the exclusion of others. The Single-Group studies approach is based on the philosophy that education is not neutral; it is shaped by the distribution of power within society. Based on this key assumption, Single-Group studies are designed to challenge the traditional canon by providing new accounts, a new theoretical framework, new frames of reference and new bodies of knowledge. The curriculum
is a central concern of Single-Group studies because the emphasis is on teaching the history and experiences of the marginalized groups as well as employing instructional strategies that are congruent with the learning styles of the students in that group.

In the Multicultural Education approach, the focus is on recognizing, accepting, and affirming differences and similarities that relate to gender, race, disability, class and/or sexual orientation. The main goal of this approach is to promote and celebrate the strengths and values of cultural diversity, human rights, respect for oneself and others, social justice and equality of opportunity for all. The principal ideology is one of social change, and undergirding this ideology is the perspective that all people live in a culturally pluralistic society and must respect the different cultures that comprise American society. This approach seeks to reform the entire schooling experience for learners; it involves modifying the curriculum, instruction, and staffing to emphasize cultural diversity, a balanced representation of various viewpoints and contributions, perspectives of different cultural groups, students’ learning styles, and new knowledge bases.

Finally, Education that is Multicultural and Social Reconstructionist deals with issues of oppression and social structural inequality based on race, social class, gender and disability. The main goal is to prepare citizens to reconstruct
society to serve the interests of all citizens. It adds an activist focus to the previous approach by encouraging individuals to learn to work collectively to bring about social change. It is based on the major assumption that society is shaped by the dominant group in ways that are designed to maintain and increase the group’s dominant power and authority. This structuring results in institutional racism, sexism, and classism. This approach teaches students to develop a social and critical consciousness about perceived injustices. Advocates of this approach recognize that the dominant standard curriculum tends to be more congruent with the lives of middle and upper-middle class white students, thereby encouraging students to reflect on and respond to the ways ‘whiteness’ bestows upon certain individuals a set of privileges. This approach guides students to see how inequality is perpetuated in most institutions, including schools, within U. S. society. The approach views schools as a training ground for preparing a socially and politically active citizenry. It also promotes coalition-building across groups by encouraging students to see that racism, classism, and gender discrimination are all forms of oppression.

Approaches to multicultural curricular reform

Banks (1995) has presented a framework for analyzing the implementation of multicultural curriculum reform. He identified four approaches to integrate ethnic and multicultural content into the elementary and high school
curriculum, namely the contributions, additive, transformation, and social action approaches. Although designed as a rubric for integrating multicultural curriculum in K-12 school settings, the approaches are very applicable to the higher education setting, especially in preservice language arts teacher preparation programs (Jenks, Lee, and Kanpol, 2002, p. 56). Each approach is described briefly below.

The Contributions Approach “focuses on heroes, heroines, holidays, foods, and discrete cultural elements” (Banks, 1995, p. 12). This approach is most frequently used during the first phase of integration, and it does not challenge the existing structure of the mainstream curriculum.

The Additive Approach involves appending “ethnic content, themes, and perspectives to the mainstream curriculum without changing its basic structure” (Banks, 1995, p. 12). A major disadvantage of this approach is that it views ethnic content from the perspective of mainstream curriculum.

The Transformative Approach involves changing the structure of the curriculum to enable students to view concepts, issues, events, and themes from the perspective of diverse ethnic and cultural groups. The goal is to change the basic assumptions that drive the mainstream curriculum.

The Social Action Approach is an extension of the Transformation Approach; it holds that students make decisions on important social issues and take action to help solve racial problems. The goal is to help students acquire the
knowledge, values, and skills needed to engage in social change aimed at moving the nation toward its democratic ideals. In this approach, teachers are considered agents of social change.

Banks (1995) contended that there is a general misconception among school and university practitioners that multicultural education is limited to curriculum reform such as changes and restructuring that reflect content about various groups (e.g., women and other cultural groups). However, Banks suggested that other dimensions of multicultural education include content integration, knowledge construction, prejudice reduction, equity pedagogy, and empowering school culture. These latter dimensions of multicultural education provide a conceptual grounding for the present study.

Research genres in multicultural education

Bennett (2001) classified research genres in multicultural education into four broad clusters that provide a lens for rethinking teacher preparation programs. The clusters include:

a. Curriculum Reform: this cluster focuses on “subject matter inquiry aimed at rethinking and transforming the traditional curriculum that is predominantly Anglo Eurocentric in scope” (Bennett, 2001, p. 176). The goal is to include knowledge and perspectives of minority groups into the curriculum.
b. Scholars in this area include Ronald Takaki, James Banks, Joyce King, Christine Sleeter, Carl Grant and Geneva Gay.

c. Equity Pedagogy: this cluster focuses on issues of “disproportionately high rates of school dropouts, suspension, and expulsions among students of color and students from low-income backgrounds” (Bennett, 2001, p. 183). The goal is to achieve fair and equal educational opportunities for all children and youth. Scholars in this area include John Ogbu, Christine Bennett, Geneva Gay, Gloria Ladson-Billings, Janice Hale-Benson and Barbara Shade.

d. Multicultural Competence: this cluster focuses on “cognitive and psychological variables of individuals (e.g. knowledge, beliefs of students and teachers about their cultures) that indirectly influence and interact with school and classroom climates, teaching strategies, and student learning” (Bennett, 2001, p. 192). The goal is to transform the knowledge, beliefs and attitudes of preservice and in-service teachers through teacher education programs. Scholars in this area include Christine Bennett, Geneva Gay, Gordon Allport, and James Banks.

e. Societal Equity: this cluster focuses on “aspects of equitable access, participation, and achievement in social institutions” (Bennett, 2001, p. 200). The goal is envisioned social actions and reforms aimed at creating
f. conditions of freedom, equality, and justice for all. Scholars in this area include Christine Sleeter, Carl Grant, Valdes Unna, Guadalupe Villegas & Lucas, Henry Giroux, Peter McLaren, and Christine Bennett.

It is essential to observe that the use of language is a critical aspect of societal equity. In order to bring about social action and reform, advocates of multiculturalism have to become aware of how language is embedded in and influences social institutions. The connections among these concepts and their implications are essential to Ghana’s effort at education reforms. In Ghana, embedded in the concept of ‘democracy’ is a language factor which is vital to moving education reforms from being ‘transmissive’ to ‘transformative’ practices in order to make Ghana’s education system effective.

MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION AND TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS

With the increase in diversity in the United States’ population, it is becoming important for preservice language arts teachers to be immersed in multicultural education. According to Villegas and Lucas (2002), there is a need for a thorough articulation of a vision for multicultural education throughout the preservice teacher curriculum. Villegas and Lucas (2002) argued that the growing diversity among K-12 students requires a “culturally responsive” teaching force. They proposed a model of multicultural education infusion into preservice
programs that move “beyond the fragmentary and cursory treatment of diversity that currently prevails” (p. 21).

Villegas and Lucas (2002) recommended that teacher educators articulate a vision of teaching and learning capable of producing a culturally responsive teacher. The authors defined six salient characteristics that gave conceptual coherence to the teacher education curriculum they envision. These included

a. Sociocultural consciousness in which a teacher must recognize that multiple realities are defined by one’s place and social order, such as race, ethnicity, social class, and language,

b. Affirming attitudes toward students from culturally diverse backgrounds: teachers should see students as potentials, not problems to overcome,

c. Commitment and skills to act as agents of change to make schools more responsive to all students; prospective teachers have a moral obligation to bring about greater equity in education by challenging the prevailing norms that tend to value the dominant culture;

d. Constructivist view of learning promotes collaboration and critical thinking skills;

e. Learning about students through students’ experiences outside schools; teachers can help students build bridges between their homes and their schools, and can enhance their learning potential and finally,
f. Culturally responsive teaching practices in which teachers design

instructions around students’ lived experiences and use their knowledge of

students’ learning styles.

Villegas and Lucas (2002) used these six salient characteristics that gave

conceptual coherence to teacher education curriculum to demonstrate the

relationship between schools and society and ways in which teachers can intervene

so that schools do not reproduce the inequities of contemporary society.

Gay (2002) made the case for improving the inequality of education for

ethnically diverse students through culturally responsive teaching. Gay (2000)
suggested that, the key is to adequately prepare preservice teachers to become

culturally responsive. She defined culturally responsive teaching as “using the

cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse students

as conduits for teaching them more effectively” (p. 106). Based on this assumption

that students learn better when academic knowledge and skills are related to their

lived experiences and frames of reference, Gay (2002) has identified five essential

elements of culturally responsive teaching. These five essential elements include:

a. developing a cultural diversity knowledge base in which teachers would be

knowledgeable about the lived experiences of their students, and including

the cultural contributions of different ethnic groups in the curriculum.
b. Designing culturally relevant curricula that includes culturally responsive perspectives and instructional strategies. In addition, curricular offerings should critically portray and examine the contributions of ethnic groups rather than perpetuating myths of the dominant cultural group.

c. Demonstrating cultural caring and building a learning community because “caring is a moral imperative, a social responsibility, and a pedagogical necessity” (p. 109). Teachers should foster a conducive learning climate for ethnically diverse students.

d. Cross-cultural communication is crucial in deciphering the culturally coded intellectual thought processes of ethnically diverse students in order to teach them effectively.

e. Cultural congruity in classroom instruction is a multicultural principle that emphasizes “continuity between the modus operandi of ethnic groups and school cultures in teaching and learning” (p. 112).

As a group, Gay’s suggestions offer a framework for equipping teachers with the skills and knowledge “to work more effectively with students who are not part of the US ethnic, racial, and cultural mainstream” (p. 114).
A study conducted by Johnson (2002), based on the autobiographical narratives of six white teachers who reflected on their experiences and perceptions of race, and racism within the context of their classrooms, exposed important revelations. The study revealed crucial statistical figures that highlight the experiential gap between teachers who are predominantly white and their students who are predominantly from minority groups. According to Johnson this growing trend requires a multifaceted response. The first is that teacher preparation programs must recruit students of color to offer the advantage of diverse worldviews and the second is that teacher preparation and professional development programs should help white teachers to teach for racial and cultural diversity. The following recommendations were made:

a. Rethink the selection and admission criteria to actively recruit a diverse pool of prospective teachers with diverse life experiences.

b. Diversify the racial composition of preservice classes through programs that include faculty mentoring and role modeling to attract minority students into the teaching profession.

c. Provide immersion experiences in racially diverse communities and expose white preservice teachers to urban and inner-city schools where students are typically from minority groups. Such immersion exercises provide opportunities for dialogue and critical reflections about race.
d. Use autobiographical narratives as an instructional tool. For example, the six white teachers’ narratives revealed personal reflections and a heightened state of racial awareness. Therefore, teacher education programs should employ narrative in the similar ways with the aim of producing reflective practitioners who “understand how the conceptions of race and racial privilege structure our identities and our institutions” (Johnson, 2002, p. 164).

An awareness of race and multicultural training are indispensable content in the teaching profession and importantly, teacher preparation programs must recruit members of minority groups.

This situation is prevalent in Ghana that it must be taken into consideration due to the changing demographics of the Ghanaian society since independence. Moreover, being a multilingual society, reform initiatives should also advocate a social action orientation.

PRE-SERVICE LANGUAGE ARTS TEACHER-TRAINING AND DIVERSITY IN THE UNITED STATES

Scholars like Finn (1994) and Radner (1960) regard education as “the great panacea and access to education (knowledge) was ‘considered’ key to all social progress” (Ravitch, 2000, p. 29). Others viewed education as “the badge marking a social position” (Ravitch, 2000, pp. 27). Believing that the act of preparing
preservice language arts teachers to work in our culturally diverse schools is a daunting enterprise, Goodlad (1990, pp. 3-4) suggested that language arts teacher education programs needed:

a clear and careful conception of the type of educating we expect our schools to do, the conditions most conductive to this educating [as well as the conditions that get in the way], and the kinds of expectations that teachers must be prepared to meet (in Finders and Bush, 2003, p. 93).

Goodlad’s suggestion of matching evident truths about the challenges of training preservice English teachers with the teachers’ performance ability in the classroom is important because it addresses implications for preservice language arts teacher training and the contexts of instruction and classroom experiences of teachers. It is commonly accepted that social conditions affect schooling (Tozer et al., 2002, p. 4); hence, prospective language arts teachers need be trained in teacher training institutions to be prepared for the problems and challenges of schooling. This need was especially true within the period under study, 1954 to 2000, where diversity in U. S. society and the classroom was on the ascendancy. William Arrowsmith (1967) declared that, “at present universities are as uncongenial to teaching as the Mojave Desert to a clutch of Druid priests” (pp. 58-59). Clearly, he indicated that training preservice language arts teachers to acquire teaching skills requires a meta-process that has generic variables; these include training method,
effects of training, length of training, number of practice time sessions, teaching
experience of trainees, academic and certification levels of trainees, internship
setting, and students used as pupils during training (Kagan, 1988, p. 1). Decisions
about implementing these variables in training are the responsibility of university
professors who educate preservice language arts teachers.

According to Zeichner and Liston (1996), educational issues are connected
to teaching practice and culture in a pluralistic society (p. 55). Socio-politically,
ethnic manifestations, economic depressions, and political dogmatism which
intersperse North American history are reflected in the educational policies and
reform initiatives from approximately the 1950s through to 2000. The relationship
between society and school also seems to dictate that teaching practices be located
within both social and institutional contexts. This connection is because teachers
need special preparation to understand their students, the teaching and learning
processes and the subject matter to be taught. In order to achieve its nationwide
educational objectives, Ghana is likely to ground its pursuit of education reforms
not only at the policy level, but it will need to be translated into reality, with
particular emphasis on reform ends and means.

LANGUAGE POLICY IN GHANA’S EDUCATION SYSTEM

Introduction

Language policy in Ghana has an interesting history, especially in the area
of language education. Research on languages of Ghana have indicated that, there
are between 45 and 60 indigenous distinct languages in Ghana (Birnie and Ansre, 1969, p. 5). The languages include Ewe, Akan, Ga, Nzema, Hausa, and Dagbani, to mention only a few of the main ones. This situation of multiple main languages in Ghana presents problems in many sectors of Ghana’s national life: education, national development, and transcultural communication (Hymes, 1967, p. 8). Thus, the debate over an appropriate language policy for Ghana in the education curriculum and for national development has preoccupied both educators and national governments leaders for several decades. The magnitude of the concern cannot be overemphasized because language is intrinsically an important part of human society (Dzameshie, 1988) because it serves as a vehicle of communication as well as a means of establishing and maintaining relationships with other people (Trudgill 1985, p. 13).

After gaining independence from Britain in 1957 Ghana inherited an educational system based on English language systems. By virtue of Britain’s colonial presence, the English language became the official language employed by the government to document both governmental policies, and laws and business affairs. In the Ghanaian situation, the English language was the language the colonizers employed to communicate with the colonized to transact official business as well as carry out government office practices. On the other hand, local languages were permitted only in the home and in the marketplace, where there is a larger population of Ghanaian citizens. The dominance of the English language
alongside the languages already existing in Ghanaian communities posed series of problems, especially in the education curriculum. Multilingual Ghanaians are bilingual because a popular view states that to be bilingual the individual must be able to speak at least two languages functionally (Andoh-Kumi, 1997, p. 107) a competence many Ghanaians have. Thus, not only do Ghanaian school children deal with different languages, but they also deal with the culture of the English language, which does not include African thought systems. In a sense, multilingualism and bilingualism pose educational problems for Ghanaian school children (Andoh-Kumi, 1997, 108) as well as raises sociopolitical concerns in Ghanaian society. Gbedemah (1975) described this problem not only for the educational system but also for the political implications:

In a country where many languages co-exist the difficulties of communication between and across ethnic boundaries are compounded. To this must be added the nations that have language of their own but by force of historical and political circumstances have to receive modern education through foreign language whose roots and operational system are unrelated to any of their local or indigenous languages (p. 7).

The quote highlights the challenge for a country like Ghana in which the English language was foreign for many Ghanaians. This study attempts to investigate this complex topic.
With high level of linguistic diversity in Ghana coupled with the introduction of language policies by the colonial master, who favored the use of European languages, indigenous languages run the risk of being left in the periphery. This problem is further complicated and compounded in post-independent Ghana as to which of the indigenous languages of the people becomes the language of instruction and their common language of communication. A given *lingua franca* has the characteristic of unifying the country under the notion of one people, one nation, and one cultural heritage. Even though the colonial masters saw the English language as a unifying factor for the various ethnic groups, the strategy failed to achieve its desired goals. Instead of unifying the people, the English language policies of the colonial master encouraged the creation of a minority elite class that was distanced from the poor masses of the people (Agbedor, 1996, p. 28).

It is from this perspective that emerged of key issues in education reforms of Ghana, a country with such a multicultural and multilingual context.

The need for an education reform—a case for Ghana

In an effort to restructure the education sector to cater to the multicultural and multilingual setting, Ghana embarked on education reform initiatives as early as the 1960s. However, during the late 1970s and the 1980s, the education system fell into crisis due to management problems and general macroeconomic turmoil. By 1985, the education budget had fallen to one-third its 1976 level. Nearly half of the country's primary and middle school teachers were untrained. Teaching and
learning supplies dwindled. The majority of primary school graduates lacked literacy skills, and the primary school attrition rate stood at sixty percent. Of those students who finished primary school, only 25 percent continued on to secondary school. By 1987, these conditions spurred the need for a broad education reform, which touched all levels of education and recurring issues of teacher training, physical infrastructure, curricular relevance including access and retention.\(^{13}\) The principal tenets of the 1987 reform measures were:

- reduction of pre-tertiary education from 17 years to 12 years (six years of primary, two years of junior secondary and three years of secondary education)
- teacher trainees required to have completed secondary schooling
- local language would be the medium of instruction for the first three years, with English taught as a subject beginning in grade one and becoming the medium of instruction in grade four
- reorientation from rote learning to skills-based instruction, with continuous in-service teacher training
- implementation of a national literacy campaign, including non-formal education programs for drop-outs
- a combination of continuous student assessment by teachers and headmasters and terminal assessment\(^{14}\)

\(^{13}\) [http://www2.edc.org/CSA/ed.htm](http://www2.edc.org/CSA/ed.htm) accessed on 04/12/2006

\(^{14}\) [http://www2.edc.org/CSA/ed.htm](http://www2.edc.org/CSA/ed.htm) accessed on 04/12/2006
A close look at the above tenets of the 1987 Education Reform tried to improve over earlier waves of reform initiatives that characterized Ghana’s education system but did not reflect the linguistic needs of Ghanaian society. Briefly, the previous reforms involved only the restructuring of education to offer a ‘democratic’ education for the Ghanaian children. It must be noted that between the 1970s and 80s, the education system was described by many as dysfunctional, undemocratic, oppressive, and inefficient (Fobi, Koomson & Goodwyll, 1995; Education Commission (EC), 1986; Education Advisory Committee (EAC), 1972).

