Strengthening Higher Education Leadership in Africa

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Strengthening Higher Education Leadership in Africa

A Study of Ghana's Situation

John Gasu

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Preface

Higher education institutions in Africa, since the 1990s, have been operating within a context that is discernibly different from the preceding periods. The landscape for higher education, as it exists today, has been reconfigured by a conjuncture of mutually reinforcing factors that include globalisation, neoliberalism, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), privatisation and new public management system. This has led to the liberalisation of higher education landscape, in which private sector actors have become important players and the public ones corporatised. As a result, public and private higher education institutions have come to share commonality in their adoption of managerialism. The arrival of private sector providers and the infusion of capitalist culture into institutional governance have drawn much concern.

Prior to the current situation, public higher education governance in Africa was largely absolved from the stress of seeking alternative sources of funding as the state was supposed to take up that responsibility. The academia was also not distracted by moonlighting activities that has become so enervating on faculty. However, the downscaling of state funding for university education at the instance of the World Bank has generated new challenges for higher education leadership to deal with so as to sustain their institutions.

The concerns that have been raised centre around the fear that quality service could be guaranteed within a competitive liberalised higher education system. Another source of fear has been that commercialisation of teaching services, which has become the main source of income generation for the universities, would draw back research activities. Whether higher education leadership in Africa has the capacity to transcend these challenges to restore confidence in stakeholders by assuring quality service has remained a nagging question.

This study which uses the Ghanaian situation as a case study examines leadership in higher education. It addresses the governance situation in six universities namely, University of Ghana (Accra), Kwame Nkrumah University of Science

and Technology (Kumasi), University of Cape Coast (Cape Coast), University for Development Studies (Tamale), Valley View University (Accra) and the Catholic University College of Ghana (Fiapre, Sunyani). These institutions constitute a mix of four public universities and two private ones. It examined how the general African higher education governance situation has played out in Ghana's universities, with a view to examining whether the capacity of higher education leadership is adequate to the challenges of a competitive landscape. Aside from focusing on the specific mandates and objectives which each of the six institutions are set up for, the contingencies in which their operations had been embroiled are also looked at. Of particular significance to the study are the key issues of (a) finding out ways in which leadership structure in each of the universities meet the challenges of academic excellence; (b) to find out whether leadership capacities in the universities were adequate in ensuring high academic service delivery; and (c) an examination of the measures for building capacities of staff to enhance efficiency. The findings of each of the institutions are separately chapterised and then a separate chapter is provided for a comparative analysis between the institutions. Recommendations to remediate the challenges that are encountered, as provided by the stakeholders and the author are made for policy considerations.

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List of Abbreviations/Acronyms

AAU   Association of African Universities
ADEA   Association for the Development in Education
AfriQAN   African Quality Assurance Network
AQAPA   Academic Quality Assurance Planning Authority
AQAU   Academic Quality Assurance Unit
AUC   African Union Commission
BA   Bachelor of Arts
BSc   Bachelor of Science
CAMES   Conseil Africain et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Supérieur
CARCCO   Centre of Applied Research Consultancy and Community Outreach
CCEIR   Centre of Continuing Education and Interdisciplinary Research
CDWF   Colonial Development and Welfare Fund
CEO   Chief Executive Officer
CHEPS   Centre for Higher Education Policy Studies
CPP   Convention Peoples' Party
DAPQA   Directorate of Academic Planning and Quality Assurance
ENQA   European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education
FACS   Faculty of Agribusiness and Communication Sciences
FAS   Faculty of Applied Sciences
FCUBE   Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education'
FIDS   Faculty Integrated Development Studies
FMS   Faculty of Mathematical Sciences
FOA   Faculty of Agriculture
FPLM   Faculty of Planning and Land Management
 FRNR   Faculty of Renewable Natural Resources
GCBC   Ghana Catholic Bishops' Conference
IAS   Institute of African Studies
ICST   Information and Communication Sciences and Technology
IUC   Inter-University Commission

IDL	Institute of Distance Learning
IGF	Internally Generated Funds
IMC	Interim Management Committee
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JHEIA	Journal of Higher Education in Africa
KNUST	Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology
KSB	KNUST School of Business
MBA	Master of Business Administration
MPA	Master of Public Administration
MPhil	Master of Philosophy
NAB	National Accreditation Board
NABPTEX	National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations
NCBWA	National Congress of British West Africa
NCHE	National Council Higher Education
NCTE	National Council for Tertiary Education
NLC	National Liberation Council
NPM	New Public Management
NWG	National Working Group
OFY	Operation Feed Yourself
PHAS	Public Health and Allied Sciences
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PNDC	Provisional National Defence Council
QAAPU	Quality Assurance and Academic Planning Unit
QAP	Quality Assurance Programme
RCC	Regional Coordinating Council
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Programmes
SBL	School of Business and Law
SMHS	School of Medicine and Health Sciences
SoB	School of Business
STM	School of Theological Missions
TTFPP	Third Trimester Field Practical Program 158
UCC	University of Cape Coast
UCSE	University College of Science Education
UDS	University for Development Studies
UGBS	University of Ghana Business School
UIC	University Interim Council
UK	United Kingdom
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission of Africa

UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
URC	Universities Rationalisation Commission
UST	University of Science and Technology
VC	Vice-Chancellor
WDCs	Workers' Defence Committees
WGHE	Working Group on Higher Education

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SECTION I

Background and Theoretical Discourse

1

Introduction

Background

Issues concerning higher education and their mode of governance have, since the 1990s, come to occupy a privilege position in debates on education, and its relevance for development in many national contexts (Weinberg 2007; de Boer *et al.* 2007; Sawyerr 2004). To set out with clear parameters on concepts, we want to point out that 'higher education' is used in this text to represent academic institutions that are 'intellectually (the) most demanding stage of pre-career acknowledged education' (Teichler 2007:11). In some national contexts such as the United States, the concept 'higher education' is employed generically to refer to all forms of post-secondary or tertiary education; but in this discussion we would restrict the concept to only universities (Knight 2008; Gibbons 1998). Universities are, by definition, 'multidisciplinary institutions in charge of both teaching and research, (and) entitled to award advanced academic degrees notably the doctorate…' (Teichler 2007:15).[1] The National Accreditation Board (NAB) in Ghana defines university elaborately as an 'educational institution designed for advanced instruction and research in several branches of learning, conferring degrees in various faculties, and often embodying colleges, schools and similar institutions' (NAB 2013). Within institutional governance, systems like universities, leadership according to Kezar & Eckel (2004) is a 'collection of individuals that influences and shapes and creates change in a particular direction.' The leadership roles in universities are dispersed among various actors; as universities are polycentric in nature. These institutions, nevertheless, have an integrative organic structure from which their governance systems emerge. And in higher educational context where roles change frequently, it is safe to posit

that leadership in universities is not permanently lodged in the hands of a given set of individuals. The governance culture that was traditionally associated with universities was primarily established on a consensus building mechanism.