As far back as 1972, majority of stakeholders in Ghana’s education system called for a change in the reform initiatives to shift from transmissive practices to the use of transformative methods where content of the school curricula must be diversified in order to make education more responsive to individual as well as societal and national needs (Dare, 1995; Antwi, 1992a; McWilliam & Kwanena-Poh, 1975; EAC, 1972). Thus, in June 1972, the Education Advisory Committee (EAC) was changed to review the education system. The EAC presented a report in October 1972 and recommended a new structure and content for education in Ghana.

The prescribed structure called for a reduction in the number of years of pre-university education from seventeen years to thirteen. In terms of content, the EAC called for the diversification of the curriculum at all levels. After a decade of
implementing the reform initiatives, the system was said to be “clinically dead” (Fobi et al, 1995, p. 63). According to Fobi (1995),

the content and structure touched all levels of the education system and attempted to address the perennial problem of access, retention, curriculum relevance, teacher training, provision of physical structures, and financing. The eight years that have passed since the announcement of the education reforms have seen many changes in the system. Yet today, many people believe the reforms require significant adjustment if its objectives are to be realized. This has initiated a new cycle of policy review and analysis (p. 63)

The above quote highlights the goals of the Ghana's education reforms, which aimed at bringing changes to various sectors of the education system. However, eight years after implementation the reforms were seen as not meeting its goals.

Fobi et al argued that the reform initiatives did not affect practice, the transformation of teachers and the leaming of students (Fobi et al, 1995, p. 67; Ghana, 1994a, p. 56). The failure of the reform initiatives from 1961 through the 1980s to address the multilingual problems of the Ghanaian classroom made the President of Ghana, Flt Lt. Jerry John Rawlings to call for a change in the education sector during the inaugural ceremony of The Anfom Commission. The
committee was chaired by Dr. Evans Anfom. The Anfom Commission reported the following in 1984:

The fundamental message of his (Rawlings inaugural address was that our children must “grow up free from the stultifying influence of the educational oppression which has prevailed for far too long.” He observed that a system which denies majority of children equal educational opportunities, which values conformity before creativity and which encourages self-interest cannot be described as anything other than oppressive. He, therefore, charged the commission to formulate “recommendations of national policy on education such as will enable the realization of the objectives of the revolutionary transformation of the society in the interest of social justice” (p. 66).

The inaugural address of President Rawlings occurred ten years after the implementation of proposals from The Dzobo Education Reform Committee of 1975. The speech advocated that the type of education Ghana anticipated as it criticized the “old education” as oppressive and one denying the majority of children equal educational opportunities encouraged self-interest. Though President Rawlings called for a ‘democratic’ transformation in Ghana’s education system, he did so in seemingly restricted terms. A review of the Appendix D and reform documents reveals a significant “gap” between the democracy and transformation called for by governmental policy and the kind of democracy and transformation
brought about in practice. This “gap” shows up when one considers education to
effect actual social transformation, yet the restructuring of the structure and content
of the education system does not transform the multicultural and multilingual
settings of Ghana. To implement a curriculum to reflect the socio-cultural and
multilingual nature of its community, Ghana has the potential to learn from
countries like the U. S. and other developed nations.

THE AMERICAN EXPERIENCE

The major areas of concern such as content of curricula, teacher training,
and knowledge of pedagogy and diversity in Ghana’s multicultural educational
setting are similar to the problems experienced within the larger framework of
the past one hundred years Americans have argued and worried about the quality of
their schools” (p. 13). Ravitch (2000) further observed that the effort to bring
quality to the schools is supported by the desire “to bridge the ‘gap’ between school
and society and make the school socially useful” (p. 15). According to Wolfe
(1992), as the United States was confronted with revision in the standards of
education, which called for reform projects over several years, Ghana needs to
design a curriculum that provides instruction that relates to the diverse multicultural
and multilingual student population (p. 3).

By the 1950s and the 1960s, the emergence of Civil Rights activities and
ethnic revival movements in the U. S. caused educators and policymakers to
implement programs designed to respond to ethnic diversity issues (Banks, 1994, p. xvii). In the context of these movements, the question focused on how institutions of higher learning and preservice English language arts teacher preparation programs respond to the needs of the society. Since the 1980s, which witnessed ‘the birth of multiculturalism’ in America (Hollinger, 1995, p. 2), the concern was to what extent was multiculturalism featured in preservice English language arts teacher preparation programs. Similarly, A Nation at Risk (1983) warned America that it was menaced by a “rising tide of mediocrity” (Finn, 1994, p. ix). The report identified “the problems” that have been identified with educational standards and multiculturalism and “remained essentially unsolved” (Finn, 1994, p. ix) within language arts education.

The above issues relate to education in Grades 7-12, English language arts teacher preparation for grades 7 through 12, the acquisition of pedagogical knowledge by preservice English language arts teachers, academic expectations, and instructional programs for teaching for diversity as reflected in secondary school English curriculum. The emphasis on the acquisition of the aforementioned knowledge by English language arts teachers highlights the importance of English language arts as “the most important subject in the curriculum” which is essential for “self-development and for success in any and every life occupation” (Radner, 1960, p. 30). Between 1960 and 1990 in America, multiculturalism grew rapidly (Hollinger, 1995, p. 2), and the field of English language arts was challenged to
create a curriculum that provides “national literacy” and sustained “modern civilization,” as well as establish a “cultural and educational vigilance as exercised by modern nations” (Hirsch, 1987, p. 93).

In the 1960s literacy in the U. S. was said to be declining. This perceived decline was attributed to the influx of cultural and linguistically diverse immigrants (Miramontes, 1997, p. 47). In an effort to deal with the situation, a “long-range remedy for restoring and improving American literacy was instituted as a policy for schools” (Hirsch, 1987, p. 94). English language arts educators catalogued concerns about the continuous decline of literacy in the U. S. and the fragmentation of the American school curriculum. The decline was primarily blamed on the “incompetence of teachers and the structural flaws in the school system” (Hirsch, 1987, p. 110). Nelms (1996) captured the dilemma of English language arts teachers as having the responsibility of providing both values and training for life occupations to students. In his assessment, they reflected a “sense of loss of professional autonomy and tension between public mandates and the shared professional vision in the 1960s and mid-1970s” (p. 185-186).

In 1988, English language arts educators in the U. S. called for “the reexamination of the English language arts enterprise because of developments in education and the changing demographics in the society” (Angelotti et al, 1988, 230). These concerns mainly focused on English language arts teacher preparation, the content of instruction, and the need to redefine English language arts to reflect
new contexts for teaching and learning as well as to generate greater interest in the discipline (Angelotti et al, 1988, 230). However, it is important to observe that the cultural literacy that Hirsch (1987) and others were aiming at was a monoculture that promoted a homogeneous U. S. society and did not focus on the emerging diversity among the U. S. population. Thus, demographic changes in the American society seemed to suggest that English language arts programs enhance an instructional pedagogy that enabled English language arts teachers to guide students to acquire the intellectual and functional skills essential to living in a growing pluralistic and technologically competitive world of the United States. Furthermore, with cultural diversity advocated the norm, rather than the exception, there was the need for reform in English language arts programs to reflect the changing demographics of the American classroom. This model lends support for a study that analyzes the layers of complexity in education reforms in Ghana.

Furthermore, since almost in every country, societies use schools to promote and advance social, economic and political goals, teachers are seen as ‘expert tools’ who can implement innovations such as industrial education, life-adjustment education, and social engineering. It is from these perspectives that one can see the importance of English language arts teachers who might provide education related to language skills appropriate for job-seeking which includes interviewing, completing job applications, and letter and report writing. Thus, school reform can be seen as an industry in many countries, including Ghana,
where reforms in education are the key to the economic future of the country. The present study seeks to examine this relationship between English language teaching and education reforms in Ghana.

Summary

The focus of this chapter is to review relevant literature and research. The major areas of emphasis and discussions were: the history of education reforms in Ghana, reform initiatives in the U. S., multicultural education reforms, and multicultural education theory. There are diverse philosophical orientations stemming from fields of multiculturalism and multicultural education theory. Building on the theories and research on educational reforms in both the U. S. and Ghana, the researcher will be able to analyze education reform documents in both countries and highlight issues that are common reasons why reforms in both countries failed to achieve their goals, thereby exposing the education sector to public criticism.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

What discoveries I’ve made in the course of writing stories
all begin with the particular, never the general. They are
mostly hindsight: arrows that I now find I myself
have left behind me, which have shown me
some right, or wrong, way I have come.
—Eudora Welty from One Writer’s Beginning (1983, p. 107)

Introduction

This chapter describes the methodological principles that framed the
method used to carry out the study and document analysis. In an effort to obtain an
appropriate method and research design to address concerns of the research
questions of the study several issues were addressed, these research issues
included: theoretical paradigm, conceptual framework, location of documents,
document analysis, time allocation, selection and rationale of study methods. These
concepts illuminated and problematized the educational reforms in Ghana that
provided the focus of the study.

This study used a qualitative methodology. Since a qualitative researcher
must develop a research design to help connect the paradigm to strategies of
inquiry and methods of collecting materials, this study was in part, conceptual and
included a review of the nature of qualitative theories, concepts, and processes
specific to the methods used in both data collection and data analysis. Until
recently, quantitative or positivist theories of inquiry have been hegemonic in the academy. However, this paradigm has shifted. Instead, qualitative or post-positivist theoretical perspective has gained significant ground, especially in social science research. According to Patton (1990),

The strategy of inductive designs is to allow the important analysis dimensions to emerge from patterns found in the cases under study without presupposing in advance what important dimensions will be (p. 44).

This excerpt from Patton on qualitative research highlights fundamental theoretical differences between qualitative and quantitative inquiry. First, the analytical information gained through qualitative inquiry is emergent rather than determined prior to the start of collection of data. Second, qualitative paradigm implies an inductive process, while the quantitative paradigm tends to be more deductive. Additionally, a qualitative paradigm tends to be holistic. Finally, qualitative research is carried out contextually, without fragmentation or manipulation that is typically associated with quantitative paradigm. A qualitative framework seemed to best suit the method of data collection and analysis for this study.

This chapter is divided into major sections. In the first section, the research questions are repeated and discussed in relationship to the guiding purpose of the study. In the following sections, the methodological perspectives on which the
study is built and the methodological designs employed in the inquiry and analysis (i.e., data collection and analysis) are described.

Restating the research questions

The questions used to guide this study were: (i) what are the emerging issues that characterize reform initiatives in Ghana’s educational programs between 1975 and 1996? This focus question emerged from the desire to examine whether the present educational system promote literacy and development in Ghana. This kind of investigation is not easy or straightforward. It may raise the question of what to measure and how to measure literacy and development. The main question brings up sub-questions among which are: (ii) did the reform initiatives address issues and concerns of multicultural and multilingualism in Ghana’s educational setting? Finally, (iii) what factors seem to have shaped the present educational system in Ghana and transformed it to be more responsive to a pluralistic and technologically advancing society?

Theoretical paradigm

A variety of qualitative research methodology procedures were used in the study. This study included a description, analysis, and interpretation within the social context for above research questions. Kirk and Miller (1986) described qualitative research as:

an empirical, socially located phenomenon
defined by its own history, not simply a residual grab-bag
comprising all things that are ‘not quantitative.’ Its diverse expressions include analytic induction, content analysis, semiotic, hermeneutics, elite interviewing, the study of life histories, and certain archival, computer, and statistical manipulations (p. 10).

This study relied on context analysis and document analysis in a way a quantitative researcher cannot. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), the qualitative researcher attempts to “study things in their natural setting, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomenon in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (p. 2). It is due to this goal to interpret education reform documents that makes qualitative research the appropriate methodology for this study.

In addition, qualitative researchers choose from a range of research methodologies available to them, each independently designed to provide a deeper understanding of a particular social phenomenon. In these endeavors, the qualitative researcher brings to bear on the social phenomena a particular paradigm for investigating a problem. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) described a paradigm as “a set of overarching philosophical systems denoting particular ontologies, epistemologies, and methodologies” (pp. 18-19). These paradigms seemed to best suit this study.

Interpretive Case Study

In this research, an interpretive case study design was employed to describe and explore the contents of selected education reform documents. According to
Nuthall and Lee (1990), the choice of method for a research, “should be based on the understanding of the nature of the problem being investigated” (p.548). Patton (1990) stated that case studies are “rich in the sense that a great deal can be learned from a few exemplars of the phenomenon in question” (p. 54). Similarly, Donmoyer (1990) observed that, case studies allow the researcher vicariously experience unique situations in the study (p. 193). An interpretive case study design was selected for this study in order to describe and explore themes inherent in the data. As noted by Creswell (1998), the case study design is “exploration of a ‘bounded system’ or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in depth, data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context” (p. 61). Stake (2000) indicated that there are several types of case studies: (a) intrinsic (better understanding of a particular case, the case is of utmost interest), (b) instrumental (case is of secondary interest as it facilitates an understanding of something else), and (c) collective (investigate phenomenon, population, or general condition). The use of an interpretive case study design expands “the range of interpretations available to research consumers” and allows readers of the study to see the education reform documents “through the researcher’s eyes and, in the process, see things they otherwise might not have seen” (Donmoyer, 1990, p. 194).

The objective of this study was to undertake a cross-case analysis of the documents from Ghana and the US. The intention was not to deduce facts through
mere introspection about the worthiness of the reform documents but to build insights about why selected reform agenda succeeded or failed to meet the cultural and linguistic diversity needs of Ghana’s educational system. Wolfe (1992) has argued that the reflexive approach forces the researcher to turn a critical eye to his/her own prejudices and distortions so what is known could be verified (in Kamil et al, 2002, p. 53). Through introspection and abstraction, the centrality of reflective practice in this research methodology is acknowledged (Kamil et al, 2002, pp. 12-13). This study embraced an interpretive framework using qualitative research methods as a vehicle to uncover the multiple dimensions of the analyzed education reform documents.

Given the diverse approaches described above the researcher adopted certain features that recur and through systematic unpacking of views of the reform writers, invisible signposts that lend themselves to varying interpretations were identified in the study. These signposts did not only surface when the researcher analyzed data but also when the researcher interacted with the documents from the data collection process, the analysis and the data interpretation. As the figure below shows, this type of research implies a cyclical process involving four nodes of data collection, data reduction, data display, and drawing of conclusions for research findings. Each process or interaction led to new ideas and insights, therefore making the domain of analysis an iterative process.
To enhance the analysis and interpretation of data and achieve the desired goals of the study, it was necessary for the researcher to gain a deep understanding of the education reform documents through hermeneutics.

**Hermeneutics**

Hermeneutics according to Schwandt (2001) generally refers to the art, theory, and philosophy of interpreting the meaning of an object (i.e. a text, a work of art, social action, the utterances of another speaker) (p. 115). The use of the term in this study is not limited to Schleiermacher (1768-1834) who described hermeneutics as the art of understanding as practiced in reading classical, biblical, and legal texts. It is also informed by Otto-Apel and Habermas’ notion that
Hermeneutics must be viewed as critical, where it refers to the relationship between language, meaning, and understanding as well as the empirical economic, social, organizational, political conditions, and practices that shape human beings as ‘knowers’ and as social agents (Schwandt 2001, p. 45). This definition of hermeneutics integrates both casual explanations and interpretive self-understanding of the data. In so doing, the following hermeneutic circle of analysis and interpretation illustrates the process:

Figure 2: The hermeneutic methodological process

The above circles describe a methodological process of understanding the meaning of the data based on reform documents and parts of the documents based on the socio-political and economic environment that necessitated its inception. Based on this hermeneutic approach, the researcher attempted to understand the data (i.e. education reform documents).
Data Collection

In this study, the data collection included documentary evidence from both the history of Ghana’s education reforms and that of the U. S. The conceptual analysis problematized the educational reforms in Ghana and the U. S. By combining the use of historical evidence and philosophical analytical tools, relevant background was established to examine emerging multicultural themes and their impact on educational reforms in Ghana.

To select the study documents, a “stratified purposeful sampling” (Janinski, 1996; Patton, 1990) was used. Patton and Janinski observed that stratified purposeful sampling enables the researcher to “capture major variations rather than to identify a common core, although the latter may be used in the analysis” (Patton, 1990, p. 74; Janinski, 1996, p. 87). This sampling is more “illustrative” of the range of education reform documents than being “definitive” (Janinski, 1996, p. 87). The decision to employ this procedure in the study of education reform proposals documents was made for several reasons. Primarily, it was more advantageous to complete a comprehensive library search. Second, the library search allowed the researcher to select documents that reflect the goals of the study. Each data source document was analyzed.

During data collection, a collection of documents focused on education and reform efforts in Ghana and the U. S. was established. Data were collected mainly through library work. The primary data consisted of articles, reports, journals, and
publications based on reform proposals. For the purpose of this study, were grouped into two categories: Ghana’s Education Reform proposals, and American Education Reform Documents.

Data Analysis

Each document was reviewed with respect to the main research question. In the case of Ghana, the data appeared in varied forms, with some being abstracts from education reform documents written by various committees in Ghana. with respect to U. S. reform documents, the researcher also faced the problem of reading documents from the perspective of a second language reader. Thus, data analysis depended on rich descriptions and explanations.

In this study, the researcher explored the various dimensions of the role of education in the U. S. and the Ghanaian Education system. Simplistic conclusions to issues in both the U. S. and Ghana’s education reform initiatives were avoided. The data analysis approach was the inductive model with five stages. These included an immersion in the research setting (e.g., the time frame that sustains the research), incubation which emphasizes awareness of the nuances and meaning in the research setting, illumination which emphasizes expansion of the researcher’s understanding, explication, and creative synthesis which emphasizes showing relationship of ideas (Marshall and Rossman, 1999, emphasis mine).
The five stages of this inductive model are illustrated below; they are based on Miller and Crabtree’s qualitative research process and the relationship-centered clinical method (RCCM) in Denzin and Lincoln, 2000, (p. 619).

Figure 3: An adaptation of Miller and Crabtree’s relationship-centered clinical model

Figure 3 is an adaptation of Miller and Crabtree’s relationship-centered clinical model, which the researcher adapted and remodeled to suit how he interacted with data in this study. It demonstrated the complex iterative process used by the researcher in this study to analyze the Ghanaian and U. S. education reform documents. The figure starts with the Gathering stage during which the
researcher selected the education reform documents from both Ghana and the U. S. The researcher then Immersed himself in reading and reviewing the identified reform documents. The next step involved Describing the documents and then organizing the reviews. The final stages of the review process included synthesizing the finding by making Connections and Corroborating the findings. Finally, the process involves developing a Final Report on the findings.

TRUSTWORTHINESS/RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

During document analysis, the researcher held informal conversations with expert readers, individuals who have been situated in the field of education both in Ghana and in the U. S. to compare their views on the researcher's interpretation of the study documents. Conversations with these expert readers, who were mainly faculty, were informal and were treated as such. These interactions helped the researcher to formulate analytical interpretations.