Not until the last decade of the 20th century, university governance was mostly influenced by the traditional understanding that higher education was a public good; with socially beneficial returns (Ochwa-Echell 2013; Mamdani 2008; Materu 2007; Sawyerr 2004). The governance cultures and the goals which institutional leadership pursued were couched to be in line with the public good philosophy. However, through the instrumentality of neoliberal ideology that now awash the African political economy, the philosophy of higher education as a public good is fading.

The new understanding that has emerged is a marked departure from the public good notion to a new conception that university education is a private good as any other commodity in the marketplace for potential consumers (Ochwa-Echell 2013; Lulat 2005). With a change in the philosophy that had driven higher education in the past, there has been a corresponding universal shift in the tenets that underpinned its governance; from the traditional collegial system to managerialism. It has become necessary for higher education leadership in Africa to realign their institutional goals to meet the commercial interests in public service delivery (de Boer *et al.* 2007; CHEPS 2006). The global drive to redefine the essence of higher education has sparked debates regarding whether leadership of African universities have the capacity to manage the consequences of managerialism in a competitive global context. The importance attached to this discourse, particularly in Africa, is understandable; as the traditional public higher education governance systems were established on the conception that these institutions were integral to the post-colonial development agenda. Hence, the services that these institutions provided were public goods in character. Apparently, such notions now collide with the emerging commercial ideas of the new public management (NPM) system.[2]

Transformations in the notions of public management and the corresponding governance systems that come with it have engendered splits within the academic community about how to run public universities. In consequence, the debate on public higher education governance has taken many turns. And the literature on this subject has become a growth industry to depict the ideological schisms that have emerged.[3] The sceptics about the NPM system are not particularly sure of the outcomes of managerialism on academic quality; and how that would affect the pivotal roles of teaching, research and general academic quality assurance within the higher education sphere. In fact, there are trepidations regarding

experimentations with governance systems that move away from the accustomed one, in which the state serves as the founder, funder and the setter of the mandate of universities.

The fear has been that such movements away from the familiar governance system could reduce the pedigree of higher education in Africa to being a mere 'teaching only' institutions and their contributions to national development through knowledge production could be compromised. The consequences of that for the continent that is already, the dawdler in development could be dire. Due to the tribulations of underdevelopment and bad governance at national levels, higher education in Africa has not been immune to the turbulence generated by these externalities. The change from the collegial systems to managerial arrangements has posed new forms of challenges to leadership of these institutions in meeting their mandates; as the universities take on a posture of capitalist corporate entrepreneur (Sawyerr 2004).

In the traditional governance arrangement, higher education leadership was largely absolved from the stress of finding alternative sources of funding for their institutions, as the state was supposed to deliver on its obligation. Nonetheless, the higher education landscape has since the last decade of the 20th century witnessed massive transformations, caused by such factors as globalisation, internationalisation, privatisation, state downscaling and managerialism (Wolhuter 2013; Altbach *et al.* 2009; Ahmad *et al.* 2007). These developments have had significant consequences on higher education governance, as there has emerged downscaling of state funding and a new demand on the leadership of public universities to corporatise their operations (Ahmad *et al.* 2007). The public universities are to make up for the shortfall in their funding from alternative sources, as the social contractual obligation on the state as the exclusive funder of public universities has changed. The liberalisation wave of the higher education sector has brought into being many private academic service providers from both in-country and offshore sources.[4]

The mainstream public universities have thence faced competition from offshore universities (mainly religious-based plus a few secular private universities) as well as from non-university centres of knowledge production and research (Atuahene 2014; Cobbah 2010; Manuh *et al.* 2007). Consequently, the leadership in public universities have singularly, or in concert, adopted different strategies to expand enrolment, generate additional funding and review curricula and modes of operation in an attempt to respond to these challenges (Cobbah 2010; Manuh *et al.* 2007). The changed context has also elicited new demands from stakeholders regarding the relevance of programmes and curricula for the university clientele. The traditional professional working environment and its associated academic ethics are thus crumbling, as commercialisation takes the centre position. The

capacity of higher education leadership to deal with the emerging challenges have been called into question as views are divided about whether the adoption of managerial tenets by public universities would not negatively impact quality of services and even the orientation of academic staff.

The debate about the role and the future of higher education within a commercialised setting has drawn much attention, and the literature on this subject has become a growth industry that depicts the ideological cleavages that have emerged.[5] The sceptics about the NPM system, which advocate for the corporatisation of public universities, are not particularly sure of the outcomes of managerialism on academic quality; and how that affects the fundamental roles of teaching, research and academic quality assurance. In fact, there are trepidations regarding experimentation with governance systems that are at variance with the accustomed one, in which the state funds academic services. The argument is that within the African context, there is the need for the state to remain; to provide the necessary support for higher education. The state's financial support is required in ensuring egality of access and in creating the atmosphere for academics to concentrate on their core responsibilities. This would then enable African universities to pursue programmes and research activities that will help position the continent well into the global knowledge economy. The expected role of the African university is thus captured by Akilagpa Sawyerr (2004):

> The principal contribution of a university to society turns on the quality of knowledge it generates and imparts; the habit of critical thoughts and problem solving it institutionalises and inculcates in its graduates…

The lessons of economic breakthroughs, made by natural resource underprovided countries like Japan, Taiwan and South Korea, among others, have pointed to the rest of the world that the greatest economic asset of a country is the quality of its human resources; and not necessarily the lavishness of nature. The paradoxical situation in Africa, whereby in the midst of nature's abundance, the people languish in poverty and underdevelopment, has brought home the recognition of the need to quicken the pace for the establishment of higher education with the requisite leadership capacities. So, even before the attainment of independence, the nationalist leaders made the lack of universities on the continent a political grievance in their anti-colonial mobilisation and struggle (Teferra 2008; Lulat 2005; Okafor 1971). The lack of universities on the continent, therefore, became a political subject around which the anti-colonial struggles were waged.

In the otiose effort to stall the conjuncture of forces that began to corrode the legitimacy of colonial rule, the establishment of university colleges became

part of the give-ins by the colonists to placate the agitated nationalist leaders. In British colonial Africa, university colleges were, for instance, established in Accra (Ghana), Ibadan (Nigeria) and Makerere (Uganda) to meet both national and regional aspirations for higher education (Lulat 2005; Agbodeka 1998). The demands for the establishment of universities in British colonial Africa, however, had a longer genealogy, which stretches back to the last quarter of the 19th century (Atuahene 2014; Lulat 2005).[6] The university colleges which were established in the last decade before independence were placed under the tutelage of the University of London. The governance of the colonial university colleges were placed under the Inter-University Commission (IUC) that consisted of the universities in Britain.[7] These were done, ostensibly, for the transmission of the metropolitan collegial philosophies; and the traditional Oxbridge culture of quality assurance (Agbodeka 1998). From their origins in the late 1940s, the establishment of public universities became part of the prestige symbols for meeting national aspirations (Mamdani 2008; Adesina 2006; Hoffman 1996). The project of establishing national universities was seen as being apposite for the training of the critical human resources that were required for meeting the aspirations of the newly independent African states (Materu 2007; Lulat 2005; Sawyerr 2004).

This was the era wherein African universities, and their products, were essentially conceived as being socially beneficial in dealing with the development challenges of the continent; given the dearth of skills available in Africa (Adesina 2006; Ajayi *et al.* 1996). The exigencies of the time and the reality check of the African situation demanded that the state took the responsibility for the establishment and funding of the universities (Agbodeka 1998; Ajayi *et al.* 1996). The role assumed by the state was in consonance with the orthodoxy of state-centric political economy of the immediate postcolonial period that lasted until the late 1970s (Gasu 2011a). This created a socioeconomic paradigm in which higher education governance fitted into.

These institutions, like the many other types of the establishment that had colonial roots, were set up with philosophies that were exogenous to the African situation.[8] In this regard, liberal metropolitan epistemic structures became the baseline for higher education governance and leadership culture; for the newly established university colleges. The college status of the newly established African universities to the metropolitan ones, were primarily meant to be the mentoring stage for ensuring that these new African institutions became the umbilical cords for imbibing the liberal tenets of the prevailing collegial governance cultures (Materu 2007). The faculty and leadership of the universities were essentially

manned by European expatriates, as the paucity of expertise among indigenous Africans, at the time, created the space for the foreign control.

As the African states bore the dual responsibilities of not only establishing the universities but also funding them, the role of the state in complementing faculty for the maintenance of standards in academic service delivery became paramount. This was to be delivered through the provision of infrastructure and logistics. But in the emerging African situation, the role of the state in the promotion of high academic standards went beyond the provision of only the tangibles. Globally, the success of universities in meeting standards is also hinged onto the intangible governance culture of guaranteeing institutional autonomy (CHEPS 2006). Institutional autonomy refers to the tripartite elements of: (a) autonomy as an academic freedom of individual academics in the sense that they can research the topics they decide on without interference from the state or any other institution; (b) autonomy of the collegial bodies which can govern the academic life of the university without interference from the state or any other organisation; (c) the institutional autonomy to govern not only academic but also administrative and financial matters (Pechar 2003).

This could only be realised if the relationship between the principal actors in this process, namely the state and faculty, were clearly defined to allow the academia the freedom, and environment to operate and to express views without recrimination. This was meant to enable the academia to have the needed ambience to engage effectively in critical thinking, and the search required for breaking the bounds of existing knowledge. This notion was, of course, based on the tacit assumption that the public spheres in these polities were themselves liberal and expansive enough to tolerate divergent views. This was a liberal metropolitan principle, which required the granting of autonomy and immunity for the practitioners in the academic environment to freely express views based on research and expert knowledge. This principle was also made an integral part of the higher education systems in Africa. This was instituted to forestall the stultification of critical thinking and the emergence of a culture of silence that was often associated with the ethos of patrimonial supplication, which is found in many an African social context (Gasu 2010). These liberal principles were largely adhered to during the colonial period, as European dominance in leadership left very little recourse for manipulation (Wiseman & Wolhuter 2013).

Even though the African universities made substantial efforts during the period to domesticate some of their courses, they were not done by sacrificing standards (Agbodeka 1998; Ajayi & Tamuno 1972). It is in this respect that within the first decade of independence such African higher education institutions as Makerere

University in Uganda, University of Dar Es Salaam in Tanzania, University of Ibadan in Nigeria and University of Ghana, Legon, became world known institutions of academic excellence (Adesina 2006; Sawyerr 2004).

There was a displayed tenacity to maintain the respectable standards that were associated with the African universities during this period, as the key stakeholders strived to make higher education relevant to the continent's development needs (Manuh *et al.* 2007). This was evidenced at the 1962 'Tananarive Conference on Higher Education in Africa' which was organised by the government of the Republic of Malagasy (Madagascar), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), and the United Nations Economic Commission of Africa (UNECA). The resolution at the conference was to commit universities in Africa to the mission of championing the development of the continent and this was to birth the notion of 'developmental university' in Africa. The effort was to boost what Vught (1997) describes as the extrinsic and intrinsic qualities of universities. He indicated that 'the extrinsic qualities refer to the capacities of higher education institutions to respond to the changing needs of the societies of which they are a part (Vught 1997:80). The intrinsic qualities of higher education refer to the basic values and ideals, which form the very heart of higher education: the unfettered search for truth and the disinterested pursuit of knowledge (Vught 1997:81). Intrinsic quality is the linchpin to the traditional notion of academic quality. It focuses on knowledge production and student learning processes. Even though many academics today will agree that quality in higher education covers more than this, intrinsic quality represents the core of academic quality. The academic community can be seen as guardians of intrinsic quality (Giertz 2001).

Extrinsic quality concerns the demands that society directs towards higher education. These demands will change with societal dynamics but as long as higher education is part of society, they will always exist in some form. It could be argued as to whether extrinsic quality should refer to the market or to the state. But the view is that both the market and the state could be seen as representing society. The market is seen as representing extrinsic quality, since qualified labour is an important part of what society wants from higher education and because, today, the state is using the quality human resources to promote purely political purposes (Giertz 2001). The pursuit of intrinsic and extrinsic quality of African universities was done to make higher education relevant through research knowledge that would promote the development agenda of bridging the social and economic gap between Africa and the industrially developed world.