Lincoln and Guba list four main criteria for establishing trustworthiness; they are credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability. Figure 4 indicates the strategies utilized to meet these four criteria in the current study.
### Figure 4: Trustworthiness and validity criteria of Lincoln and Guba (1985)

The issue of trustworthiness is similar to the issue of validity and reliability in quantitative research methodology. However, qualitative researchers do not address the issues of validity and reliability in the same way as quantitative researchers. Instead, they focus on the issue of trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Figure 4 (p. 89) above describes the manner in which the position of the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITERIA FOR ESTABLISHING TRUSTWORTHINESS</th>
<th>STRATEGIES SUGGESTED BY LINCOLN AND GUBA</th>
<th>STRATEGIES EMPLOYED IN THIS STUDY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CREDIBILITY</td>
<td>Prolonged engagement</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>triangulation</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>peer debriefing</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative case analysis</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Referential adequacy</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Persistent observation</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member checks</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRANSFERABILITY</td>
<td>Thick description</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Purposive sampling</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEPENDABILITY</td>
<td>Audit trail</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONFORMABILITY</td>
<td>Audit trail</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
researcher might blur “good research” (validity) and “goodness in research” (ethics). Since this study focused on ways of rethinking reforms in both the U. S. and Ghana’s education, it was important to check the assumptions of validity and the way they could be re-imagined so as not to blur research ethics and accountability. Lincoln and Guba (1985) proposed the concept of trustworthiness as an alternative to reliability and validity in case studies (in Bassey, 1999, p. 75).

Qualitative researchers are normally faced with the issue of providing trustworthiness of data. Within the realm of qualitative research also, establishing that the data can be trusted is difficult. The relationship between the researcher and participants including documents raises a concern. In this present study, the use of multiple methods in the collection of data and the level of immersion both helped to ensure the trustworthiness of the data. “The combination of multiple methodological practices, empirical materials, perspectives, and observers in a single study is best understood……as a strategy that adds rigor, breadth, complexity, richness, and depth to any inquiry” (Flick, 1998, p. 231).

The “practice of social research is not immune to the effects of central forces of culture of modernity” (Schwandt, 2000, in Denzin and Lincoln, 2000, p. 203) as is evident in situating education reform agendas within a pluralistic context. In order to minimize ethical problems in this interpretive case study, the researcher relied on the input from conversations with expert readers, individuals who have been situated in the field of U. S. English Education between the 1970 and the
1980s, to obtain their views on interpretations of the research documents. These contacts were maintained before, during, and after data collection in informal contexts.

Furthermore, through quotes from the documents “thick description” was written (Gertz, 1973). This use of thick descriptions provided possible objectivity beyond socially and historically conditioned judgments. According to Denzin (2000), descriptive validity makes the most use of the realist commitment (p. 882) while Maxwell (1992) argued that in using “thick description,” the qualitative inquirer focuses on the factual accuracy of an account that does not make up or distort what was seen or heard (p. 285). In effect, the researcher was true to the interpretivist tradition of engagement by minimizing “obtrusiveness” in the analysis of data (Prus, 1996, p. 196).

Another method used in ensuring trustworthiness of data was peer debriefing. “This is a procedure whereby the fieldworker confides in trusted and knowledgeable colleagues and uses them as a sounding board for one or more purposes” (Schwandt, 1997, p. 113). Their role is to question the themes and issues the researcher identified from the data. Periodic scheduled peer debriefing meetings were held with peer debriefers who read the raw data, preliminary analysis, and interpretations, and then the final descriptions. This helped the researcher to focus, clarify, and develop new ideas, questions essential to understand the issues in the reform documents. These processes allowed the researcher to address concerns
about clarity and validity in the findings of this study by employing triangulation (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000, p. 443). Triangulation, is the process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning, verifying the repeatability of observations and interpretations of the data generated (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000, p. 443).

Summary

In summary, this chapter has recounted the methodological design that forms the foundation of this study. The researcher in this study determined a qualitative paradigm, with interpretive case study and hermeneutic approach was best suited to the goals of this study. Qualitative research methodology provided this study with description, analysis, and interpretation within the social context of the research questions. By the use of hermeneutics and interpretive case study approaches, the researcher was provided with a tool through which the researcher makes known what he/she has learned from the data analysis and through discovery learning the researcher provides materials for readers to learn on their own.
CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to an analysis of the data and discussion of the findings with respect to the main research question: what are the emerging issues that characterize reform initiatives in Ghana’s educational programs between 1975 and 1996? This presentation of data analysis is presented so that each reform document has a thick descriptive overview and multivariate analysis. The analysis first provides a descriptive overview of the document being analyzed according to the content as Schwandt (1997) defined this research component; the “activity of making sense of interpreting or theorizing the data” (p. 4). Through the process of organizing, reducing, and describing the data from a historical perspective, the researcher was able to draw conclusions and interpretations of the data.

DOCUMENT A

ANALYSIS OF DOCUMENTS ON EDUCATION REFORM IN GHANA

1. THE DZOBO REPORT OF 1975

Background

The Dzobo Report of 1975 is the first reform document analyzed from Ghana. The Dzobo Report of 1975 set the stage for new thinking about Ghana’s
education system. By 1951 Ghana which was formerly known as the Gold Coast, was internally self-governing led by Kwame Nkrumah. During this time, the pre-tertiary school system comprised of seventeen years of education (see Appendix A: Ghanaian Educational Structure Before the 1975 Reform): (a) six years of primary education, (b) four years of middle school, (c) five years of secondary school, and (d) two years of six form (6+4+5+2= 17).

The Accelerated Development Plan of Education (ADPE) of 1951 initiated by Kwame Nkrumah rapidly expanded recruitment into elementary and secondary education (Foster, 1965a, p. 184). This action was because Nkrumah’s “new government was elected to a large extent upon its promise to extend education to a wider proportion of the population” (Foster, 1965a, p. 1840). Foster noted that opponents of the plan to expand primary and middle-school, due to fears about lowering of educational quality ignored the “more significant consequences of mass educational expansion” (1965a, p. 190). By the 1960s, Nkrumah’s Accelerated Development Plan of 1951, and the unemployment school-leaver problem became publicly recognized. In the process, it led to erosion of the standards of education at both levels and, for the first time, to the phenomenon of unemployment caused by school dropouts.

15 For further discussion on issues of expansion and the mass unemployment of school dropouts, see Foster, 1965a, 1983-1984
After the overthrow of Nkrumah in 1966, the new National Liberation Council (NLC) appointed the Kwapong Educational Review Committee. This committee brought about the introduction into the middle schools of two-year pre-vocational continuation classes (Continuation Schools) which were based on the mid-1960s industrial and farming needs of Ghana (Palmer, 2005, p. 34). However, following the overthrow of Nkrumah, the NLC and the NRC administration disregarded the Nkrumah’s government approach to education and the “total expenditure in education declined, participation rate(s) of school aged children dropped, and so did the proportion of trained teachers” (Ahadzie, 2000, p. 20).

Believing that cocoa industry of Ghana should be seen as the national asset to support the national economy, the Kwapong Review Committee introduced the notion that schools needed to better prepare school dropouts for the world of work. And the Kwapong Review Committee in 1966 introduced the concept of Continuation Schools to address issues that lead to a majority of pupils in elementary schools being unable to enter secondary “grammar” schools (Ahadzie, 2000, p. 20). This policy of continuation schools was later criticized as elitist, but the problem of nurturing Ghana’s teen-age population, the school dropouts, through a process of post-primary training for Ghana’s majority became prevalent needing attention in an educational reform (Palmer, 2005, p. 34). Some argued that it was for this needs that The Dzobo Review Committee was created.
The Review Committee was established by the National Redemption Council (NRC)\textsuperscript{16} in 1972 and produced a report entitled \textit{The Report of the Education Advisory Committee on Proposed New Structure and Content of Education for Ghana} (GoG, 1975). It has been argued that the Dzobo Reform of 1975 resulted out of efforts to salvage a nearly collapsed educational system (Antwi, 1992a; McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975; EAC 1972). The Ministry of Education (MOE), in attempt to redeem the collapsing education system, drafted proposals for consideration by the government (Nimako, 1976; EAC, 1972).

At a 1972 public forum in Accra, the capital city of Ghana, on the state of the nation’s education enterprise, an Education Advisory Committee was appointed to study the Ministry. By October of that year, the EAC had presented a report which contained a number of proposals. Some of the proposals aimed at improving access to schools and diversifying the curriculum to meet the wide-range characteristics of Ghanaian children.

Other recommendations called for improved teaching and learning such as would make learners active constructors of knowledge, rather than passive recipients. These recommendations were accepted, in principle, by the Ministry as the basis of the structure and content of a new educational system; however, they were only implemented in a limited number of schools as a pilot project. This

\textsuperscript{16}However, a major political event also occurred during this period. On January 13\textsuperscript{th} 1972, Colonel Ignatius K. Acheampong of the NRC staged a coup and overthrew the Busia administration
became known as the Dzobo Reform Committee. It reported that graduates of the
Ghana’s middle and secondary school system:

have been found to lack the proper attitude and skills necessary to equip
them to work with their hands, and to be willing to take up the type of
practical work that is available in their society at the moment. As a result,
there is a high rate of unemployment and underemployment among middle
and secondary school leavers (GoG, 1972, p. 3 and quoted in Palmer, 2005,
p. 34).

Hence, the Dzobo Committee introduced the Junior Comprehensive
Secondary School concept (JCSS) which diversified the curriculum in order to
teach academic and practical skills to all pupils. Later, the Junior Comprehensive
Secondary was called the Junior Secondary School (JSS), and new pre-vocational
subjects were recommended by the Dzobo committee to include:

Woodwork, masonry, pottery, commercial subjects, marine science
(fishing), automobile practice, craft (basket weaving), Home Science,
Beauty Culture (including Hair Dressing), tailoring, Dressmaking and
catering (GoG, 1972, p. 9 and quoted in Palmer, 2005, p. 34).

As a result, the NRC government implemented the JSS concept in 1974 which
included many of the pre-vocational subjects suggested by the Dzobo Education
Review report so that pupils would be better prepared for employment. Due to
Ghana’s economic constraints from the 1970s and a lack of interest from those
administering it, the JSS program did not survive its experimental stage. This reform failed to achieve the expected quality outcome and exposed the education sector to public criticism (Palmer, 2005, p. 34). In the discussion below, a critical analysis is described for the political and administrative contexts within which the 1975 reforms were initiated with emphasis on the goals and strategies that were employed. Membership of the committees and commissions is described. This analysis uses the acronym EAC (the Education Advisory Committee) for the Dzobo Reform Committee interchangeably since Reverend Dr. N. K. Dzobo was the chair of the EAC committee.

Political Context

The origins of the 1975 reforms have been traced to the inception of the decade when the country was under civilian rule of the Second Republic administration (Antwi, 1992a). This administration came into office after the 1969 elections and was headed by Dr. K. A. Busia and had attempted to reform Ghanaian education. In that instance, in 1971 two committees, the Joint Committee on Education and the Education Sector Committee, were appointed to review the education system and recommend improvements (EAC, 1972). Two separate reports were presented in the same year, but it was not clear what happened to them. The civilian administration was overthrown by a military regime in January 1972, and it is said that at this time the MOE was also working on new proposals

17 http://www.ghana.edu.gh/past/postIndependence.html accessed on July 12, 2005
different from those of the previous politically oriented proposals (EAC, 1972).

Antwi (1992a) explained that the popular support for reform of the existing educational system provided the new military rulers with an opportunity to legitimize their own authority and to court public support. As a result, they made the proposals available for public discussion in May 1972 (Palmer, 2005, p. 34).

Administrative Control

It has been observed that, since independence, Ghana has maintained a centralized system of education (Antwi, 1992a; Atta, 1992a, b). Attempts to decentralize have centered on day to day administration and dissemination of information and not major policy and decision making such as the initiation of reforms. The administration throughout the first reform period falls in line with this claim.

The government in charge of education at the time was called the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports (EAC, 1972). It is not clear, during this research, whether the ministry had the same title before the military takeover; but the head of the education department changed title from a minister under civilian rule to Commissioner under military rule (Antwi, 1992a). The Commissioner headed the administrative machinery, was responsible for education, and was accountable for all education policy matters throughout the nation.

Antwi (1992a) asserted that “notwithstanding the concentration of power in the hands of the minister, the ministry’s direct concerns in education centered only
on general policy” (p. 72). Responsibilities for curriculum, inspection, general supervision of schools, as well as provision and management of schools were the responsibility of the Ghana Education Service (GES). This body was a new national professional body that was decentralized regional, district and circuit entity. The GES was formed in 1975 to unify pre-university education and educational administration (Antwi, 1992a; Nimako, 1976). Until then, educational management and administration had rested with the Ministry of Education, local education authorities, and selected religious units.

Dictated by the EAC and administered by MOE and the GES, the 1975 reforms were not vetted among citizens, though it was asserted that there was national support for the educational reform (Fobi et al., 1975). Therefore, instead of serving as guidelines, these reforms became education “packages” that were implemented. As packages, they were received by educational institutions, teachers and students as blueprints simply to be implemented without room for adaptation.

Membership and focus of the EAC Committee

There were twenty-two members on the EAC. They included one representative from each existing university; five representatives from the teachers’ union (GNAT); three representatives from educational units; four from the religious groups; one from the Ministry of Local Government; one from the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR); one from the Trades Union
Congress (TUC); one from the Ghana Chamber of Commerce and two members 
who represented parents (EAC, 1972). The committee was chaired by Rev. Dr. N. 
K. Dzobo, a Ghanaian religious Minister, educator and university professor. Apart 
from the two who represented parents, the rest of the committee members were 
from identifiable elite institutions. In other words, they were people who had had a 
high level of education themselves.

The EAC (1972) report was silent on the selection process for committee 
members; it only indicated that members were appointed by the Commissioner of 
Education, Sports and Culture, a function of the ruling government. The proposals 
centered on the need to diversify curriculum to reflect the changing dynamics of the 
changing Ghanaian community.

The EAC, headed by Dzobo, was given a mandate that according to EAC 
(1972), became its purpose:

To comment on the new structure and content as contained 
in the Ministry’s proposals on education. And to recommend to 
the Commissioner for Education, Culture and Sports, any 
necessary innovations in our pre-university education which 
Ghana can afford to finance from her own limited resources 
and which, at the same time, will eliminate some of the present 
inadequacies in the system and free it to meet present economic 
and social needs of Ghana (p. 5).
In the Introduction to the Dzobo 1975 reform document (i.e., EAC, 1972), a concern was expressed about the need to define educational objectives to meet the demands and needs of a changing Ghanaian society and to chart a new system of education designed to address the defects of the existing education system (EAC, 1972, p. 1). Writing about these objectives, the EAC focused on problems relating to political independence, including the development of national potential and consciousness, the development and modernization of traditions and culture, and the development of a “new Ghanaian” who was to be sound in mind, body, and spirit (EAC, 1972, p. 1). The EAC asserted that the educational system could be used to realize the broad national goals that had been outlined, but they claimed that “the old-fashioned system of formal education” that was in place could not be expected to bring about these changes (EAC, 1972, p. 1). The EAC stated that, on the whole, the education system had been found “ineffective in meeting the present economic, social and political needs of a fast growing Ghanaian society” (EAC, 1972, p. 2). In light of this viewpoint, they advocated for a new system that could promote national potential, emphasize the development of a national consciousness, be progressive, and that might lead to the development of a whole learner. These needs, the EAC argued, could cater to the diverse potentials of learners (EAC, 1972, p. 33).

The EAC, on the other hand, argued that these defects were to a large extent the results of an undemocratic education that favored an elite few to the neglect of
the majority (EAC, 1972, p. 33). They also claimed that the system privileged intellectual work at the expense of skills and attitudinal development and encouraged rote learning and memorization, instead of teaching learners how to learn. It was, they concluded, meeting neither individual nor societal needs; it also failed to provide for the needs of children of varying intellectual, socio-economic and geographical backgrounds (EAC, 1972, p. 47).

In summary, the defects observed by the Dzobo Committee included: (a) elitism, (b) a lack of concern for the needs of the society, (c) excessive length of pre-university education, and that the defects were as a result of (a) an education that favored an elite few to the neglect of majority, (b) privileging of intellectual work at the expense of skills and attitudinal development, (c) encouraged rote learning and memorization instead of teaching learners how to learn, and so (d) did not meet the individual and societal needs (EAC, 1972, p. 47).

Recommendations of the Dzobo reform committee

The Dzobo reform committee prescribed a new structure and content for the curriculum aimed at restructuring the education system in order to resolve the problems of the education system and its transmissive educational practices (Antwi, 1992a; EAC, 1972, p. 203). The goal was to design a new system of education that was sensitive to the changing dynamics of individual as well as the societal needs of the Ghanaian community and also to prepare learners to facilitate and support
social change (EAC, 1972, p. 245). It further suggested that the length of pre-university education should be reduced from the maximum of 17 years to 13 (i.e., six years of primary, three years junior secondary, and four years senior secondary) for university bound students (Fobi et al., 1995; EAC, 1972, p. 304). The committee also introduced secondary level studies at the basic level with the intent of providing opportunities for those who could not continue schooling after basic education to upgrade their basic skills.

The new content of education introduced significant curriculum changes by emphasizing practical and manual skills to cater for learners’ diverse characteristics and needs (EAC, 1972, p. 403). In a nutshell, emphasis was placed on development skills (inquiry and creativity) and attitudes (appreciation, adaptation, and commitment to change, desire for self-improvement, cooperation, healthy living, and respect for truth, curiosity, interdependence, and dignity of labor) (EAC, 1972, p. 403). Classroom practices were therefore, to be changed from “telling and repeating” to emphasize more interaction between teachers and learners as students construct their own knowledge (EAC, 1972, p. 403).

Teacher education and the Dzobo reform initiatives

The EAC identified factors that challenge the education system of Ghana. In order to meet the demands of the new educational reform initiatives the Dzobo committee also called for the restructuring of teacher education. This restructuring affected basic teacher education. The existing Four-year post middle colleges were
designed to concentrate on preparing teachers for primary schools while three-year post secondary colleges were designed to cater for junior secondary schools (EAC, 1972, p. 321). Pre-service teacher training for all levels of education was to be re-oriented to reflect new goals. Teachers were to learn more about creating interactive and permissive environments. In-service teachers were to be retrained to meet the challenges of the new reform initiatives. Teacher training itself, preservice or in-service, was to be interactive so that teachers might acquire hands-on-skills for their own careers (EAC, 1972, p. 403).

Appendix A shows the structure of Ghana’s education system prior to the 1975 reforms. It shows a total of 17 years in pre-university education and three to four years of university education. Appendix B shows the changes designed by the Dzobo committee.

Despite the innovative ideas ushered in by the Dzobo committee on education reforms, the report did not mention a multicultural approach to education that would cater to the growing diversified Ghanaian society.

Following the Dzobo committee report, critics asserted that the government of the day lacked the will-power and resources to implement the necessary reforms (Tamakloe, 1992, p. 32; Aboagye, 1992, p. 23). Aboagye and Tamakloe, Ghanaian educators, argued that the implementation of the reforms faced problems such as lack of resources and under-prepared teachers. In effect, the government of the day was unable fulfill its promise to implement the recommended reform. Thus, the
EAC’s elaborate reform proposals remained largely on paper and was only implemented in experimental schools in the nine regional capitals of Ghana.

2. THE ANFOM REFORMS OF 1987

Background to the reform

Between 1979 and 1981, a new civilian administration, headed by Dr. Hilla Limann, tried to transform the education sector by introducing new policies. The two major policies of this administration included: (a) de-boardinization (i.e., an emphasis on day schools in order to improve community participation and affordability); and (b) curriculum enrichment program (i.e., emphasis on cultural studies) (Antwi, 1992a, p. 23). The de-boardinization policy led to the opening of community secondary schools which were day schools that derived their populations, teachers, and students from the cluster of communities that served as the local catchment area. They also derived their financial and physical resources from the local communities and were expected to adapt their school curricula to life in the communities. Existing secondary boarding schools were also expanded to recruit day students. In sum, the main objective was to improve community involvement in education.

The Curriculum Enrichment Programme, which the administration initiated, stressed the teaching of cultural and environmental studies in schools. Local communities provided resource personnel and cultural sites for the studies.
Unfortunately, these initiatives were short-lived because on December 31, 1981, another military coup led by Flt. Lt. Jerry John Rawlings ended both the administration and the future of reform initiatives.

According to Fobi et al., (1995) the decades of reform of Ghana’s education system did not yield much progress:

Ghana’s education system in the 1980s was in near collapse and viewed as dysfunctional in relation to the goals and aspirations of the country. Academic standards, support for teachers, instructional materials, school buildings, classrooms, and equipment had declined for lack of financing and management.

By 1985, the system could be described as “clinically dead” (p. 6).

This assertion confirms EAC’s earlier fears that the 1975 education reforms did not achieve anything beyond introducing an educational structure that ran parallel to the old education system (refer to Appendix C), and an educational policy that was effective in only a handful of experimental schools (EC, 1986, p. 23). Since the policy plans evident in the 1975 education reform were not fully implemented, inequalities remained in the education system. This situation helped with the establishment of the Education Commission (EC) in 1984. According to the mandate, EC was to review and report on basic, teacher, technical/vocational, and agricultural education in Ghana (EC, 1986, p. 2). The chair of the commission was Dr. Evans Anfom. The next section describes the new reform known as the Anfom Education Reform.
The Anfom Education Reform of 1987

The education anticipated by the ruling administration, at this time, was described by the Head of State, Flt Lt. J. J. Rawlings at the inaugural ceremony of the Anfom committee. According to Fobi et al. (1995), the fundamental concern in the inaugural address was that our children must “grow up free from stultifying influence of the educational oppression which has prevailed for far too long” (p. 66). The address of the head of state described the transformative nature of the education system as it criticized the “old education system.” Implicit in Rawlings’ address was the indication that the education desired is to ensure a “revolutionary transformation.” The Head of State, Rawlings, identified three major aspects of educational oppression characteristic of the existing educational system. These included: (a) oppression as denial of equal opportunity, (b) oppression that occurs as conformity is valued before creativity, and (c) oppression that stems from the system’s encouragement of self-interest (Fobi et al., 1995, p. 66). To this end, the type of education anticipated is that which is “non-oppressive” which is to say “transformative” and values creativity as well as promotes social justice (Fobi et al., 1995, p. 66).

The 1987 education reform initiative used an approach similar to that of Dzobo’s Education Reform of 1975. The structure and content of education reflected the same goals to restructure the curriculum and content of education with the notion of diversifying the curriculum, promoting more active learning, and
reducing the length of pre-university education. Public participation in the process was improved.

In the following section, the political and administrative contexts that shaped the reform were analyzed. In addition, the mandate, membership, content, and structure of the reform initiatives are described in order to illustrate the extent to which these reforms had an impact on the approach used in the reform document.

Political context

On December 31, 1981, the third civilian administration in Ghana was overthrown in a military coup (Antwi, 1992a, p. 12). The new military junta declared a revolution that they asserted was going to enforce radical changes in Ghanaian society. The key words of the day were “accountability” and “development.” Education was seen by the military junta as the vehicle with which they might achieve the regime’s agenda to promote social and economic transformation (Fobi et al., 1995, p. 66).

One major component of the new revolutionary changes was the Economic Recovery Program (ERP) that was embarked upon in 1983 with financial assistance from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (WB) (Fobi et al., 1995, p. 66). One of the demands of the IMF and WB was a reformation of the Ghanaian education system. With an already ‘decaying’ education and against the
backdrop of external pressure, the military leaders embarked upon new educational
reform initiatives. A year after the introduction of the ERP into the Ghanaian
system, the Education Commission (EC) was inaugurated and charged with a
mandate.\textsuperscript{18} The EC submitted its report two year after its inauguration. The report
was made public in 1986 and implemented in 1987. According to Antwi (1992),
then Secretary of Education, Mr. Harry Sawyer, in an address at the national
Delegates Conference of the National Association of Teachers (GNAT) in January
1987, admitted to having implemented the reforms hastily:

\begin{quote}
The impression that the government was either trying to
forestall the abandonment of the programme or was trying to
meet the deadlines set by the WB for approval of aid.....He
suggested that if the Provisional National Defense Council (PNDC)
could not (have told) the donor agencies to give more time for pre-
implementation work, “we ought to have (had) the courage at least
to explain the rush to our own people” (p. 50)
\end{quote}

The above comment indicated that pressure was applied by the World Bank during
the implementation of the 1987 education reforms, and it became a factor in the
process of decentralizing education and policy implementation in Ghana.

\textsuperscript{18} This researcher was a student at the University of Ghana, Legon at the time and was the ‘anchor-
man’ for the Ghanaian Times newspaper who covered the inaugural ceremony.
Administrative control

Administratively, the Secretary of Education, being the direct representative of the ruling government and head of the Ministry of Education, has the final word in all educational matters of Ghana. The Secretary and the deputies reserve the right, as in the case of the Dzobo reforms of 1975, to make major policy decisions regarding education in the country. The Ghana Education Service Council (GESC), with responsibility shared between the Ministry and the GES, was abolished (Antwi, 1992a, p. 34). Several appeals from various stakeholders groups in Ghana’s education to the government requesting for the reconstitution of the GESC went unheeded. It became obvious, deducing from issues, that the government wanted to deal directly with the GES since the government seemed to be tilted towards centralization of power. According to Antwi (1992),

The functions of the GES are centralized and shared among the directorates at the national headquarters of the service. Accordingly major policy decisions which are taken at the national headquarters are passed down through the regional directors of education and their assistant directors and made to apply to all educational institutions at the pre-university level (p. 74).

Regional offices of the GES were decentralized but their powers were limited, and they only served as information dissemination points for policy and governmental decisions relating to education. Teachers, learners, parents, and
decentralized departments of education were to carry out educational policies in the reforms 'in Toto' without negotiations. If regional and district directors of education had powers at all, it was to make non-sensitive issues regarding education within their jurisdiction. The regional and district directors of education, to an extent, were permitted to make selected decisions relating to transfer of teachers within the region and districts, make decisions on the inspection of first-cycle schools, and issues of in-service education of teachers. Consequently, as in previous reforms, the 1987 reform initiatives continue to suffer from rigid control from the top.

Membership and focus of the Anfom reform commission

The commission was composed of 17 local members in addition to 3 international consultants. The report of the Education Commission indicated it included local and international experts (EC, 1986). Although their names were listed in the document, their identities and method of selection were not stated in the report. Out of the twenty members, six did not attend the commission proceedings. The three international consultants never attended. In addition, Ngugi wa Thiongo and Chinua Achebe, who are both renown authors and African educators, and Paulo Freire, a famous Brazilian educator did not attend. According to the report, a variety of methods were employed to collect and coordinate public views for the education reforms (EC, 1986).
The report indicated that members of the commission visited a number of primary, junior secondary, middle, secondary, vocational training, day care, and technical institutions, all of which were located within Accra-Tema metropolis and surrounding areas (EC, 1986). Institutions in Ghana’s interior zones were not visited. Furthermore, those interviewed came from institutions with special interest in the process and included education units, the National Union of Ghanaian Students (NUGS), teachers unions, the examination council, trade unions, governmental departments, and youth groups (EC, 1986).

Memoranda and documents were also sent from recognizable institutions (EC, 1986). A close look at the 1987 reform indicates that it drew largely upon past reforms, submitted memoranda, the professional education literature, interactions in selected institutions, and responses to questionnaires.

The Commission mandate

The Anfom Commission was tasked to review past educational initiatives, appraise the 1975 reforms, and make recommendations for the foundation of a national policy on education that would help achieve of the objectives the transformation of Ghanaian society and enhance the availability of educational facilities to the greatest extent possible (Ghana, 1994a, p. 1). The EC (1986), working with this mandate, investigated pertinent issues relevant to the transformation of the education system in Ghana.
Observations and recommendations of the Anfom commission

The EC report of 1986 included a number of recommendations after observing that “some sections of the Ghanaian population lacked educational opportunities while a limited few had the best Ghanaian education at the expense of the vast majority:

This grave social injustice needs to be urgently remedied by the provision, at all cost, of educational opportunities at the Basic Education level for all Ghanaian children, irrespective of social or economic status (EC, 1986, p. 1).

As a response to the concerns such as identified above, the EC (1986) made recommendations directed:

To ensure that the State provides universal, free and ultimately compulsory education for all Ghanaian children who attain the age of 6 years for a stated number of years after which depending on their abilities and capabilities, they may go on the further formal schooling, or into the world of work suitably prepared (i.e., employable) (p. i-ii).

The Anfom Reform of 1987 therefore, provided a new structure and content of education for Ghana and it became operational with an initial focus on the implementation of the Junior Secondary School (JSS) program. The policy decision for the new structure was based on an earlier Government White Paper entitled The New Structure and Content of Education (MOEYS, 1974). As a reaction to the
massive unemployment problems facing Ghana in the 1980s, the 1986 Evans Anfom Commission reiterated its desire to make education more applicable for the world of work. It recommended the involvement of local communities to manage and finance Basic Education and proposed curriculum changes aimed at qualitative improvements in the educational standards (EC, 1986, p. 12).

Key issues in the Anfom education reform

The key issues that emerged in this reform and for which changes were initiated by the Evans Anfom Committee of 1986 included:

(i) replacement of the existing Middle Schools, an idea suggested by the Dzobo Educational Committee of 1975
(ii) a reduction in the duration of pre-tertiary education from 17 years to 12 years
(iii) readjustment of the curriculum and reduction of core subjects from 7 to 4 for SSS1 and SSS2
(iv) introduction of new core subjects including Integrated Science and Social Studies for SSS1
(v) initiation of the 1987 Educational Reform Programme (ERP) with the objectives of improving educational and re-orientating the academically oriented education system to preparing youth for the world of work
(vi) changed the 6-4-5—3/4 organizational structure to 6-3-3-3/4

In sum, under the new reform structure, the 6-3-3-4 organizational structure was adopted which is based on the American system of education (Palmer, 2005, p. 38).
The new organizational structure required 6 years of primary-school education, 3 years of junior secondary-school education; 3 years of senior secondary-school education and a minimum of 4 years of tertiary education (see Appendix D for details of the new educational structure). The six years of primary school and three years of junior secondary-school education constituted the basic education level, which was supposed to be compulsory and free for every school age Ghanaian child.

The 1987 reform became necessary because of a virtual collapse of the educational system. This collapse was due to several reasons which included insufficient supply of trained and qualified teachers to meet the multicultural and multilingual concerns of Ghanaian society. Other reasons were inadequate funding of the education sector which led to lack of textbooks and other needed curriculum materials, a lack of an adequate supply of school furniture and equipment, and the physical deterioration of school-buildings. The ultimate effect of these deficiencies was a widespread poor quality of teaching and learning and poor patronage of the school system by children and youth.19

Anfom education reform and Teacher training colleges

A major concern that emerged from this and other reforms was how teachers for the schools were trained. Since independence, various categories of trained teachers have been produced by Teacher Training Colleges for pre-school

and K-12 levels. Teachers were trained to meet specific demands in each specific aspect of national development. The categories of teachers trained included:

i. Certificate ‘A’ 4-year (Post Middle School)

ii. Certificate ‘A’ Post B (Post B teachers are those with a two-year post middle school teacher training. After teaching for a number of years they return to college to earn Certificate ‘A’)

iii. Certificate ‘A’ Post Secondary

iv. Specialist Teachers (These are teachers who have Certificate “A” and then branch into subject area specialization i.e., in English and Ghanaian languages)

Categories ‘ii’ and ‘iv’ were previously phased out while category ‘i’ phased out in 1991. The 3-year Certificate ‘A’ (Post Secondary) remains as teachers’ initial professional certificate. Appendix D describes the educational structure that the EC (1986) prescribed and which is currently in use in Ghana. Appendix D also shows 9 years of basic education for children in ages 6 to 15; three years of secondary (senior) school and three to four years of tertiary (i.e., polytechnics, diploma awarding universities and colleges) education (EC, 1986, 23). According to EC (1986),

It has come to the notice of the Commission that what goes on in our classrooms is the unalloyed class or “frontal” instruction. That is, the teacher lectures to his class, asks questions, and calls on
individual pupils to answer them. The result is that self-activity and independent and creative work by pupils is extremely limited (p. 26).

It was evident from the above quote that the existing system of education was found to be inadequate in meeting the educational needs of the “new educated” Ghanaian that was anticipated, and whose duty was to inspire, lead, and transform the Ghanaian society (Ghana, 1996a; Fobi et al., 1995). This quote also indicates that there was a recommendation for teachers’ classroom behavior that included constructivist interaction with students; it seemed that the desired focus was students’ active engagement with content in a Dewey-like “learn by doing” model of instruction. The EC (1986) also asserted that:

The role that is envisaged for the teachers in Basic education is that of a more individualized approach to teaching, which calls for more work WITH pupils than work ON or FOR them. The teaching-learning encounter is expected to be characterized by emphasis on meaning and understanding, problem solving, and pupil activity, rather than memorizing and recall (p. 20, emphasis in the original).

Since the onus of change was on teachers, teaching and learning, in the view of EC, needed to take the form of “constant dialogue between them (learners) and their teachers” (EC, 1986, p. 26). This need for interaction between learners and teachers called for a new approach to the preservice preparation of teachers. In line with the
expected change, teacher education was to be restructured to reflect the expected quality and type of teaching envisaged in the Anfom reforms. Teachers for that matter were, as a requirement, to possess not only intellectual ability but also knowledge of their subject matter areas. Preservice teacher training for basic education was also to be made available for the re-training of in-service teachers (EC, 1986, p. 27).

The analysis of this reform document revealed that the new structure and content of education prescribed by the Anfom commission was an adaptation of the Dzobo education reforms of 1975. The additional minor areas that the Anfom commission suggested included:

a. The reduction in the length of pre-university education;

b. The curriculum was to be diversified with greater emphasis on interactive approaches to teaching and learning, and

c. An attempt at equalizing educational opportunities for all students to attend “good” schools (EC, 1986, p. 34).

On the other hand, no mention was made of multicultural education to deal with the diverse languages and cultures of the society in Ghana. Since the onus was on teachers to bring about change in the socio-economic life of society, it is important to study change with a clear view of the teacher’s role and

128
expectations, and how the teachers were trained to handle the change. This need is because teachers are a category of the society that had either intentionally or unintentionally perpetuated the old Ghanaian education system and if they were to initiate any change, their new training would need them to prepare as adequate agents of change. The document analysis did not show that this component was systematically included in teacher preparation programs during the Anfom reform period.

3. THE FREE COMPULSORY AND UNIVERSAL BASIC EDUCATION REFORM (FCUBE) 1995

Background to the FCUBE

The last document analyzed for this investigation was the FCUBE, which largely was a sector-based improvement program aimed at improving the basic education sector. It was one of a number of similar projects that focused on sector improvements such as teacher education, university education, as well as vocational and technical education. FCUBE was an attempt to redirect attention to the reform goals to provide a transformative education initiative for Ghana. The implementation of the 1987 education reforms brought to the fore many problems in the stated objectives of education, the content of instruction, the administration of schools, and the management of education.
By 1990, the focus of the reforms had shifted to the Senior Secondary School Program (Ghana, 1996a, p. 3). By 1993, when the first groups of the senior secondary school students graduated in 1993, the weaknesses in the implementation of the 1987 reform initiatives were revealed. The reform seemed to have failed to achieve the desired quality targets and thus exposed the education sector to public criticism. The government’s response to the public criticism of the FCUBE reform program was to set up the Education Reform Review Committee of 1993/94.

The work of the new Committee culminated in the National Education Forum of 1994 again with a focus on basic education (Ghana, 1996a, p. 4). The outcome of the public discussions of these public education problems as well as the 1992 Constitutional Provision led to the formulation of a new basic education policy, which was implemented as Free Compulsory Universal Education (FCUBE).

FREE COMPULSORY UNIVERSAL BASIC EDUCATION (FCUBE)

AND ITS STRATEGIC OBJECTIVES

The FCUBE program had a focus on primary education and sought to improve the 1987 reforms by addressing the shortcomings identified in the implementation process. The program also aimed at increasing the participation of primary school children so as to make it as close to one hundred percent of the children as possible (Ghana, 1996a, p. 5). Additionally, FCUBE sought to address a
particular policy to raise the enrollment of girls in basic education. In the desire to restructure the education system of Ghana, the struggle for effectiveness and dynamism of the education objectives, it appeared that there was recognition of a need to expand the process of negotiating alternate approaches to education reforms (Ghana, 1996a, p. 7). In analyzing the FCUBE objectives, this research sought to study the extent to which the issues of preparation of teachers were addressed and the factors put in place to shape the educational system of Ghana and transformed the system to be responsive to a pluralistic and technologically advancing society. In the next section, the FCUBE reform initiatives were analyzed by first looking at the contexts under which the reform documents were formulated and how the mandates shaped the objectives and their implementation process.

Since the mid-19th century, Ghana’s education and training system has been repeatedly reformed in various attempts to solve the societal problems of unemployment and underemployment. The publicly expected outcomes of these programs have largely not been met, mainly because the necessary support measures were not in place and the education and training system was imbalanced and focused too much on primary education with less support to other sub-sectors at the post-basic level. The FCUBE, to a large extent, is still in progress in Ghana’s education system in 2006 as this study is being completed. The program documents that define it were in two parts: (a) the policy document—Ghana 1996a,

---

20 Palmer, Robert. 2005, p. 6
and (b) the operational plan—Ghana 1996b. The FCUBE program consisted of two phases with the first phase from 1996 to 2000 and the second phase from 2000 to 2005.

Political context of FCUBE

In 1992, Flt. Lt. J. J. Rawlings was re-elected in a democratic election. The slogan that marked his reelection into office (after ruling the country as a military leader since 1981) was “continuity and development” and this became one objective of his new Rawlings’ administration. In the same light, the administration continued the education reforms that were initiated in 1987. The promise to improve and provide free education at the basic level for all Ghanaian children became part of the fourth republican constitution (Ghana, 1994a; Ghana, 1994b).