The state managers, at the time, were quite steadfast in their commitment to the funding and the provision of essential services, including municipal ones, for

the universities to function well. But the collaboration between the state managers and university leadership was short-lived. A combination of factors that included a lack of democratic culture, inexperienced public servants and interference from politicians that were eager to control the public space, created the context in which higher education governance and leadership operated (Wiseman & Wolhuter 2013). The eagerness to control the public space was in itself at variance with the low administrative and economic capacity of the state (Fukuyama 2004; cf. Diamond 1988). The relationship between the state and leadership of higher education in the emerging political and economic circumstances became dotted with frictions and rivalries (Sawyerr 1994). The state control agenda was often veiled by such refrains as domestication of courses, indigenisation of staffs and realignment of university programmes to the national development goals. However, it is difficult to dismiss that power play was the driving factor in the unhealthy developments that defined the internal struggles of the period (Assie-Lumumba 2006; Girdwood 1999).

As indicated, the first generation African universities were established by the state; and like many other public sector organisations, they were run to fall in line with the programmes of the state managers. In the specific case of higher education, the leadership was largely entrusted to the academic class. The state, however, exercised some superintendence; as was for instance done through appointments to the university governing councils and due to the prestige associated with the position of chancellorship, the position was entrusted to Heads of State. The concentration of power in the state was largely meant to be in tandem with the colonial mono-cephalous power grid. The embryonic postcolonial African state, during this era, epitomised massive centralising tendencies (Boone 2003; Diamond 1988; Bates 1983). This was obviously an endeavour to have control over competing sources of power, which perhaps the university constituency had become, given the prestige and the knowledge power at their disposal (Olowu 1997).

The successful operation of public institutions of higher education, just like other state organisations, depended on a number of factors that include: macroeconomic factors, political governance system, and the dominant global ideology (Girdwood 1999). One persistent character about African economies has been their unreformed nature since the colonial period (Onimode, 1988; Ake 1981). African economies continue to engage with the rest of the world in primary commodities. The fortunes of these commodities are often linked to the vicissitudes that characterise the primary commodity market (Gasu 2011b). The boom that characterised the commodity market in the immediate post-World War II period, to the end of the 1960s, produced positive multipliers for the national

development efforts; and thereby enabled a reasonable room for the funding of higher education in Africa (Gasu 2011b).

The bust that subsequently occurred in the commodity market, which became a nightmarish commonplace in the mid-1970s, produced uncomfortable knock-on effects across the continent (Adesina 2006). This situation was aggravated by the shocks that quadrupled crude oil prices. It invariably caused maladies for the primary commodity producing economies. Consequently, the 1970s largely became a catastrophic decade for Africa; especially as widespread hunger and famine ravaged the continent in this period as well. By the beginning of the 1980s, many African economies including that of Ghana, were unmistakably exhibiting textbook symptoms of failure.[9] These developments emanated from the contraction of the various national fiscus. African states came under heavy debt burdens, which were brought about by heavy borrowing to meet its postcolonial social obligations; including the provision of a well-funded higher education (Adesina 2007; Mkandawire 2005; Hutchful 2002). The effects of the diminished capacity of the states to meet such social contractual obligations were most felt in the running of the universities.

The dwindling economic capacity of the states subsequently generated a plethora of challenges for higher education leadership around the continent (Sawyerr 1994). And as funds dried up, the basic infrastructures of these institutions fell into disrepair (Hutchful 2002; Gyimah-Boadi 1998). It therefore became a terrifying experience for leadership of these institutions to maintain academic quality. Certainly, this marked a period of frustration and non-fulfilment within the academic community. The evidence of this was shown in mass voting out by faculty, as well as the other forms of high level expertise for greener pastures (Manuh *et al.* 2007; Girdwood 1999; Gyimah-Boadi 1998; Sawyerr 1994). Invariably, the economic challenges of the time also undermined the learning environment in which students were; as libraries for instance became nothing more than museum pieces of antiquated reading materials (URC 1988). Thus, in the circumstances, universities in Africa had palpably lost their quintessence; and to import the descriptive words of the minority report of the Elliot Commission of 1945, they were reduced to sheer 'continuation schools' (United Kingdom 1945a:144).

The economic crisis that had engulfed the continent, of which the falling fortunes of the universities were a by-product, called for a forensic diagnosis, and comprehensive therapy to cure the bleak situation. This was what was supposed to be provided by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank, when African leaders marched to their offices for financial bailouts. The solutions to the economic malaise, in the form of loans, came but these were accompanied by

unusual bang effects on the continent's socioeconomic formations. The loans that were granted were now predicated on the implementation of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs). The SAPs were anchored on economic liberalisation and the promotion of capitalist ethics. At the policy level, it required the removal of all distortions to the operationalisation of the market system (Ochwa-Echell 2013; Bangura & Gibbon 1992).

The nub issue in this new scheme of socioeconomic conception was the notion of 'small state' and 'bigger market' (CHEP 2008). Among other things, this entailed the removal of subsidies and other related distortions, for an unfettered operation of the market. The old public administration system was criticised for being the cause of the poor performance of the state and in the 1980s it became target for reforms under the rubric 'public sector reform.' The purpose was to retune the public sector to adapt the new governance philosophy of 'small state' and 'bigger market' (World Bank 2008; Maassen 2003; Gruening 2001). The 1990s witnessed the scaling up of these reforms to New Public Management (NPM) that embraced such neoliberal criteria as: accountability, transparency, efficiency and profitability (Politt 1993; Hood 1991). But these neoliberal prescriptions for public administration ran into conflict with the extensionist state welfare ideology of the immediate postcolonial era. This contradiction thereby triggered a wave of restiveness across the continent.[10]

In the emerging neoliberal environment, the state was made to bear the indictments for all the wrongs that had afflicted the continent. This was the case, mainly because the doubters were sufficiently armed with evidences of failure, to lambast the African countries for carrying responsibilities that were in excess of what could sustain them (Gibbons & Bangura 1992). In consequence, the state-centric and social welfarist ideological stance was to be discontinued. The market order thereon was to be nurtured to acquire institutional maturity (Beckman 1992). Notwithstanding an initial resistance that accompanied the paradigmatic shift, it became obvious that Africa constituted the weakest link to undo the neoliberal imperative. Hence they were impelled to put in place measures that retuned their domestic policies and institutions to fit into the new orthodoxy. Africa states, thence, had to undergo massive pupilage, which was provided by imported 'experts' to groom and to institutionalise neoliberal policy formulation, planning and implementation.

Since then, there has been a vivacious debate among African scholars and state managers as to whether to uphold the old top-down public administration practices or to replace it with a bottom-up system. The debate has brought into its ambit, discussions on all fronts of public service delivery systems that include

utility service delivery, education, local government and health care. This issue gained prominence because the liberalisation and competitive drives opened the channels for consumer interests to be inputted into matters that affect them. These matters cover many of the services that the state was providing without recourse. The services that the state provided were inspired by attitudes of paternalism. In such circumstances, the consumer interests were easily ignored. This was what the NPM system was meant to address, among other things, by discarding inefficiency and in ensuring value for money in public service.

The education sector in particular came under a close scrutiny. The sector had been conceived as a haemorrhage on national coffers and yet was inundated with mediocrity. To deal with the problems that the education sector posed to the economic health of their respective countries, the World Bank sponsored a host of educational reform programmes. These were efforts that involved a wholesale re-examination of educational policies across the continent; and to redefine the role the state was to continue playing in the scheme of things (Wolhuter & Wiseman 2013). As should be expected, economism was the denominator that was meant to bring efficiency through cost-recovery measures. The dictates for economistic rate of returns undergirded the policy directions to place premium on basic education, which did not require heavy capital investment. In the case of Ghana, the reforms abridged pre-university education from 17 years to 12 years (Hutchful 2002). The reform programmes indeed enhanced enrolment at the basic levels; but this was to unleash drubbing effects on downstream educational institutions (Sawyerr 2004).

The de-prioritisation of higher education in the World Bank's scheme of things in Africa, at the time, led to a lack of the Bank's support for infrastructural development in the universities. This was the case, irrespective of the fact that large student numbers were being rolled out from the secondary schools. The anaemic conditions in the lecture halls, seminar rooms and at the students' residential facilities had begun to create problems for leadership of the universities to deal with. The emerging situation became an unfamiliar terrain for many to tackle, especially as the government, which is the key stakeholder, was eager to downscale its responsibilities (Girdwood 1999).

Again in the case of Ghana, the Universities Rationalisation Committee (URC) which was set up by the government in 1986 to investigate into the challenges that confronted the tertiary educational sector made a number of recommendations aimed at introducing liberalisation, cost-sharing and cost recovery into the governance system of higher education (URC 1988). The implementation of the URC report was done through the government's White Paper *Reforms of the Tertiary Education System*. The report was to give a gradual

lease that was to eventuate in the privatisation and commercialisation of many services that universities were providing (URC 1988). Consequently, fees were introduced in the 1988/89 academic year. The introduction of fee paying in the public universities, in the absence of scholarship support schemes for distressed students, created problems for the vulnerable. This pitted the rich against the poor within the higher education space; as lumpen subculture became pronounced among the struggling students in the university community.

The liberalisation of higher education also made it possible for private providers to now operate within this sector. The participation of the private sector in the educational sector was consummated in Article 25(2) of the 1992 constitution, which spells out that …

> [E]very person shall have the right, at his own expense, to establish and maintain a private school or schools at all levels and of such categories and in accordance with such conditions as may be provided by law.

These developments definitely broke the monopoly that the state had in providing higher education, and thereon private participation at this level of education became institutionalised.

The private providers were buoyed by the potential market that the large number of applicants for higher education had created. This was especially the case as the public institutions could only admit a fraction of the qualified applicants. Since the early 1990s, a large number of private tertiary institutions have sprung up in the country to take advantage of the situation. And once the terrain was no longer hostile to private sector participation, as evinced by an assured clientele to pay for such services, the commercialisation culture became largely accepted.

The ability of the private tertiary institutions to successfully commoditise higher education has demonstrated to the public ones that they could also follow the same track. This has resulted to an undeclared tussle in the higher education space, between the public and private providers as to how to deploy commercial instruments in mobilising funds for their respective institutions. The shift towards commercialisation essentially meant an injection of a new set of attitudes and conceptions about higher education governance and the corresponding leadership styles to deal with the situation.

To deal with the expected challenges, which the liberalised landscape has portended, statutory regulatory and quality assurance bodies have been set up across Africa to address the concerns that are being raised. The disquiet about whether the liberalised higher education sector can provide the standards that can meet the development needs of the continent calls for the strengthening

of leadership capacities to enable them rise to the occasion. This demands that leadership of higher education institutions should be able to adjust their internal governance structures to produce the results that the external environment places on them. Herein, lies the crux of the matter as to whether higher education leadership in Africa has the capacity to march up with global players in the field of managerialism.

The Issues Being Addressed

The book is divided into five sections. Section 1 discusses the context and the general challenges that higher education leadership currently face in Africa. This is done in the wake of the shifts in the conception of the nature of services provided by higher education. The shifts are essentially the byproducts of the neoliberal revolution that has undercut the prior notions of the state's responsibility towards higher education. The prior notions of higher education as a public good and its graduates as being a social good, has been questioned by the apostles of neoliberalism. The collegial governance culture in public universities is subsequently receding as corporate managerialism is establishing grounds across board. The implications of the managerial culture on academic service delivery have thus become a matter of concern in Africa. The debate is alive because Africa is deemed not to have the luxury of experimenting with unfamiliar governance cultures.

The liberalisation and commercialisation experience has thrown up new challenges to higher education leadership in Africa. How this situation bodes for the role of higher education in the national development agenda cannot be ignored. The liberalisation wave is being pushed further around the carousel of globalisation and internationalisation of higher education. This has raised many other questions as to whether the national agendas for higher education in Africa are not being hijacked by the very forces that have caused its underdevelopment. The matter of quality assurance in higher education and the various institutional efforts dealing with such concerns are also examined.

Thus in section 1 the focus is on the theoretical positions that undergird the discourse. This is important as it touches on the core concerns and the context of the challenges that currently confront higher education leadership in Africa. The issues and the corresponding discourse are found in chapter 1.

Section 2 deals with the measures that are being taken to assure quality in higher education in Africa. The transnational approaches toward quality assurance in Africa, as well as Ghana's specific endeavours in this direction, are discussed in this section. While in chapter 2 the focus is on the transnational efforts for quality

assurance in Africa, in chapter 3, the attention is on the statutory bodies in Ghana that are assigned the roles of superintending tertiary institutions and in assuring quality service in Ghanaian universities.