Administrative control

The new administration did not make significant changes in portfolios. The Ministry of Education (MOE) continued to reserve the right to make major decisions and policies on behalf of the government. The MOE continued to interact with the Ghana Education Service (GES) on education matters, while the GES continued to play its traditional supervisory role over districts and local offices. In actuality, the education system remained centralized and operated along the chain of command as defined by the hierarchy (Fobi et al., 1995, p. 45). The only change noteworthy was under a democratic administration when the head of the Ministry of Education assumed the title Minister and not Secretary.
Mandate

FCUBE was initiated in fulfillment of a 1992 constitutional requirement, which stipulated among other things that “the Government shall, within two years after Parliament first meets after coming into force of this constitution, draw up a programme for implementation within the following ten years, for the provision of free, compulsory and universal basic education” (Ghana, 1994a, p. 1). The government policy document further noted that:

The long-term national goal to which (FCUBE) will contribute is an empowered citizenry effectively participating in the civic, social and economic life of the country. The government is committed to ensuring that all of its citizens participate in the political, social and economic life of the country regardless of the geographical region, in which they live, their gender, religion, or ethnicity. The central goal of the education system in Ghana is to ensure that all citizens are equipped with the fundamental knowledge and skills that enable them to be full stakeholders in and beneficiaries of development (Ghana, 1996a, p. 150).

The quote above highlights what the government sees as the goal of education and its empowerment of the citizenry as well as providing skills to citizens to contribute to the development of Ghana. However, it seems the policy document of the government is silent on how did reform initiatives would address issues and concerns of multicultural and multilingualism in Ghana’s educational setting.
Since FCUBE is designed to improve the provision and quality of basic education it had three major objectives:

i. expand access and participation for all at the basic education level with special attention to the girl child and the poor

ii. improve the quality of teaching and learning

iii. improve efficiency in education management (Ghana, 1996c)

Membership

Neither the policy document nor the operational plan discusses issues of participation. Nowhere is an indication given of the people who worked for the reforms or who were represented. Fobi et al. (1995) mentioned an Educational Review Committee but they did not discuss the membership and selection criteria (p. 23). It was known, however, that a number of consultations were made among educators, politicians, financiers and bureaucrats during the program development and implementation process. Information provided in a footnote to the table of contents in a World Bank publication titled, “Republic of Ghana: Basic Education Sector Improvement Program (1995)” gives an indication of who participated in the process. The publication indicated:

The operation was prepared on the basis of a series of missions in 1995/1996, which worked closely with Government officials from MOE and GES, and donor agencies including ODA [Overseas Development Administration] (UK), KFW [German Bank for Reconstruction] (Germany), USAID [United States Agency for
The above quote indicates that one of the constraints to implementing the basic education reform initiatives was finance. To this end, the government had to enter into negotiation with western donor nations. In so doing, these donors have become interest groups in Ghana’s education reforms. Largely, their interest became a factor that shaped Ghana’s education reforms. According to the FCUBE Report (1996):

Since the establishing a joint forum with resident donors in 1994, MOE/GES has been engaged in collaborative sector studies. A top-level task group was formed by the Minister for Education to oversee the preparation of reports prepared by professional study teams involving local experts, and a series of participatory workshops has been held involving stakeholders. Parents, community leaders, district and regional officers, teachers, parliamentarians, and MOE/GES staff have all contributed to producing analytical reports that have identified the main issues which have been addressed in the MOE’s Strategic Plan for Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) (p. 5)

In this report, FCUBE seems to suggest that infrastructures needed for realization of the education reform initiatives were put in place. FCUBE also seems to suggest
that the MOE’s Strategic Plan for Universal Basic Education was ‘democratically’ discussed since a wider cross-section of the Ghanaian public including professional bodies were consulted by the MOE. However, the FCUBE report was silent on the method of selection of participants in the discussion, more so, how the forum for the discussion was organized.

Nature of the FCUBE initiatives

Unlike the 1975 and 1987 reforms, the FCUBE did not engage in system restructuring so the discussions did not provide for program-wide content and structural changes as in the first two reforms. Rather, the focus was on creating the requisite atmosphere to foster democracy and lead to transformation of the education system. The issues that FCUBE focus identified included:

a. Improvement of quality of teaching and learning: Measure aimed in this direction involve curriculum review and development; the production and distribution of textbooks, syllabi, teacher’s handbooks and other instructional materials; development of an assessment and evaluation system of student performance; and instructional staff training.

b. Improvement of the quality of educational management: Efforts here centered on building the capacity for institutional/organizational analysis and change. Specific measures include changes in staffing and personnel management, performance management, budgeting and financial management, and district capacity building and evolution.
c. Improvements in access and participation: Changes here include infrastructural development, refurbishment and maintenance, and the fostering of community involvement in improved educational services (Ghana, 1996a, p. 4).

From the above quotes it seemed FCUBE identified some of the problems hindering the realization of the education reform initiatives. Some of the problems FCUBE identified include curriculum review, infrastructural development, textbooks, need for assessment and evaluation system, instructional staff training, personnel management, performance management, budgeting, and financial management. From this, it was evident that measure initiated would lead to transformation of Ghana’s education system.

Basically, as implied in the acronym (FCUBE), the program aimed at providing a measure of education for all school aged children. To ensure that both the socially advantaged and disadvantaged have equal opportunities in education, the FCUBE provided for the prohibitive financial commitments for participating in education, to be either taken up by the central government or shared with parents (Ghana, 1996c, p. 26).

Effects of the FCUBE on the education system

The implementation of the FCUBE reform initiatives was supposed to have ended in 2005, yet still there is evidence that it has a long way to go. The assessment mechanisms of MOE are still in progress in 2005; no conclusive reports
are available yet (in 2005). During data collection for this study, the program had barely documented any progress in the form of assessments of its operations. However, the policy documents asserted that the FCUBE reforms were to affect three key areas of the education system: (a) access, (b) quality, and (c) efficiency, in multiple but carefully integrated ways (Ghana, 1996a, p. 6). These effects were:

i. teaching and learning (i.e., curriculum reform and review, teacher education and reallocation, instructional materials development and performance assessments);
ii. management for quality assurance (i.e., efficient utilization of staff at school, circuit, district, regional and national levels);
iii. broad enrollments (i.e., across regions and gender);
iv. infrastructural development (i.e., construction, rehabilitation and modernization); and
v. cost and financing (i.e., resource re-allocation, elimination of redundancy, streamlining) (Ghana, 1996a, p. 16).

It has been indicated that the FCUBE program is still underway and thus its effects are currently not known. However, during data collection and analysis, it became clear that there were series of concerns needing attention. By 1997, the FCUBE first phase was to have been implemented for a year, but in that year the MOE was still collating syllabi and assessment programs for schools. The effort to provide textbooks that included culturally sensitive educational materials for schools was also being implemented.
At the time of data collection for this study, subject associations such as Ghana Association of Science Teachers, the French Teachers’ Federation, and the Education Teachers’ Association became active in helping to draw up syllabi and select textbooks for the schools. The criteria used in selecting textbooks for the schools and what was taken into consideration in drawing up the syllabi were not available to this researcher during the present study.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT ABOUT PROBLEMS CONFRONTING SCHOOLS OF EDUCATION IN GHANA

From the above discussion, it is evident since the inception of formal education Ghana has faced acute problems in public education. From the 1970s to 2000, each education reform movement made efforts to shift from transmissive education toward transformative education. However, each of the three eras under study was impacted by the political contexts out of which the reforms and related documents emerged, the administrative controls involved, membership on the reform commissions, and by their published mandates linked to the political and government authority that initiated the reforms.

Out of these reforms and documents emerged a number of issues. They include limited, and possibly, elitist participation in the reform process, a top-down approach to policy and implementation, an examination-oriented curriculum and pedagogy which emphasized teacher and text dominance to the detriment of more active forms of learning, the encouragement of “packed” (preset) curricular
materials, and perhaps what can best be labeled coercive external political and financial influences on reform process. The overall effect of these issues was constraints and limitations of sustainable education reforms in Ghana.

DOCUMENT B:

REFORM DOCUMENTS OF THE UNITED STATES

The next collection of documents analyzed are from education reforms in the United States. For the purposes of this study, six education reform documents that are approximately spaced at ten-year interval were analyzed. These documents were:

(1) Cottrell, D. P. (Ed.). *Teacher Education for Free people*, 1956;


(3) Howsam, R. B., *Educating a Profession or Education for Free People*, —AACTE, 1976;

(4) Smith, B. O. *A Design for a School of Pedagogy*, 1980;

(5) A Nation at Risk, 1983;


The six documents contain a variety of recommendations for the preservice teacher preparation curriculum and have drawn both praises and criticisms. The differences
in the reform proposals and the reactions. For example, the Commission on Teacher Education was influenced by widespread social and political changes during the six years of its existence, whereas Smith represents a very personal view affected far less by the context of its time (Tozer et al. 2002, pp. 220-224). Similarly, the National Survey of the Education of Teachers conducted in 1933 intentionally avoided particular ideological stance, while the reform documents produced under the chairmanships of Conant and Howsam intentionally reflected these authors’ opinions.

Since it is difficult to synthesize the many ideas from these very varied reports, the methods followed in this study for categorizing the reports’ recommendations were based on both intuition and systematic procedures. It is important to emphasize at this point that a continuous narrative description was employed as a technique, something that Erickson (1986) calls “writing like crazy” (p. 119). This form of interpretive approach addresses issues of content more than procedure. McLean (1991) called this analysis critical interpretivism because it is a combination of two research paradigms, interpretivism and critical theory and in addition, according to Erickson (1986) and as has been previously mentioned in this chapter, interpretivism is the discovery of meaning “from the point of view of the actor,” (p. 27).


The first of the reform proposals in this group analyzed was the *Teacher
Education for Free people, 1956. Since Donald Cottrell and his committee wrote this document, for the purpose of this study it would be referred to as Cottrell Report. This document was preceded by two major reports namely, National Survey of the Education of Teachers, 1933 and the Improvement of Teacher Education, 1946. The first document, National Survey of the Education of Teachers, 1933 was initiated by the U. S. Office of Education and the second; the Improvement of Teacher Education, 1946 was published by the American Council on Education. The National Survey of the Education of Teachers, reform proposal initiated by the U. S. Office of Education was a survey aimed at shedding light on education in the U. S. The survey, which employed a scientific approach to its data collection and analysis, was released in six volumes.

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers states among other things that, all courses should be rationalized and standardized to avoid duplication and repetition and adds that, “at least 75 % or 80 % of all work should be organized in definite sequences” (National Survey of the Education of Teachers, 1933, 111, p. 147). In addition, “The curricula for the education of teachers should be highly prescribed” (National Survey of the Education of Teachers, 1933, 111, p. 147). Cottrell, in fact, concludes that “Rather than an issue of elective vs. prescription, the problem is one of adequate guidance in selecting from among the course offerings and college activities” (Cottrell, 1956, p. 138). The National Survey of the Education of Teachers represented growing concern among educators, the general
public, politicians and policymakers about teacher preparation in America and went further to criticize standards and the status of teacher training institutions.

The survey laid emphasis on the curriculum used in teacher training programs. The 1930s, therefore, witnessed many changes and experiments in the preservice curriculum. The period brought about a wider use of evaluative procedures, more field experiences and foundations studies that stressed particularly individual attitudes, personal values, and social and emotional stability (Villegas, et al., 2002, p. 25). Despite the innovative ideas contained in the findings, the report did not achieve the desired goals due to the inception of World War II. The other proposal, Improvement of Teacher Education, 1946, which was initiated by the Commission on Teacher Education, investigated for six years educational issues with the hope of addressing unattended issues in the first document, National Survey of the Education of Teachers, 1933.

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) published Teacher Education for Free People, 1956 as a consequence of a three year self study of member institutions of AACTE. In a Preface to this reform document, Cottrell (1956) observed that:

“The idea for this book originated in the institutional self-study program of The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, which was conducted during the three years, 1952, 1953, and 1954. In that program the Association provided a team of teacher education leaders to visit each member institution
for the primary purpose of assisting that institution in an evaluation and in planning for the improvement of its work in the future” (ix).

Thus, an objective of the Association was to make available something that had been learned through the widespread evaluation they undertook of teacher education at the institutional level (Cottrell, 1956, p. ix). The authors of this document stated that their aim was to “suggest principles, policies, and possible concrete programs deemed worthy of consideration and investigation with respect to their applicability in particular situations” (Cottrell, 1956, p. xi). They noted that they were not eager to “draw a blueprint for institutional program for teacher education in the future” (Cottrell, 1956, p. xi). The authors of this document also asked “faculties and other interested groups” to “make their own programs as they deem wise” (Cottrell, 1956, p. xi). One would have thought that to enhance the professionalism of teachers in this crucial period of rapid demographic and political changes, Cottrell’s reform proposal would have assumed the responsibility to identify insights that would not only create awareness, but would have also moved the teaching profession toward the actualization of greater professional development in formal teacher preparation programs.

A review of this reform document by Donald Cottrell, (then Dean of the College of Education at The Ohio State University) and his colleagues revealed that
it focused on professional studies, academic preparations, and laboratory experiences (Cottrell, 1956, pp. 8-9; p. 393). To some extent, the reform identified the crucial instructional role of the teacher in the classroom and provided 14 principles for teachers to follow (Cottrell, 1956, pp. 12-13).

These principles defined the role of the teacher by identifying the complex character of the instructional job. However, the means by which teachers were to obtain the skills necessary to function in the midst of the complexities and provide an education to the students remained unanswered. For example, it is one thing to mention that a teacher should be intellectually strong and socially concerned in order to influence his/her students constructively, and it is another thing to provide teachers with the tools that they can employ to develop professional insight into the function of public education and their teaching responsibilities. Therefore, although the focus of this important document was on the above-mentioned concerns, it seemed to fail to address questions about teaching procedures, techniques, and knowledge of pedagogy.

It could be argued that the committee did not put forward a concrete proposal in education to initiate teacher preparation reform proposals. The principal concern of this document was on the view that ‘education is for the individual person.’ The document stated that, “The heart of the idea of a free society is the dignity and worth of the individual person. If that ideal is to be achieved…through
the support of a surrounding culture….Education in the United States…will safeguard and extend the life of freedom” (Cottrell, 1956, p. 385).

Cottrell Report is viewed as limited in providing an accurate analysis of the preparation of American teachers. In the last chapter of the document (Chapter 11), Cottrell and his partners reported that the education of teachers was undergoing criticism and revision because parents, policymakers, and lay leaders were interested in the subject and that members of the profession of education were also concerned about the qualifications of teachers (Cottrell, 1956, p. 383).

In terms of the methods employed and methods of data collection, Cottrell and his associates utilized conventional methods of data collection analogous to the National Survey of 1933. Thus, the report of Cottrell and his associates did not seem to reflect the hopes and aspirations of the socio-political moment. It is important to observe that this proposal was published two years after Brown v. Board of Education ruling of 1954 on desegregation of schools in the U. S. In that light, one would suppose they would have demanded a fundamental overhaul of the education system in order to embrace the diversity spirit of that ruling. Failure to address this concern probably resulted in the report receiving neither attention nor a quality debate in public forums. Nevertheless, this report seemed to have been caught between the demise of the Progressive Education Association of 1955 and the launching of Sputnik by Russia in 1957.
The reaction against progressivism probably restricted the impact of Cottrell’s progressively oriented report. Political leaders, military personnel, the media, and members of the public began to openly criticize both schools and higher education for their lack of vigor, discipline, and academic subjects. The critics frequently blamed teacher-training institutions for the declining standards in the U. S. classrooms, the profession’s inability to deal with technological change, the lack of equal educational opportunity, and the “neglect of talent” (Erickson, 1986, p. 121). In effect, many critics advocated that the control of teacher education should be transferred to the universities, and that the professional studies component should be reduced, since, according to their assessment, the majority of education courses were based mainly on opinions, unsound theories, and a lack of scholarship.


*The Education of American Teachers* is the U. S. second document analyzed in this group. This document could be referred to as the “Conant Report of 1963.” James Conant, a Chemistry professor and a former President of Harvard University, led the development of this report after two years of data collection. In view of his work on the report, Conant’s views, observations and recommendations predominated about teacher certification, the training curriculum, school personnel, and criticisms of the educational establishment. In the preface to *The Education of American Teachers*, Conant observed that:
In 1961 SOME TEACHERS in the field asked me to undertake a study of the education of teachers for our elementary and secondary schools. It was their belief that a volume written on the basis of a two-year investigation might make contributions to the public’s understanding of a complex subject. Knowing that the field was highly controversial, I undertook the task with some reluctance” (p. v).

This statement characterized the report as one individual’s assessment of the needs of teacher education in the United States and one less the collaborative work of a committee. The Education of American Teachers reform document was divided into ten chapters and proposed numerous radical changes in teacher preparation. It based the recommendations on the academic field of the preservice English teacher education. According to Conant, this report was subsidized by the Carnegie Foundation of New York (Conant, p. v).

Conant proposed a dossier of major changes in the preparation of American teachers. Over the years, there has been much written about the quality and knowledge and the preparation of teachers. In 1932, Waller stated that,

A popular epigram of a few years ago had it that teaching was the refuge of unusable men and unmarriageable women…….

Unjust or not, the low social standing of teachers, and the belief that teaching is a failure belt among the occupations, which is part of that low standing, contribute much to make the personnel of
The profession represents a lower grade of the general population than otherwise be the case. (p. 61).

The above quote demonstrated the low esteem with which the teaching profession was viewed at the time it was written.

Conant believed in the autonomy of educational establishments and their ability to make decisions about teacher education, hence his suggestions were more aligned to institutions that he encouraged to make prerogative decisions about teacher education rather than call for action on ideological grounds. In a chapter on the redirection of the public authority in education matters, Conant noted that, “The employment of teachers in our public schools is a legal responsibility of a local school board, which should act on the advice of a professional school administrator in whom the board has confidence” (Conant, 1963, p. 56). To Conant, the idea of prescribing programs for teacher education and for certification procedures would ensure public interest in education issues and invest the destiny of schools in local boards of education. This investment of the destiny of schools in local boards would in the end check individual teachers’ incompetence and ensure wise appointment of teacher personnel. Conant did not seem to take into account historical reports of corruption, lack of supervision, incompetence of local boards, which had previously led state governments to assume responsibilities for public
schools. Instead, Conant attacked the role of state administration of public schools:

“Given that a school system that is attractive to teachers and a board that is answerable to many interest groups......What then, should be the role of the state education authorities?......

Certification by examination, whether by subject matter or on professional knowledge......if the state were to set up such examination, the wrong kind of information would be tested; that the ability to write test answers would not ensure the ability to function effectively in the classroom; that the testing instruments would lend themselves to preparations by cramming or to corrupt administration;....imposing a strait jacket on the teaching function” (Conant, 1963, pp. 57-58) emphasis added.