Sections 3 and 4 of the book respectively examine public and private institutions of higher education in Ghana. The sections address how the challenges to leadership of higher education, as discussed within the Africa context play out in the Ghanaian situation. To address the issues that are problematised, six universities are chosen for the study in both the public and private sectors. The choice of these institutions is influenced by their respective mandates, geographical location and ownership (founding authority). The public universities chosen for the study are: University of Ghana in Accra; Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology in Kumasi; University of Cape Coast; and the University for Development Studies in Tamale. Two private universities – the Valley View University in Accra and the Catholic University College of Ghana in Sunyani are also chosen for the study. In these specific institutional situations, which are covered in chapters 4-9, we seek to examine such matters as:

a. In what ways do higher education leadership structures meet the challenges for academic excellence?

b. Are leadership capacities within the higher education institutions adequate in ensuring high academic service delivery?

c. What measures are there to build the capacities of staff to enhance efficiency?

Section 5 of the book places the public and private universities in a comparative perspective. This is done in chapter 10. Chapter 11 draws conclusions from the study; and also makes policy recommendations for remedying the identified deficiencies.

SECTION II

Institutional Frameworks for Quality Assurance in Higher Education in Africa

2

Quality Assurance in Africa's Higher Education

In establishing the colonial university colleges in Africa, steps were taken to institutionalise standards that could make these institutions comparable in quality to the metropolitan universities. The principal instrument for achieving this was through the placement of the African university colleges under the mentorship of metropolitan universities in the United Kingdom, France, and Portugal (Materu 2007; Lulat 2005). With these affiliations, the African higher education institutions inevitably became part of the British, French, Portuguese or the other systems for quality guarantees through their partner universities. The Cheikh Anta Diop University (formerly the University of Dakar) in Senegal was, for instance, regarded as an integral part of the French higher education system up to as late as the 1960s; much the same way as the University of Makerere, University of Ibadan and the University of Ghana were considered integral parts of the British higher education system (Materu 2007). The leadership of these university colleges was largely controlled by expatriate staffs who served as the conduits for transmitting the ethics required for quality assurance. And the ultimate authority for the delivery of quality in university education in those early days was vested in their faculty and the governing boards.

These institutions were subjected to the same kinds of traditional quality control mechanisms as were the British or other European universities, including assessment by external examiners and other aspects of quality control systems (Yankson 2013; Materu 2007; Manuh *et al.* 2007). Over time, some of the first generation institutions, such as the University of Cape Town, assumed the role of mentoring institutions for the younger ones in South Africa; and the University of Ghana in Accra became the parenting institution for the University College of Cape Coast. In all instances, the tradition remained that quality assurance was largely within the domain of faculty and the governance bodies of the universities. Even

as indigenisation processes were underway, they were not done at the expense of quality assurance. While the expatriate managers of the colonial higher education projects bequeathed to their African successors cultures that promoted academic freedom and the maintenance of standards, it became tedious for the African leadership to safeguard those tenets within the political environments that drifted away from liberal values to state regulation in the immediate post-independence period (Wolhuter 2013).

Political independence in Africa was interpreted by political office holders as being the time to assertively determine the agenda for university leadership (Mamdani 2008). Subsequently, state departments and ministries of education took great interest in university programmes and exerted massive control over their goal setting and in governance (Materu 2007; Agbodeka 1998). However, such interventions were not always done to guarantee standards that universities, world over strive to maintain (Mamdani 2008). Indeed, in many cases, the intervention of the state in the affairs of university education contributed to a decline in the quality of academic service (Materu 2007; Adesina 2006). Some of these interventions by governments were as indiscreet as the determination of faculty appointments, promotions and occupancy of management positions (Materu 2007; Agbodeka 1998). Circumstances of that sort tended to be detrimental to the promotion of intellectual enterprise (Collins 2013; Agbodeka 1998; Hagan 1994). As political manipulation from African governments became a commonplace in the immediate post-independence years, the tenacity of faculty to hold its own against governments in protecting the space for academic freedom and standards suffered setbacks (Hagan 1994).

The deteriorating circumstances in the African universities were aggravated further by the conjoined factors of economic malaise and bad governance, which soon became the definition of the African situation (Collins 2013; Adesina 2006). It was within such abysmal contexts, which persisted up to the mid-1980 that made the World Bank to audaciously make the unpleasant suggestion to Africa to farm out its higher education. To be true, this suggestion was to affirm the failure of African states and higher education leadership, the nadir that standards had sunk. What was to be done to elevate these universities out of their poor situations, in a sense, could be described as the beginnings of quality reassurance.

The liberalisation of the higher education space for the participation of private providers and the commercialisation of the public universities that were implemented in the 1990s were done to deal to with the mediocrity that had engulfed the sector. But the policy shift to managerialism has not passed without anxieties. These solutions have evoked new fears about whether quality could not fall even further

within the framework of market ethics (Adesina 2006). It is in this sense that we would appreciate the rejuvenation of the debate on quality and the apprehensions that have been raised about the nature of higher education and their governance in Africa since the 1990s (Materu 2007; World Bank 2002).

The matter that relates to the implications of the liberalisation of the higher education sector, and the associated concerns of massification, commercialisation, internationalisation and globalisation, is in fact different ways of querying whether intellectual standards are being sacrificed on the altar of marketisation. To be certain, the debate about whether or not higher education in the current circumstances can continue to be the standard bearer in knowledge production and transmission industry is a global one (ENQA 2005; Giertz 2000; Harvey 1999, Barnett 1992). The global response has been a trend towards the establishment of transnational, national and institution-specific bodies to superintend higher education for the maintenance of standards in the competitive global environment (Materu 2007; ENQA 2005). The imperative to embark on this path is a compelling one for Africa, if the continent would be abreast with the rest of the world in the knowledge driven comity of nations (Yankson 2013). The infiltration of higher education with NPM ethics, demands of academic service providers to take into consideration the concerns of stakeholders in defining and determining the parameters of quality service. This is the case because quality issues in higher education have become part of the accountability process to the stakeholders in these institutions. This thus removes the issues of quality determination from being an exclusive preserve of universities and their leadership. And in line with private-for-profit corporate dictum 'the consumer matters' in the determination of quality, even for public universities in the contemporary NPM environment.

Whereas, there has been much concern about quality assurance within higher education and even outside it, there appears to be no universal agreement in the literature, on what precisely constitutes *quality* (SAUVA 2002; Giertz 2000; Cameron & Whetten 1993). As a concept, 'quality' has been variously recognised to mean 'fitness for purpose' (Ball 1985); 'transformation from one state to another with value-added' (Harvey & Newton 2007; Harvey & Knight 1996); 'attainment of a flawless product' (Watty 2003) 'excellence' or the 'attainment of exceptionally high standards' (Harvey 1999) among others. The varying perceptions of what constitutes quality in higher education may in fact be a reflection of the diverse conceptions of the missions of higher education and how they are to be satisfied (Materu 2007; Harvey 1999; Barnett 1992).

In the contemporary situation where state controlled models of higher education are giving way to liberalised systems, the trend is for the emergence of

independent state and/or transnational superintending organisations to examine the outputs of higher education institutions (Vught 1989). The supervisory role of independent parastatal or transnational institutions is of much interest to all stakeholders, as a way of ensuring that some baseline criteria in calibrating quality within national setting or in a sub-region are put in place. This trend is in consonance with the emerging philosophy of institutional accountability; and the development of social metrics for an evaluative state (Materu 2007; Neave 1988). Because of the interest of all stakeholders in the quality of higher education, such matters have also become a political question (Brennan 1997; Barnett 1992; cf. Ball 1985). Quality matters in contemporary circumstances are neither the sole preserve of specific higher education institutions nor are they cases reducible to a binary deliberation between the state and the academic community.

Quality in higher education now goes beyond the preferences of the leadership of individual institutions and the choices of state managers. The compelling case of NPM demands that industry and students should become important stakeholders in the higher education quality assurance matrix (Materu 2007; Harvey 1999). It is in this regard that we would appreciate that the multivariate nature of the factors for defining quality must take into account the expectations of all the stakeholders. Invariably, the multiple interests from the stakeholders are but different conceptions of the mission of higher education. In the evolving situation, thus, quality assurance is to be arrived at through negotiation between the requirements of the major stakeholders (Vroeijentstijn 1999). Of course, it is important to recognise that universities have their specific mandates; the essence of which is encapsulated in the vision and mission statements of the institutions. The mandate and the vision of institutions essentially provide the ideological pathway within which universities operate and upon which quality issues can be addressed.

Hence to validate the different conceptions of quality in higher education, there is the need to appreciate the ideological context within which the concept is formulated (Elliot 1993). It is worth noting that in higher education governance, quality assurance is achieved through planned and systematic review of the processes of institutions and their programmes to determine that acceptable standards of education, scholarship, teaching, administration and infrastructure are being maintained and/or enhanced (Giertz 2001). But as has been pointed out by Lee Harvey (1999) the bottom line of quality assurance of such endeavours in higher education rests with the element of employability of their products; and their ability to perform in industry. Whereas universities continue to pride themselves as the industries for intellectualism, the new global reality is embedded in the

question regarding the quintessence of the knowledge to its bearers in terms of livelihood. Certainly, higher education institutions transform students to enhance their knowledge, skills, attitudes and abilities while simultaneously empowering them to become lifelong critical effective learners. However, given the stakes in NPM, it is becoming increasingly difficult to sell this idea to African students that the essence of their training is to transform them into critical thinkers. The reality of the elements of fee paying for programmes, limited space for public sector employment, and the uncomfortable prospects of joining the ranks of the unemployed have evoked the rational question about the livelihood prospects of programmes students pursue in the university.

The concerns of industry about the employability of graduates and their level of preparedness for jobs are also variables that emanate from stakeholders in determining quality service delivery in the universities. The importance of these benchmarks in quality determination, deals with the critical issues of the relevance and the fitness of knowledge acquired in universities for development in Africa. The responses to these concerns have been shown in the numerous efforts to revitalise higher education in Africa through the institutionalisation of the mechanisms for quality assurance (Yankson 2013; Shabani 2013; Materu 2007; AAU 2000).

To be able to understand the discussions on institutional efforts for quality assurance in higher education, we need a structure that defines the variables that are acceptable to all the stakeholders. In Africa, we find a number of institutional arrangements that are designed for ensuring that higher education institutions provide quality services. Three main institutional designs are found on the continent to provide services related to quality assurance. These are: (a) transnational bodies; (b) statutory national bodies and (c) higher education specific institutions. In this section of the book, we would limit our discussion of the institutional framework of quality assurance to transnational efforts.

Francophone Africa provides us with a good example of transnational body for quality assurance. The African and Malagasy Council for Higher Education (CAMES)[11] was established in 1968 to, among other things, harmonise recognition and equivalence of awards among member countries.[12] Today, the CAMES is also responsible for accrediting private universities and some select professional programmes in the member countries (Shabani 2013; Materu 2007).

The Association of African Universities (AAU), a pan-African body for higher education was founded in November 1967 in Rabat, Morocco. It is headquartered in Accra, Ghana, and has, since its beginning, served as the apex organisation

and a forum for consultation, exchange of information and cooperation among Africa's institutions of higher education (AAU 2014). The AAU has used its unique position to create the stage for ensuring that higher education on the continent remains competitive in terms of quality service delivery. Consequently, the AAU has since the year 2000 developed the Quality Assurance Programme (QAP) meant to arrest the fall in quality delivery in African universities (Collins 2013; Shabani 2013). The objective of the project is to lay a foundation for institutionalised quality assurance mechanisms within higher education institutions, national quality assurance and accreditation agencies, and an eventual regional network for coordination of cross-border protocols and specialised capacity building in quality assurance. The programmes provide support to:

1. member universities of the AAU which are establishing or evaluating internal quality assurance systems;
2. national assurance/accreditation agencies in developing professional capacities for external evaluation and monitoring systems; and
3. AAU to update and negotiate with partners, a regional framework on the recognition of studies, certificates, degrees and other academic qualifications in higher education.

The main components of the QAP, as outlined by the AAU (2014) are as follows: strengthening member institutions' internal quality assurance systems through training, seminars and learning events; supporting established and emerging quality assurance/accreditation agencies in developing strong external evaluation and monitoring systems within national higher education systems in Africa. The AAU also commits itself to the development of a quality assurance database that would facilitate knowledge sharing; and the updating and renegotiation, with partners. Finally the platform provided by the AAU is to be used for the establishment of a Regional Framework on the recognition of studies, certificates, diplomas, degrees and other academic qualifications in higher education in Africa, based on the Arusha Convention (AAU 2014).