To this end, Conant suggests that, “both the content and the quality of instruction are determined on the individual campus no matter what the state may do” (Conant, 1963, p. 58) across the campuses of universities and colleges responsible for teacher training. But if a society is looking for an elitist standard of education, the society would have to provide a comprehensive system that publicly supports education for all regardless of location, ethnicity, age or culture factors. In like manner, all colleges responsible for the training of teachers would need to move same programs across college campuses to ensure the effectiveness of the comprehensive system and the achievement of standards in education.
According to Conant, pre-service English teachers should be awarded teaching certificates for grades 7 to 12 in only one field of study (Conant, 1963, p. 167).

Conant also stated that he found not only difficulties but also dissatisfaction among preservice English students who were opposed to graduating with a ‘major’ and a ‘minor’ (Conant, 1963, p. 167). He claimed that the process in which certification requirements and English teacher education programs were geared toward employment needs a thorough examination (Conant, 1963, p. 168). He advocated that to ensure adequate preservice English teacher preparation, teachers should spend not less than four years in a teacher-training program before graduating (Conant, 1963, p. 186).

Unlike Cottrell’s Report, Conant’s reform proposal generated controversies across the United States. Professional associations and educators who believed in a technical approach to education raised concerns. Although this report generated an extensive debate among various sectors of the society, it seemed to achieve little or no consensus on a pre-service teacher curriculum; thus, only a few institutions made the effort to implement its recommendations to the letter. Regardless of this public reaction, due to its academic orientation, the Conant report presented a provocative contrast of ideas.

In sum, Conant (1963) in The Education of American Teachers raised questions about the knowledge preservice Language arts teacher-candidates were
receiving teacher education at that time. He critiqued the lack of a liberal arts and science knowledge base that teachers were receiving in their teacher education programs and claimed that his observations were not new. He argued that at the start of the twentieth century, “the amount of knowledge available of these subjects increased explosively; and the amount required for effective citizenship and employment rose rapidly as social and economic system grew more complex and technologically oriented” (Conant 1963, p. 10).

3. Educating a profession (1976)

The Educating a Profession report, which is the third American document studied, was sponsored by AACTE with the objective of recommending improvement in teacher education based on, at that time, the state of affairs within the field. A major tenet of this 1976 report was that the committee believed was the cause of a low standard performance of among teachers in American schools was due to the fact that colleges failed to set the stage for a high academic background for teachers:

To fail to develop principles, concepts, and theories and to validate practice is to restrict the occupation (of teaching) to the level of a craft (Howsam et al. 1976, p. 10).

The committee felt that the absence of these concepts, theories and principles—the substance of teacher professional culture—there is no performance standard envisioned for the English teacher during preparation or his/her continuance in the
field. With this assumption members of the committee advocated for a “dramatic change in the direction of greater professional responsibility and autonomy” (Howsam et al. 1976, p. 12). This change would likely need to have influence on matters of English teacher education, licensure, and performance standards.

Education reform requires that teachers learn new roles and ways of teaching especially in this crucial period of the civil rights period. That translates into a long-term developmental process requiring teachers to focus on changing patterns of society and their own beliefs in relation to teacher practices.

It is obvious that the demands posed by English teacher preparation and other aspects of reforms on teacher practices would absorb a bulk of the energy, thought, and attention of colleges responsible for preparation of teachers. Apparently, since the mid-1970s, withstanding the socio-economic and political climate, a number of proposals for improving American public education included a call for professionalizing teaching, uplifting teaching to the status of a ‘true’ profession (Burbules & Densmore, 1991; Howsam, Corrigan, & Denemark, 1985; Soder, 1991). This statement has two main implications: (a) that teaching is not a profession, and (b) that there is something sought after, both for teachers and for the public welfare, in the transformation of teaching into a ‘true’ profession. In that spirit, it was imperative that the AACTE would focus attention on three aspects of the issue of professionalizing teaching.

The first concern was the definition of profession? The second was why
teaching was believed to fall short of being a true profession? And finally, what contribution might professional development of schools make to teacher professionalization? Of much importance was the fact that, school reformers needed to make the connection between good schools and well-prepared teachers if their objective was to elevate teaching to the status of a "true" profession (emphasis mine).

In 1976 therefore, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education issued its bicentennial report that predicted that teaching "can and will self-actualize into a profession" and urged "professional and organizational effort" in that direction (Howsam, et al., 1985, p. 39). After two years of investigations, the Bicentennial Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching, chaired by Robert Howsam, of the University of Houston, presented a comprehensive study on professional teacher education. However, like the Conant report, its conclusions mirror a strong pedagogical bias, meant to raise teaching to the status of a profession. The commission provided a definition of what it considers a profession:

“In modern societies.....educated in the most valid knowledge and skills available from research and practice......a practitioner competent within the limits of the existing art or science” (Howsam, 1976, p. 6) emphasis added.

The report discussed aspects and problems of teaching as a profession and made recommendations to upgrade the quality of teachers and of teacher education.

The report was divided into five chapters. In the first chapter, the authors described characteristics of professions and semi-professions. In subsequent chapters, the authors reviewed the definitions of a profession and assessed the extent to which teaching fell short of being accorded the full status of being a profession. The authors examined certain social factors which have come to bear on teaching. Paramount in this analysis was the conditions of schools and the nature of teaching itself. In the remaining chapters, they not only touched on the governance of teacher education, they also explored issues of pre-service, in-service, and continuing teacher preparation. Special emphasis was placed on inadequate 'life space' within which teacher educators conduct effective initial preparation of teachers and implications for certification.

The Bicentennial Commission was, to an extent, also influenced by the competency in the movement of the 1970s and the advent of an oversupply of teachers. Thus in its submission, it emphasized quality and effectiveness in teacher preparation and the need for higher performance standards. The report dealt with the nature of the teaching profession, the governance of the teacher education, and quality control. Therefore, the proposal was largely, practically based, but not controversial. However, it was more general than specific when it came to the actual content of the curriculum.
It was believed by the committee members that the combination of constructivism and situated cognition represent a promising framework for educating and socializing preservice English teachers into the profession. They also assumed that used appropriately and strategically, the combination of their suggested social and psychological points-of-view can provide a wide-range of learning and teaching strategies that would answer teacher preparation needs of the century. Teacher educators were concerned with providing skills and knowledge used for teaching in the diverse classrooms and the theoretical and conceptual support needed could only come from the schools of constructivism.

Despite the fact that this proposal was welcomed by the profession and AACTE with the hope that it would encourage change and generate debate within the profession and the public alike, just as Flexner Report on medical education did in 1910, it did not have much impact on teacher preparation programs.


The fourth document analyzed, was Design for a School of Pedagogy, and this was sponsored by the U. S. Department of Education for the Teacher Corps. In a statement introducing the report, the Secretary of Education, Shirley M. Hufstedler, noted that,

"The Department of Education is dedicated to fostering and encouraging a devotion to excellence in every aspect of education in this country. From the first whispers of independence to the brilliant, extended Constitutional debates about the
best forms of government for a free people, education was understood by all to be the cornerstone of successful democracy in America.” (Smith et al. 1980, p. iii)

In order to justify the importance of education and its relationship to the socio-political and economic development of the American society Hufstedler went on to quote the founding fathers of American democracy by saying,

“Thomas Jefferson said it best; ‘If a nation expects to be both ignorant and free…..it expects what never was and never will be’” (Smith et al. 1980, p. iii).

It seems from this quote that Hufstedler believes that, for the fact that teaching is the key to educational excellence in a democratic and free society it necessitates the examination of the quality of teacher training and in particular English. On another hand, in the belief of Hufstedler, the quality of teacher training was determined by the kinds of incentives that teachers are offered to improve their skills and enhance their own feelings of worth, dignity, and achievement (Smith et al. 1980, p. iii). To that end, to ensure students' success in school and society, teachers must be improved through their teacher training programs.

In fact, this report was a federally funded project with the purpose of lending a hand to disadvantaged districts. The publication, Design for a School of Pedagogy is mainly the work of B. O. Smith of the University of South Florida. A
review of it revealed that it was a report that only refined and advanced the ideas that Smith presented in a Forward note to *Teachers for the Real World* in 1969, written when he was at the University of Illinois.

In this report, Smith based his proposals on theoretical rather than realistic evidence, drawing on his fifty years of experience in the teaching profession. Although this report outlined a detailed plan for the complete overhauling or restructuring of the English teacher preparation program, it is clear that the report is influenced by Smith’s avowed interest in ‘technical’ traditions in teacher Education. Numerous quotes and references in the report alludes to earlier studies undertaken in the field of English teacher Education, but the mention of these studies in a *Design for a School of Pedagogy* seemed to have been done with the objective of criticizing them.

According to Smith, earlier reform proposals failed because of their de-emphasizing of pedagogical knowledge in the preservice English teacher preparation curriculum. To this end, the flaws Smith identified in the earlier reports only go to support his argument, assumptions, and ideas about the changes he suggested in his *Design for a School of Pedagogy* report.

Smith observed in *Design for a School of Pedagogy* that a professional base needs be recognized as the foundation base for preservice English teacher preparations. Since *Design for a School of Pedagogy* and *Educating a Profession* reports seemed to lean on same ideology, Smith outlined Howsam’s
recommendations in *Educating a Profession* report into specific courses essential to
the preparation of the English teacher.

Of particular interest is *that Design for a School of Pedagogy* seemed to be
unsuccessful in stimulating public interest in education just like the *Educating a
Profession* report by Howsam. This failure might be attributed to the inherent
practical and ideological problems anticipated in the implementation of the
pedagogical proposals of Smith and others.


The year, 1983 has been called “The Year of Great Debate” in American
education since it was that year that a large number of reports on educational
reform appeared, censuring the public schools and calling for immediate reform
(Long, 1984, p. 7). Earlier on August 26, 1981, the Secretary of Education, T. H.
Bell created the National Commission on Excellence in Education directing it to
examine the quality of education in the United States and to make a report to the
Nation and to him within 18 months of its first meeting. In accordance with the
Secretary's instructions, the Commission on Excellence in Education’s report is
supposed to come up with practical recommendations for educational
improvement. To this effect, the Commission was created as a result of the
Secretary's concern about "the widespread public perception that something is
seriously remiss in our educational system."22 Soliciting the "support of all who

care about our future," the Secretary noted that he was establishing the Commission based on his "responsibility to provide leadership, constructive criticism, and effective assistance to schools and universities."  

The Secretary of Education did not initiate the creation of the National Commission on Excellence in Education on his own. Because American education has been the subject of heated debate and general concern since the 1950s, President Reagan mandated a special study of the situation. In 1983, The National Commission on Excellence in Education performed this study and released its much publicized report called, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform Report* (the report could be accessed at this website)\(^{24}\). *A Nation at Risk Report*, 1983, was therefore the fifth American document analyzed in this section. *A Nation at Risk*, (the final report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education) is a short document of 31 pages. It represented the outcome of deliberations involving 18 months of meetings, scrutiny of some 40 commissioned papers in addition to the untold number of extant papers consulted, and analyzing testimonies provided by hundreds of individuals from every level of education, business, and government. As stated earlier, this report was sponsored by the U. S. Department of Education for the Teacher Corps during a critical period for the


160
Department of Education. In the introduction to the report, the stated their objectives:

“All, regardless of race or class or economic status, are entitled to a fair chance and to the tools for developing their individual powers of mind and spirit to the utmost. This promise means that all children by virtue of their own efforts, competently guided, can hope to attain the mature and informed judgment needed to secure gainful employment, and to manage their own lives, thereby serving not only their own interests but also the progress of society itself.”  

What seems to be evident in this report was the recurrent notion that a curriculum and educational reform must be geared towards education for employment. This is not far removed from what the popular media report as statements of politicians and other interest groups who criticized U. S. educational system and called for world-class educational system. Thus, this report moved its focus on the knowledge and experiences teacher candidates receive and how that might enable teachers to be effective in a pluralistic community.

The report, A Nation At Risk stated inter alia, “we must dedicate ourselves to the reform of our education system for the benefit of all” (p. 25). To this end, the report suggested five new basics to be added to the curriculum of America's
schools. These basics include four years of English, three years of Math, three years of Science, three years of Social Studies, and half a year of computer science in America's high schools. In addition, it recognized certain specific standards that could be accomplished by these five basics. The report further indicates, 'The teaching of English in high school should equip graduates to: (a) comprehend, interpret, evaluate, and use what they read; (b) write well-organized, effective papers; (c) listen effectively and discuss ideas intelligently; and (d) know our literary heritage and how it enhances imagination and ethical understanding, and how it relates to the customs, ideas, and values of today's life and culture.' It also highlighted the fact that 'the teaching of mathematics in high school should equip graduates to: (a) understand geometric and algebraic concepts; (b) understand elementary probability and statistics; (c) apply mathematics in everyday situations; and (d) estimate, approximate, measure, and test the accuracy of their calculations (p. 25). In addition to the traditional sequence of studies available for college-bound students, new equally demanding mathematics curricula needed to be developed for those who did not plan to continue their formal education immediately' (p. 25).

These basics were purported to enable US students and teachers to achieve excellence in education. "Excellence" in this case, is defined by the National Commission on Excellence in Education as 'a school or college that sets high expectations and goals for all learners, then tries in every way possible to help
students reach them'' (p. 12). In addition to these new basics, the report proposed that the study of foreign languages should begin in the elementary schools.

One other issue the report touched on was the poor state of American education when viewed alongside that of the world. Believing that the decline in education would make America lose her competitive edge on the world's market economy, the Commission suggested that to increase the educational position of the U. S. in the world, teacher education, and education standards need be reformed. The virtues of life-long learning for all should also be extolled.

The report cited a high demand for increased support for those who teach mathematics, science, foreign languages, and specialists in education for gifted and talented, language minority, and handicapped students. Pruned to advancing and improving the quality and effectiveness of teachers, the Commission observed that, those who were interested in the field of education were all too often not academically qualified:

"The teacher preparation curriculum is weighted heavily with courses in 'education methods' at the expense of courses in subjects to be taught'' (p. 22).

The report also noted that “disturbing inadequacies” existed in the following areas:

1. Secondary school curricula;
2. Expectations of students;
3. Homework requirements;
4. Expenditures for instructional materials;
5. Time spent on school work;
6. Effective use of classroom time; and
7. Textbooks which have been “written down

To resolve these discrepancies, the report emphasized pre-college education, and the central role of science in the highly technological and internationally competitive society. To this end, the report made five broad recommendations aimed at the improvement in education in general. These included improvements in pre-college education in science and mathematics, which are essential in order to provide:

(a) the needed number of scientists and engineers,
(b) workers with the understanding and skills to manufacture, operate and repair increasingly complex technological equipment, and
(c) widespread understanding of science (scientific literacy) among the general population.


The Holmes Group report is presented in a trilogy (1986, 1990, and 1995) which sought to provide a conceptual model school for the training of preservice
teachers. The Holmes Group involved a consortium of universities involved in educational research and educator preparation (The Holmes Group, 1986, p. 5). The groups’ main objective was to address the “lax standards in schools, the weak accreditation policies and practices, and the historic indifference to teacher preparation” (The Holmes Group, 1986 p. i). In an effort to provide “teachers and other educational specialists who have all the attributes of genuine professionals” The Holmes Group set the agenda to transform teaching from an occupation into a genuine profession that would serve the educational needs” (The Holmes Group, 1986, p. i) of the society. In Tomorrow's Schools (1990), The Holmes Group provided an ambitious and exciting agenda for the establishment of Professional Development Schools (PDS).

In many ways, Professional Development Schools could be viewed as both a product of the educational reform movement and at the time, as a means to achieve certain education reform agenda goals. The Holmes Group (1986), referred to Professional Development Schools, while the Carnegie Corp. (1986) identified them as clinical schools. Levine (1988) referred to the sites as professional-practice school.

In publishing the document Tomorrow’s Teachers: A Report of Holmes Group (1986), the group focused on teacher preparation and the role of higher education in creating a three-tier teacher career ladder. The group outlined specific

27 Holmes’ Report (1990) p. xi
goals for reform of teacher education, which met with resistance. Clifford and Guthrie (1988) noted that the Holmes Group “Fabricated an extensive agenda of reform proposal for education schools and teacher preparation” (p. 344).

Notwithstanding these public concerns, The Holmes Group noted that, any “reform proposals would fail as they had in the past. Because the reforms amounted to little more than slogans that could be interpreted in ways that require little actual change in the way schooling is conducted.” Hence, they argued that the only way to bring reform to teacher education was that “the quality of teachers, of course, is tied to the quality of their education” (The Holmes Group, 1986, p. ii).

The Holmes Group presented three major objectives for establishing Professional Development Schools. These included,

(1) improving education of prospective and practicing teachers;

(2) to strengthen knowledge and practice in teaching; and

(3) to strengthen the profession of teaching by serving as models of promising and productive structural relations between teachers and administrators (The Holmes Group, 1986, pp. -ii).

Some distinctive features of the PDS’s were that they were to be outstanding public schools, cooperatively established and maintained by schools of education and selected school districts. They were "real world" schools of preservice teachers, which included pupils from various cultural and socio-
economic backgrounds. In addition, PDS should be jointly staffed by outstanding professional teachers and university faculty to provide appropriate environments for clinical instruction and professional socialization of new and veteran teachers (Holmes Group, 1986). Besides its training role, the Professional Development School was designed to strengthen knowledge and practice in schools by providing exemplary sites for research, experimentation, inquiry, evaluation, and eventual dissemination of innovative programs and effective practices; they would also contribute to the "ongoing refinement and codification of successful teaching and schooling" (Holmes Group, 1986, p. i),

It is assumed also…that teacher education programs would be different in Holmes institutions for all the reasons that make these institutions so academically powerful in every other aspect. They are institutions that attract more than their share of academically talented students; they have the faculty who, on the whole, are the nation’s most authoritative sources of information in their fields” (The Holmes Group, 1986, p. ii)

The Holmes Group also added that these schools would be "actual demonstration sites where recent scholarship could be consistently reviewed and selectively incorporated into operating policy and practices" (Holmes Group, 1986). In this way, PDS could contribute to ongoing efforts to restructure schools to facilitate pupil learning by utilizing the expertise of practicing teachers (The Holmes Group, 1986).
One hallmark of Professional Development Schools was that, “prospective teachers gain a broad, coherent liberal arts foundation that incorporated enduring, multicultural values and forms of inquiry, and that is taught to a depth of understanding that enables them so to teach” (The Holmes Group, 1986, p. iii).

The Holmes Group aimed to bring a change that affected standards, the nature and substance of teacher education, and the training of preservice teachers (The Holmes Group, 1986, p. iii). These objectives and policy changes suggested by The Holmes Group assumed the culture of hope that prospective teachers would possess a teacher’s knowledge and skills, and intellectually defensible standards of education during their entry into the teaching field. Figures V and VI summarizes the major education reforms described in this chapter:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun: KEYWORDS</th>
<th>Adjective: KEYWORDS</th>
<th>Expressions/Compound Words Clusters</th>
<th>THEMES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>teacher personnel</td>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>school system that is attractive to teachers</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incompetence</td>
<td>Pedagogy</td>
<td>Professional knowledge</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certification</td>
<td>Profession</td>
<td>Standardized tests</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional school</td>
<td>Radical changes</td>
<td>certification based on specific required courses</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>positive self-concept</td>
<td>To this end, Conant suggests that, “both the content and the quality of instruction”</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Premptive decisions</td>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>elitist standard of education</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘true’ profession</td>
<td>professional development</td>
<td>awarded teaching certificates for grades 7 to 12 in one field only</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality of teachers</td>
<td>adequate practice-teaching experience in two fields</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellence</td>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>liberal arts/science knowledge base</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quality and effectiveness</td>
<td>valid knowledge</td>
<td>Performance standard envisioned</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teachers must improve</td>
<td>of incentives</td>
<td>Cornerstone of successful democracy in America</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational reform</td>
<td>secure gainful employment</td>
<td>educational excellence</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education for employment</td>
<td>Mature and informed judgment</td>
<td>Well-prepared teachers</td>
<td>School reform</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5: Synthesis: content analysis of education reform documents
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOCUMENTS</th>
<th>ORIGIN</th>
<th>ORIGINATORS AND INITIATORS</th>
<th>BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DOCUMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Teacher Education for People 1956</td>
<td>Political: Post War Effects: 2nd WW &amp; Cold War—education for life adjustment. A: 2 reports have already preceded this report—1933, &amp; 1946. B: Cuban Immigrants in the US C: Brown v. Board of Education ruling</td>
<td>AACTE Cottrell, D. P</td>
<td>Published by AACTE after a three-year self study of member institutions advised member-institutions to make their own pre-service teacher training programs that they deem wise. It focused its attention on professional studies, academic preparations, and laboratory experiences. It recommended 14 principles that are crucial to the instructional role of the teacher in the classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The Education of American Teacher, 1963</td>
<td>Political: A: Sputnik has been launched by Russia 1957; B: Civil Rights Movement period. C: lack of liberal arts and science knowledge The Great Talent Hunt—after Sputnik-advocated for vocational training</td>
<td>Conant, J. B Carnegie Foundation of New York</td>
<td>Addresses the autonomy of educational establishments and their privileged ability to make decisions on teacher education. Criticized standardized tests as the basis of certification and the role of state administration of public schools in preparation of pre-service teachers. It criticized the lack of liberal arts and science knowledge. Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT)/Educational Testing Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Educating a Profession (1976)</td>
<td>Marks the Progressive Era Reform project—where they examine the nature of teaching and teacher preparation.</td>
<td>Howsam, R. B., Sponsored by AACTE—Bicentennial Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching</td>
<td>It felt that the absence of background in theories and principles—the substance of teacher professional culture—there is no performance standard envisioned for the English teacher during preparation or his/her continuance in the field. Greater professional responsibility and autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Design for a School of Pedagogy (1980)</td>
<td>Political: Sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education for the Teacher Corps. Federally funded project with the purpose of lending a hand to disadvantaged districts.</td>
<td>Smith, B. O</td>
<td>Sort the improvement of teachers through quality of teacher training. Quality of teachers is determined by the kinds of incentives that teachers are offered to improve their skills and enhance their own feelings of worth, dignity, and achievement. Emphasis on technical traditions in teacher Education; pedagogical knowledge in the pre-service English teacher preparation curriculum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. A Nation at Risk Report, 1983</td>
<td>A report by the presidential Commission on Education</td>
<td>National Commission on Excellence in Education</td>
<td>A: The objective was to address among other things the lax standards in schools, the weak accreditation policies and practices, and the historic indifference to teacher preparation B: suggests 3 levels of teaching—(a) instructors; (b) professional teachers, and (c) career professionals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Holmes Group, Tomorrow’s Schools of Education, 1986</td>
<td>Effort at professionalizing teaching.</td>
<td>The Holmes Group</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Synthesis: context analysis of education reform documents
Summary

This chapter was devoted to analysis of the data and discussion of the findings with respect to the research question, what were the emerging themes that formed the background to reforms in Ghana’s educational programs, and sought to address issues and concerns of multicultural and multilingualism in the educational setting between 1957 and 1996. The presentation of the study’s data analysis was organized in a way that each education reform document was given a thick descriptive overview and multivariate analysis.
CHAPTER 5
FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH, AND SUMMARIES

The education of teachers must be driven by a clear and careful conception of the educating we expect our schools to do, the conditions most conducive to this educating (as well as the conditions that get in the way) and the kinds of expectations that teachers must be prepared to meet. Further the renewal of schools, teachers, and the programs that educate teachers must proceed simultaneously.


Introduction

In concluding this study, the researcher is aware of his location in the continuum of researchers on educational reforms in Ghana. From this location, the researcher was in a position to examine whether or not a multicultural curriculum might be an appropriate approach to dealing with problems inherent in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms such as in Ghana. Those who have come before the researcher have shared findings and recommendations that created a space for the researcher to investigate an appropriate curriculum for Ghana’s education system. This space is both critical and hopeful; it is a space where stakeholders in Ghana’s education should view ethnicity and diversity not only in a bilingual and multilingual society but also at the classroom level. It is a space where each stakeholder in educational reforms must cope with the myths and
realities of race, gender and sexuality. It is also a space where each stakeholder must see the multicultural curriculum as a way to addressing tensions between freedom and equality, on one hand, and the realities of race, ethnicity, and gender dynamics in classrooms, on the other hand. In addition, it is a space where stakeholders in Ghana’s education system must answer the question, “what is the purpose of schooling in Ghana?”

As the researcher made efforts to create such a space, he stood on the shoulders of others who have already been involved in multicultural education reforms. From multicultural education proponents such as Banks (1994) and others, the researcher inherited a desire to infuse multicultural education principle into Ghana’s educational system. To accomplish this goal, the researcher followed Smagorinsky and Whiting’s (1995) advice to strive for: exemplary syllabi for language arts methodology classes, including the identification of ways that preservice English teachers were taught in the United States; (b) deciding what books to utilize; and (c) design training activities for preservice teachers, including how to assess their students’ progress (Smagorinsky, 1995, p. 2). Writers like, Hirsch (1987) see multicultural education as “the missing rung in the educational ladder” and argued that, “cultural literacy constitutes the only one sure avenue of opportunity for disadvantaged children, the only reliable way of combating the social determinism that now condemns them to remain in the same social and educational condition as their parents” (p. xiii). Within the space, the researcher has
concluded that the absence of multicultural education in Ghana’s educational reforms could possibly account for one or more of the gaps in Ghana’s education system as called for in the Dzobo reforms of 1975, the Anfom reforms of 1986, and the FCUBE of 1996.

Overview and discussion of findings

This dissertation journey has involved identifying issues associated with Ghana’s education system and searching for alternative ways to connect future educational reforms in Ghana with intended education goals. This viewpoint is needed because of the continued repetition of various education reform initiatives in Ghana and because recommendations from successive education reform agendas could mean that some of the weaknesses addressed in earlier education reforms either might have persisted or were possibly not addressed previously. It is the belief of this researcher that Ghana could achieve the desired goals of its educational system if a closer examination is made of the process employed by developed countries like the United States to bring needed changes to their educational systems. In the search for alternative ways to make educational reforms in Ghana better achieve their goals, this study sought to shift from Ghana’s traditional empirical way of instituting needed education reform agendas in its education system where educational policies are typically handed down from top to bottom for implementation. In effect, this study can be viewed as an alternative process that is democratic and that involves major stakeholders in both the
educational system and in the educational reform process. The main goal of this investigation was to study the selected success of the United States education reforms and suggest possible application for Ghana. The central objective of this study was to re-think educational aims in ways that the ends and means could be connected and that education reforms in Ghana might be guided to promote transformative practice. Thus, in this study, the researcher attempted to blend key ideas from both Ghana and the United States education reform initiatives to illuminate a theoretical framework of the relationship between education reforms and the broader community in Ghana.

According to this researcher’s views, Ghana needs to learn from the United States that certain educational reforms in the United States seem to have centered on finding new ways to increase student learning by establishing standards for what should be taught and how correlated assessment of success could be measured. To achieve this goal, assessing new standards seem to have occurred at several levels in the United States educational system. In Ghana as well as in the United States, teachers face the need to prepare the next generation of citizens for a changing world, deal with the perplexing demographics of society, and respond to an increasingly diverse student population.

Toffler and Toffler (1995), in their book, Creating a New Civilization, suggested that the information age has brought with it “genuinely new ways of
production that make most factory assembly lines obsolete ... and has radically changed schools and corporations for the future” and at the same time, “the family as a unit has evolved into many different constellations” (p. 20). This comment suggested that significant changes are taking place in civilization broadly defined.

In both the United States and Ghana, for example, there are significant increases in single parent families, mothers employed outside the home, and many children who are homeless and living in poverty. In both societies, the growing diversity in the student population includes increasing numbers of individuals from ethnically and linguistically diverse backgrounds, persons with various disabilities, as well as many children at-risk of educational failure. These factors contribute to the critical need for teachers to be well educated to work towards preparing students for the challenges of the next century while at the same time needing to respond to individual student backgrounds, learning needs, styles, and preferences.

The reform proposals examined by the researcher in this study of the United States and Ghana suggested four broad concerns

(a) curriculum reform

(b) faculty and students as players in implementation of education reforms

(c) social change agents educators and students, and

(d) education policies and practices

These key concerns provide opportunities for educators to confront socio-economic realities, socio-political realities, as well as opportunities to change the conditions
of education as needed. The present study suggested that educational reform initiatives are crucial to transformative educational practice. In the case of Ghana, the educational reforms seem to have involved actions by the individuals and were not only as a result of elected political authorities. However, these key concerns seem to further challenge education systems because of the changing nature and dynamics of students in classrooms. Linguistic and culturally diverse students in classrooms in both Ghana and the United States, like all students, deserve the best education that can be provided.

In this study, observations about the similarities between the reform proposals were made. In the first place, in both the United States and Ghana, education reform proposals were often a result of societal pressures, and in many cases the pressures were political. For example in the U. S., it was Sputnik (1957) led by Russia and the eagerness of the United States President, D. Eisenhower, that led to a national educational agenda. This agenda included an emphasis on training teachers under the National Defense Education Act (NDEA). The Civil Rights Movement in the 1960s gave rise to multicultural reforms, and Brown v. Board of Education (1954) landmark legislation “which reversed the legality of Separate but Equal schools and triggered rising expectations and aspirations for equal opportunity and social justice, especially in education” (Bennett, 2001, p. 171) was passed. In Ghana, political contexts (e.g., sporadic military takeovers and external demands from donor agencies—the WB, IMF, UNICEF) gave rise to many
education reforms. Identifiable in the same time frame of post colonization were the Acheampong and Rawlings regimes that sought to transform the Ghanaian educational system, eradicate unemployment and respond to underdevelopment in Ghana. Despite these efforts, by 1993, it was widely accepted that the 1987 education reforms of Ghana had failed to achieve their quality targets and had also exposed public education to significant public criticism. The FCUBE program was set up with a focus on primary education and also to improve upon the 1987 education reform by addressing the shortcomings identified in the previous implementation process. As previously stated, the main goal of FCUBE was to improve access to science and technology education and training, and to respond to the relevance of public education for the masses in addressing the manpower needs of Ghana.

From this study, it can be concluded that three major education reform movements in the U. S. left indelible marks on education and produced some important thinkers about education. The movements were the progressive, equity, and excellence movements in U. S. education. Each of these movements sought to spearhead attention on a particular issue that was of common interest. The education excellence reform movement, for example, that began in the early 1980s was triggered by the publication of *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative of Educational Reform* by the National Commission on Excellence in Education. Although the focus of this reform was economic, its emphasis was on curriculum.
Another was the Progressive movement that focused on providing poor immigrant workers a better life. Interestingly, instead of designing a pedagogy for the poor, it emphasized progressive education that, in retrospect, seemed basically designed more for the affluent. The Equity Reform movement emerged as a result of the United States Civil Rights movement of the 1950s and 1960s. The Equity Reform movement emerged because of reaction against the perceived inadequacies of American public schools in educating ethnic minority students, often in large public urban school districts in cities Los Angelos, Chicago, and New York city.

This study revealed that educators, researchers and social scientists have suggested various viewpoints about school reform, teacher education, and how to prepare preservice teachers, including English teachers. These education reform initiators have argued and defined different purposes, contents, methods, and assessments for education standards in the U. S. and Ghana. However, the recommended theories and practices have all had their inherent strengths and weaknesses. For the U. S., it can be concluded that reform initiatives in the United States for some years after the 1960s were influenced by historical, social, economic, political, cultural contexts. Each of these factors seemed to have helped determine which education policy was established.

In the case of Ghana, the story was no different. During the last three decades, Ghana witnessed three major waves of educational reforms while it also went through four military rulers and five civilian administrations. All the
education reforms initiated during these periods had the overall objective of restructuring the education system in order to initiate a new educational system that was transformative. The three periods of education reforms included: Dzobo reforms of 1975, Anfom reforms of 1987, and Basic Education Sector Improvement Programme 1996 – 2005. These reform efforts have understandably been influenced by Ghana’s historical, social, economic, political, and cultural contexts. And each of these factors has helped determine public education policy.

The attempt to democratize and transform education centered on the equalization of educational opportunities, while efforts to transform education focused on changing classroom practices. This type of reductionism resulted in education reforms that were typically dictated externally and were usually controlled by elitist groups of bureaucrats, politicians, financiers and leaders at recognized institutions in Ghana. Regardless of the efforts, however, the education reforms initiatives were widely viewed as not being successful. This researcher concluded that in order for Ghana’s education reforms to have achieved their desired goals, major inter-connected variables based on a theoretical model (Figure 7, p. 182) such as the following would be needed:

a. Since any country’s education system is needed for the citizens to develop a solid educational foundation, based on measurable standards of achievement, Ghana needs to attend to at least two key outcomes in the future, as stated below and develop educational priorities essential to each major outcome.
b. Improve overall educational outcomes based on a realistic evaluation of societal needs in Ghana in the twenty-first century. This aspect of the theoretical model includes identification of standards for all instructional levels and the requisite components and resources needed for identified educational outcomes.

c. Improve overall access and equity related to Ghana’s multicultural and multi-lingual society based on current and projected demographic data related to the above-mentioned educational standards to produce needed changes in Ghana’s education system.

Figure 7 (refer to page 182) is a result of the analysis of Ghana’s education reform documents that suggested an emergent theoretical model for which the center is Ghanaian students who are surrounded by their teachers, schools, and communities. This ever widening circle also includes the expected societal educational outcomes, special curricular and program needs, and the education system, economy, society and economic development in Ghana at the national level of the country.

This emergent theoretical model needs to be vetted in Ghana and possibly revised based on critical reviews by major stakeholders (e.g., educators, policymakers, parents, and students). The model is designed to suggest an organized and coherent means by which previously independent and often disconnected reform initiatives might be conceived as part of a system designed to
benefit from past problems and result in improved education based perhaps on a set of common standards and common metrics to judge future success of education reform initiatives in Ghana. The researcher recognizes the need to disseminate this emergent model widely, analyze feedback, and revise the model accordingly. This emergent theoretical model when disseminated, vetted and subsequently implemented will improve Ghanaian education outcomes as well as achieve desired education goals for the country.

Figure 7 An emergent theoretical model for education reform in Ghana in the next decade, 2007 and beyond.
An analysis of the issues identified in Figure 7 indicated that many were areas identified by the Ministry of Education as strategic objectives essential to achieving desired education reforms goals in Ghana. These issues go beyond the purview of strategic objectives, because they go a long way to improve upon the 1987 and 1996 education reforms by addressing the shortcomings identified in the implementation of these reforms to ensure quality in the education system as an important part of education analysis in Ghana.

The construct of community in this graph is central to Ghanaian education reforms. In particular, it includes components related to ethnic diversity, social class, belief systems, gender, sexuality, and language choice. All of these aspects are closely linked to the ten geographical regions of the country.

Implications of the study

Implications of this study are grouped into three categories: curricular, teacher preparation, and future educational policies in Ghana.

a. In terms of curricular reform policies, the study suggested that:

1. educational reforms in Ghana must undertake major curriculum reforms aimed at responding to the needs of a culturally and linguistically diverse society

2. the educational reform effort should infuse the curriculum with multicultural content in both courses and field experiences for teachers. The curriculum reform should strive to rethink and
transform Ghana’s traditional curriculum that seems to be transmissive in nature to a transformative curriculum that meets the developmental needs of the Ghanaian society. The curriculum for teacher preparation might be an important starting point for curricular reforms.

b. In terms of teacher preparation, the study suggested that:

1. Teacher preparation programs undertake major curriculum reform aimed at responding to the needs of Ghana’s diverse and technologically advancing economy. The demographic realities of current the student population in Ghana, and given the projection that in fifty years, student population in Ghana’s classrooms will be more ethnically diverse, teacher preparation programs must, therefore, make a commitment towards infusing the curriculum with multicultural content because students’ backgrounds and prior experiences are an optimal place to focus teacher preparation.

2. There must be integration of multicultural concepts into Ghana’s teacher preparation programs. The effort must aim at harnessing multicultural resources at Ghana’s disposal, particularly in ways that impact important Ghanaian societal education goals.
3. professional development programs for teachers must integrate multicultural content in the curriculum. As part of the professional development programs, preservice teachers should be encouraged to take multicultural courses offered in general education programs. Instead of making general education courses optional, certain multicultural education courses should become required core courses for the attainment of a teacher education degree.

c. In terms of general educational policies, the study suggested that:

1. there must be a system for educational reforms in Ghana that permit all interested parties in the educational system be active members of the reform process. When the net is widened to involve many different stakeholders in Ghana’s education system, the educational reforms are more likely to be perceived as belonging to Ghanaian society and not to policymakers (i.e., politicians, bureaucrats, financiers, and even recognized institutions) alone. This approach to educational reform can lead to empowerment of the community. And in the case of Ghana, it can ensure that all parties have an opportunity to work towards a diversified and unified educational reform purpose focused on desired Ghanaian societal outcomes.
2. In formulating Ghana’s educational policies, attention must be paid to existing local conditions such as cultural, economic, geographical, and classroom realities as essential aspects in initiating, negotiating, and implementing educational reforms in Ghana. There also appears to be a need to consider factors that defined the ‘old education’ (i.e., long-standing education practices) in order to initially problematize them and then initiate education reforms that can recognize the desired changes and foster appropriate changes in the educational system Ghana.

The above implications suggest that in order for Ghana’s education system to achieve needed transformative goals in its educational reforms, procedures must include a change from the traditional top-down approaches to education reforms in the country and move towards a more interactive process that provides for a systematic two-way communication between policymakers and educators which includes classroom teachers in local communities; the latter are typically those who have an understanding of learner needs.

In summary, this study suggested that changes advocated as educational reforms must include not just theoretical but also practical aspects. Educational reforms in Ghana should reach beyond general policy-making to the level of impacting classroom practice. In so doing, education reforms must also focus on
the practical applications of educational policy and decision making for both school-level and classroom level practices where real learning occurs.

Key findings and conclusions

In every study, it is imperative that the researcher continually ask himself or herself, “So what?” As this researcher struggled to collect and analyze data, this question had been no less important to him than the research questions that framed and guided this study. The researcher identified three main research questions: (i) what are the emerging issues that characterized reform initiatives in Ghana’s educational programs between 1957 and 1996 (ii) did the reform initiatives address issues and concerns of multiculturalism and multilingualism in Ghana’s educational system? and, (iii) what factors seem to have shaped the present educational system in Ghana and transformed it to be more responsive to a pluralistic and technologically advancing society? In an effort to address these questions, the researcher examined a number of educational reform documents, preservice teacher preparation programs, and publications from stakeholders in education from both the U. S. and Ghana. Conclusions relating to the main research questions are summarized below.

1. What are the emerging issues that characterize reform initiatives in Ghana’s educational programs between 1975 and 1996?

The main research question addressed in this study was “What are the emerging issues that characterized reform initiatives in Ghana’s educational
programs between 1975 and 1996?" Data analyzed by the researcher revealed that the Ghanaian educational reforms articulated democratic and transformative goals in order to address the socio-economic realities of Ghana; however, the adoption of undemocratic procedures tended to result in dismal outcomes of the educational reform efforts. The lack of programmatic effort and assessments by policy makers tended to create gaps that resulted from the pervasive lack of coordination between education policy and education practice, particularly teacher preparation and classroom practice. The solution that this researcher suggests is the reconciliation of the problem by expanding the notion of democracy to involve the active role of all actors in the education reform process, with deliberate inclusion of classroom teachers and teacher preparation program administrators.

2. Did the reform initiatives address issues and concerns of multicultural and multilingualism in Ghana’s educational setting?

   Another key research question was “Did the reform initiatives address issues and concerns of multiculturalism and multilingualism in Ghana’s educational setting?” Data gathered and analyzed in this study provided insights into the importance of multicultural education in linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms such as those in Ghana. In addition to understanding how educational systems implemented multicultural issues, this study examined educational reform documents, as well as the influence that external stakeholders brought to bear on the education reform process. It was clear that while the goals of the educational
reforms in Ghana were designed to address the changing dynamics of the society and integrate multicultural content throughout the curriculum, observation data appear to suggest that this goal was not the typical practice in Ghana. In some instances, the education reform initiatives did not seem to address curriculum needs of students and communities. To ensure an overall change in educational reforms, the general education curriculum had to undergo modifications. In addition, the general education curriculum had to offer a plethora of courses emphasizing multicultural content. The final question addressed in this study was “What factors seem to have shaped the present educational system in Ghana and transformed it to be more responsive to a pluralistic and technologically advancing society?”

3. What factors seem to have shaped the present educational system in Ghana and transformed it to be more responsive to a pluralistic and technologically advancing society?

The 1987 education reforms in Ghana was designed to increase access to education for all students at all levels of the society, to improve quality of education, to diversify the curriculum by introducing technical and vocational subjects, and by shortening the duration of pre-tertiary education from 17 to 12 years for all pupils. These changes were designed to change an educational system that was perceived to be elitist, and downgraded technical, vocational and agricultural education. The characteristics of these new educational policy goals seemed to envision a curriculum that is broad in scope and integrative in approach.
Such a curriculum, on the basis of new specifications, requires that the designers, implementers and users acquire abilities that focus on comprehension, analysis, synthesis and application. The latter are recognizable as elements of the Bloom taxonomy. In implementing this type of education reform, the new education system would be established to reduce unemployment problems among junior secondary school drop-outs since “the essence of the new system was to prepare students who might not be able to go beyond the JSS level to be able to take gainful employment or proceed to technical schools” (Ghanaian Times, 1989, p. 3). However, in analyzing data from this study, the researcher observed that the proposed education reform initiatives in Ghana did not seem to address linguistic and cultural diversity in their education reforms. This situation occurs because English, English as a Second Language, and Foreign language Education, in the United States, for example, have been and are still separate sub-disciplines. As such, the sub-disciplines seem not to have been able to bridge the gap between native English speakers and non-native speakers of English. Even among native English speakers, similar gaps are evident in terms of dialect. When it comes to the English curriculum in schools, in both countries, the story is no different.

Mainstream English (from grades 7-12 in the U. S. and in Ghana the Junior and Senior Secondary schools) education in schools has typically focused on extending mainstream language and literacy skills, something assumed to be basic language skills much of which seem not to have been learned.
In conclusion, as the linguistic and cultural diversity of the school population increased in the last ten years in Ghana, one must begin to see implications of changing demographics in the classrooms as a problem that has literacy education ramifications. Ghana’s education reform initiatives need to include a curriculum to address these challenges. In addition, Ghanaian education reformers need to consider an alternate discourse in keeping with transformative systems worldwide. Integrating democratic principles (e.g., equal access to a quality education for all students) can foster an environment that ensures genuine participation by stakeholders in the education reform designs and procedures. This system, in effect, could transform Ghana’s education reforms into country-wide educational initiatives that allow both education policy and classroom practice as well as both ends and means to become equal priorities in the education reform process in a country where these dualities have not heretofore been implemented.

Recommendations for further research

This interpretive case study of Ghana’s education reform documents offered new perspectives on Ghana’s educational reform process in three key areas: curricular, teacher preparation, and future education policies for Ghana. By suggesting alternate discourse as an approach to Ghana’s educational reform process, this study included recommendations in multiple areas for continued inquiry into Ghana’s education reforms. The end result was an emergent model that should lead to new perspectives on Ghana’s education reforms in which education
policy and classroom practice combine to influence educational outcomes. The multiple areas for continued inquiry into Ghana’s education reform initiatives include the priority areas listed above:

1. Comparative Studies: Based on data, a comparative study could be designed for implementation in another developing country with similar socioeconomic and political history like that of Ghana. Following the same interpretive case study format as the present study, inquiries should be conducted to determine how education reform initiatives might be sustained after the political authority that initiated the particular education reform has left office. Such research will provide opportunities to teacher educators, stakeholders in education, and scholars from different parts of the world to uncover the unconscious forces that may be influencing the education system in Ghana even possibly other developing countries. Once a critical mass of data from different developing countries is available researchers can examine commonalities across borders and recommend a system needed in education reforms, perhaps based on a consortium of developing countries on the continent of Africa. Thus, based on such comparative studies such a collective effort from several countries might result in a regional approach to improving educational outcomes in Africa and other developing countries.
2. **Quantitative Research**: There is a continuing need for research to be conducted to determine the best ways to improve educational quality and the effectiveness of educational reform initiatives by using both qualitative and quantitative tools in investigating and measuring outcomes of educational reforms. In the present study, qualitative procedures were employed without the use of quantitative ones. The impact of Ghana's education reforms on the development of Ghana as a nation should be investigated using quantitative instruments to determine certain educational outcomes identified in the educational reform initiatives (e.g., literacy level). Such a study might include Ghana’s education policies, procedures and documents dating back to the first colonial efforts at introducing a formal education system in Ghana. This type of study might also be done to establish baseline quantitative data with the purpose of improving educational outcomes in Ghana.

3. **Teacher Preparation**: There is a need for a continuing research to determine the optimal combination of teacher training, teaching approaches, and strategies in order to achieve desired standards of education for both students and teachers in the education system. For example, a uniform set of K-12 student standards for English education could be linked to a related set of English teacher standards, thereby assuring coordination between the two. Such a study might influence the depth of knowledge of teachers and
4. their role in effecting educational outcomes in Ghana. The results of such an inquiry could enhance the principles of teacher preparation in Ghana’s education reforms with the aim of bolstering desired outcomes countrywide. Thus, teacher preparation programs in Ghana should explore the possibility of a reform in teacher training curriculum in order to develop a model that incorporates multicultural and multilingual contents in preservice teacher training programs with the aim of responding to the growing cultural and linguistic diversity in Ghana.

5. Program Evaluation: This study focused on Ghana’s education reforms from 1975 to 1996. A longitudinal study might be designed to test not only the findings of this study, but also the education reform initiatives over a period of time that provides additional information on changes that might have occurred between factors such as theory and practice, teacher preparation, student achievement, and the implementation of the educational initiatives throughout Ghana. Such a longitudinal study could determine the influence conditions of education reform initiatives have on the country’s socioeconomic and political conditions over a period of time. It could also identify the programs that need to be in place to effect a shift from a traditional transmissive education system to a transformative educational system.
6. Theory and Practice: Based on the review of data analyzed, this researcher joins Agbedor (1994) and Nwomonoth (1998) in expressing the need for continuing research to determine which languages should be used in the growing multicultural and multilingual classroom settings of Ghana. The study should investigate the relationships between theory and practice in Ghana’s education reform processes as well as the role of languages of communication in a developing country such as Ghana. Such a study could help engage the Ghanaian community in finding democratic ways in the reform process to move Ghana’s education system from being transmissive to being more transformative in order to address future issues in Ghana’s education system. Such a study should also identify problems associated with language choice in the education settings of Ghana, the provision of skill training facilities for needed languages, the crisis in tertiary education in meeting the needs of modernization, and the limited opportunities for post secondary education for professionals (e.g., teachers) in Ghana.

The above mentioned recommendations have indicated that as society enters the twenty-first century, some fundamental questions may persist, both in teacher education in Ghana as well as teaching in the Ghanaian classroom. These questions include a concern for public education in Ghanaian society. According to Berube (1994), in the long history of education the equity reform agenda did not address
the purposes of schooling but was instead interested in providing social and economic mobility for the poor. Excellence education reform, on the other hand, only strove to restore economic might. And so, it is only the progressive movement that sought to answer the question of what is the ultimate purpose of education, namely to develop the whole person—intellectual, social, artistic, and moral (p. 138). Even if Berube is correct, the objectives of education depend on the nature and purposes of society. And in the case of Ghana, it is to make the Ghanaian child, irrespective of gender, to be functionally literate and obtain gainful employment after school. However, the question is what kind of education reform is needed for Ghana? Until everyone is involved with education and teachers are prepared by training to teach students irrespective of their social, linguistic, or cultural backgrounds, the answer to the above question will be hard to answer because of cultural and linguistic diversity in Ghana’s classrooms as well as in society.

Limitations of the study

Like all studies, this research has limitations. First, the findings were limited to Ghana, a developing country in Sub-Saharan Africa. Since this study was a case study dealing with aspects of Ghana’s education system, the findings cannot be generalized to other developing countries in the world. However, this study might help contribute to a deeper understanding of the rationale for and importance of multicultural education reform in developing countries. It might also help
establish a research base for how such education can be implemented in teacher preparation programs as well as in the curriculum of schools in developing countries.

A study such as this could have benefited if a large number of Ghana’s education reform documents had been included that date far back to the years when formal education programs were first introduced into Ghana by its external colonial administrators. However, due to sources of original document constraints, these early reform documents did not make such coverage possible. As a result, the generalizability of the study is restricted to the specific context in which the study was conducted.

Another limitation to this study is related the availability of education reform documents from Ghana. Several of the education reform documents from Ghana analyzed in this study were full copies while several were excerpts and abridged versions of education reform documents presented at conferences by representatives of the Ghana government and education. This limitation occurred because until 1997, a majority of official documents in Ghana such as the education reform documents were produced on typewriters then labeled as “Top Secret” by the government; they were considered the bonafide properties of the government that initiated the reform. As such, it was difficult to access such documents as important primary sources.
Apart from the limited availability of some documents, there was also a problem with interconnectivity between the documents. The documents were not necessarily connected with one another; thus, each reform document initiated new and sometimes opposing ideas without reference to goals and outcomes from earlier education reform documents. In this sense, it was difficult to ascertain if the documents represented meaningful education reforms needed for the socio-economic and social development of the country. It was also difficult to identify parallels across the reform documents since each document was written at different times by different individuals with different priorities. In addition, this study was conducted by a single individual reader interpreting the selected education reform documents that were written by different people at different times for different purposes.

Finally, the number of the education reform documents analyzed in this study was not intended to be comprehensive. Instead, a single researcher conducted a literature review and subsequently selected the study’s education reform documents. The time selection of each source document was between 1975 and 1996. Further, the study was designed to yield findings that could be used for future research and also to identify directions for educational reform policy direction in Ghana.
Summary

This chapter has attempted to describe various ways of thinking about education in Ghana; and it was not an attempt to represent failures in Ghana’s educational reforms. The findings related to each research question have been described as study outcomes found by the researcher both as a teacher-educator and a concerned researcher from Ghana. Overall, the researcher found that Ghana’s education system and its educational reform process were complicated. One area that stood out in Ghana’s education reforms was the future of Junior Secondary School (JSS) innovations. Although the Dzobo Committee reported in 1974 that Ghana’s educational establishment needed overhauling, the proposed changes the committee outlined in the structure and content of primary and secondary education were not implemented, perhaps because of the difficult economic situation in Ghana during the mid-1970s.

Having completed this study, the researcher has now identified his own deeper understanding and desires about Ghana’s future educational reforms. This understanding can be seen in the conclusions and recommendations, especially as the researcher addressed the research question, “what factors seem to have shaped the present educational system in Ghana and transformed it to be more responsive to a pluralistic and technologically advancing society?” In answering this question, in particular, the researcher attempted to move beyond the role of that of a judge
influenced by the failures in Ghana’s educational reforms. Instead of judging these educational reforms, the researcher intends to use the present study as a point of departure to continue struggling with his own research with the lifelong objective of saving Ghana’s education system and its education reform initiatives from victory narratives for the country’s future or its children and adolescents, who will lead Ghana in the years to come. Clearly, these are roads to travel before we sleep, to paraphrase Robert Frost.

Finally, this researcher identifies himself with the importance of language as a factor determining educational outcomes. The importance of language is that it is a cultural bank in which people deposit their heritage, identity, history, customs and traditions, belief systems, who they are, and whom they want to be. Language is therefore, an indispensable right people have for themselves; to deny people their language and force them to identify with and name themselves in another person’s language is not only to rob them of their inalienable rights but also to deny them access to their cultural bank. This denial in the end not only impoverishes them, but also buries their soul, dreams, aspirations, and self-worth deep in perpetual poverty and social degradation. Any educational reform in the community must find a way of ensuring that the people’s language becomes the foundation for their socioeconomic development and political stability.
Epilogue

As Ghana celebrates the fiftieth anniversary of Independence from British colonial rule, on Tuesday March 6, 2007, it is appropriate for stakeholders in Ghana’s educational system to trace the history of state-organized education since the inception of western education in the country. Such a study will allow for the evaluation of both educational outcomes and the educational system. In addition, it will identify gaps and concerns that affect Ghana’s education system.

Granted the fact that education is one of the most essential tools for national development it becomes the responsibility of progressive governments to provide and promote educational policies as well as infrastructure that will help the people acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes that will enable them develop their potentials and contribute to national development. Though western education is hailed as providing skills essential to national development, it is equally important to delve into traditional education systems that existed before colonization. In precolonial Ghanaian community, the “school” was the home and community; and the “teachers” were the parents and elders in the community.

Largely, the “curriculum” was life experiences, and learning methodology was by social interaction and keen observation. In such a community, the goal of education was to inculcate and nurture good character, provide skills for the survival of the community. It also aimed at instilling good health and hygiene in the young members of the community. In addition, traditional education in Ghana
provided the Ghanaian child with adequate knowledge of his or her history, belief systems and culture, thus enabling the Ghanaian child to be functionally literate in his or her cultural milieu and participate fully in social life of not only the immediate community but also the world around them. From this perspective, precolonial education in Ghana was for national development. By emphasizing education in all national agenda for the year 2007 and beyond, the government creates opportunities for all individuals of the community to acquire literacy and skills needed to advance development in science and technology, social mobility and in the end, contribute their full potentials towards the achievement of educational outcomes in the future.

One major contribution of Western education in Africa is the creation of an African-educated elite, who uses education and the school system to perpetuate his or her western-oriented dominance by denying precolonial traditional knowledge which had promoted and protected the socio-political, cultural and economic gains of the community before colonization. Many of these educated elites in Africa make opportunities available to their own elite members through selective ordering, legitimization of certain language forms and learning processes in schools, and legitimization of certain elite codes and experiences to the exclusion of the histories, experiences, and worldviews of the indigenous African man and woman in the village.
The school system itself is a site for cultural and structural inequalities, disempowerment, sexism, domination, and hegemony. Through processes of adjustment programs initiated with foreign assistance, Africa have been disenfranchised and marginalized through inscriptive mechanisms of school systems resulting in the slow pace of Africa’s sociopolitical and economic initiatives. As Ghana moves into the future, stakeholders in Ghana’s educational system need recognize that the educational landscape of Ghana is widening and nowhere is the impact felt than in the Ghanaian classroom.

The diversity nature of the educational landscape needs teachers who must be transformative intellectuals. By becoming transformative intellectuals, they will employ the language of critique to challenge oppressive, social, political and economic inequalities in the society, analyze Eurocentric cultural productions that oppress and exploit the community.

Indeed, those who own the school, in one way or the other, own knowledge production; they own the future generation, the country, the economy, the religion, the politics, the culture, and the future of the country. A new Ghana needs teachers that will produce pedagogies that raise a student’s level of awareness and critical thinking to enable the student delve deep into the country’s histories, systems of meaning and learn about the structural and ideological forces that had shaped and affected the life of Ghana for so long. This kind of teachers can be available
when teacher education programs place emphasis on democratic and patriotic citizenship in teacher education preparation and ensure a curricula that balances the multiplicity of values within Ghanaian community whiles having an eye on already existing colonial and global structures and contents of educational outcomes.
APPENDICES
APPENDIX A: Language map of Ghana
APPENDIX B: Ghanaian Educational Structure Before the 1975 Reform
Source: The author’s conception of Ghana’s educational system before 1975
APPENDIX C: The Ghanaian Educational Structure Prescribed by the 1975 Reform
Source: The author’s conception of Ghana’s educational system by 1975
APPENDIX D: The Ghanaian Educational Structure between 1975 and 1987
Source: The author's conception of Ghana's educational structure between 1975 and 1987

213
APPENDIX E: Educational Structure Prescribed by the 1987 Reform

(The current Ghanaian educational structure)
Source: The author’s conception of Ghana’s educational structure prescribed in 1987
REFERENCES

AACTE. (1964). *AACTE 17th Year Book*, 1964


216


218


Clark, D. C. and Marker, G. “The Institutionalization of Teacher Education.” In *NSSE 74th Yearbook (Part II)* 1975


Commission on Teacher Education. *The Improvement of Teacher Education*. 1946

Cottrell, D. (1956). *Teacher Education for a Free People*. Oneonta: American Association for Colleges of Teacher Education


Cremin, L. A. *The Education of the Educating Profession* AACTE 1978 ERIC ED1148829

219


220


George, B. S. (1976). Education in Ghana. DHEW Publication No (OE) 75-19119


222


New Methods for Interpretive Researchers.” In *Theory and Research in Social Education*. Vol. 26, Number 1, 12-29


Ransom, J. (1941). *New Criticism.* Norfolk, Conn.: New Directions


230


231


Welty, E. (1956). “Place in Fiction.” In South Atlantic Quarterly, 55 January, 63-72