In pursuance of this goal, the AAU has through the QAP been supporting in the establishment of institutional, national and sub-regional quality assurance systems. This effort has been followed by a series of workshops across the continent, such as Morocco (2003), Nigeria (2007) and Ghana (2009). The AAU, in 2009, subsequently launched the African Quality Assurance Network (AfriQAN), a network of Quality Assurance practitioners in African Higher Education to carry forward the tasks of assuring quality in Africa's higher education institutions. The task ahead of the AAU, nonetheless, remains enormous. The higher education

landscape of the continent is a reflection of a number of factors that have to do with Africa's colonial history, postcolonial socioeconomic stresses, and the global liberalised trends that have simplified cross-border academic service delivery. The effect is an interesting medley of higher education systems divided along language lines (Anglophone, Francophone, Lusophone, and Arabophone); each of these with its own structure and a diverse array of study programmes, qualifications and awards (Materu 2007). These differences needed harmonisation if progress was to be made in forging unity in the region through enhancement of access to higher education and ensuring that there are common denominators for quality determination. This would then create the basis for the mutual recognition of qualifications and the creation of a common framework for credit transfers across national boundaries. The AAU has undertaken to accomplish this task to serve as a path to promoting mobility across higher education systems within Africa.

The African Union (AU) Commission has also adopted three initiatives in addressing quality assurance issues in higher education on the continent. The first initiative of the African Union is the African Higher Education Harmonisation Strategy. This was adopted in 2007 to ensure comparability of qualifications; so as to facilitate the implementation of the 'revised Arusha' Convention. The original convention was the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) Regional Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Certificates, Diplomas, Degrees and other Academic Qualifications in Higher Education in African states, was adopted in 1981 in Arusha, Tanzania. A conference of African Ministers of Education was held in March 2014 that adopted the revised Arusha Convention. The recognition of the exigency to expedite actions on quality assurance within the African higher education system has engendered collaboration between UNESCO, the African Union Commission and the Association for the Development in Education Africa (ADEA) to implement initiatives. Subsequently, the number of national quality assurance agencies on the continent rose from 6 in 2004 to 23 in 2014 (Materu 2007).

UNESCO has been an important player in quality assurance issues in Africa. This was first done through its Harare Cluster Office in 2006 and Bamako Cluster Office in 2009. They have been working closely with a number of organisations such as the Association of African Universities (AAU), the African Union Commission (AUC), the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA), the Global University Network for Innovation (GUNi)-Africa to initiate the International Conference and Workshop series on Quality Assurance in Higher Education in Africa (ICQAHEA). This has served as a platform for building the capacities of over 2,000 higher education professionals, researchers and

experts in Africa to address capacity deficits in higher education quality assurance (Materu 2007). Thirdly, the African Quality Assurance Network (AfriQAN) was inaugurated in 2007 to pursue its mandate of "assurance and enhancement of the quality of higher education in Africa through strengthening the work of quality assurance agencies and other associated organisations with similar objectives." Fourthly, the Association of African Universities (AAU) through a wide array of programmes and projects including the Quality Assurance Support Programme for Higher Education in Africa and the African Higher Education Excellence Award made significant additions to the pile of efforts at ensuring that the quality of higher education in the continent does not regress. Fifthly, the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) through its Working Group on Higher Education (WGHE) was at the vanguard of efforts that are envisaged to lead to strengthening the African Higher Education and Research Space (AHERS). The sixth evidence of positive development is led by the African Union Commission which has vigorously pursued several initiatives towards the harmonisation of higher education in Africa with a foundational strand on quality.

In the changed circumstances, the challenges that face leadership in higher education in Africa today is how to respond to the dynamics of stakeholder participation, at both national and international levels, in determining quality that meets intrinsic and extrinsic values of universities, industry needs, community needs, knowledge and skill needs for students. For leadership, meeting these quality needs and expectations for all stakeholders that may not always be in agreement about the programmes that the institutions roll out requires thinking outside the box.

3

Institutional and Legal Framework for Liberalised Higher Education in Ghana

Introduction

The essence of this chapter is to address two main concerns, namely: the legal and policy framework that guides the operation of higher education in Ghana; and an examination of the statutory institutional arrangements for ensuring high academic standards in the country. The focus of attention in dealing with these matters is on the roles of the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) and the National Accreditation Board (NAB). A narration is provided on the context in which the two institutions emerged and their respective roles as regulatory bodies. The discussion also touches on the interface that exists between the two regulatory bodies on one hand; and the institutions of higher education, on the other.

The Statutory Institutions and their Regulatory Roles

The Universities Rationalisation Commission's (URC) report was to make a far-reaching impact on the future of higher education in Ghana. The recommendations resonated well with the government's ideological position; and hence there was no difficulty for its adoption. The government's White Paper (1991) *Reforms to the Tertiary Education System,* just as its root URC report, was clearly bent on disengaging the state from its prior responsibilities as the sole founder and funder of university education in the country. The developments in the Ghanaian higher education scene to a great extent mimicked the prevailing World Bank agenda for higher education in Africa.

The rationalisation policy for pre-university education which aimed at universal compulsory education at the basic level had begun to churn out large numbers of school leavers. The consequence was that a large number of higher education seekers, which the existing public universities could hardly absorb, were now applying for admissions. The government, therefore, adopted a two-pronged approach in dealing with the emerging situation. In the first place, the government sought the support of the World Bank through the International Development Association (IDA), to undertake infrastructural expansion in the existing public universities to increase intake. The second approach was to liberalise the higher education landscape for private sector participation. This enabled the private sector players to strategically position themselves in the space to provide higher education services.

But in implementing the liberalised higher education system, the government had anticipated the challenges that the corporate governance cultures were going to bring to bear on higher education leadership. The critical role higher education is expected to play everywhere is the development of the critical corps of human resources for national development. In sum, this means that universities should strive in maintaining their intrinsic and extrinsic qualities so as to remain nationally and internationally relevant. However, the logics of the marketplace can confound the intrinsic qualities of higher education especially in a developing country; if they are not subjected to effective regulatory mechanisms. It is for this reason that the White Paper entailed proposals for the establishment of statutory regulatory bodies that were to be vested with enough authority to sanitise, restructure and reorganise the tertiary education landscape in Ghana. The implementation of the proposals saw the establishment of the following statutory regulatory bodies: The National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE), National Accreditation Board (NAB) and the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations (NABPTEX).

The role of these statutory institutions in regulating higher education has been fortified by legal provisions that define their powers and the kind of interface that should exist between the regulators and the institutions. We shall look at their respective roles in turn; and in our specific case we shall focus on the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) and the National Accreditation Board (NAB) only, since the activities of the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations (NABPTEX) do not affect the institutions covered in the study.[13] It should be added that the superintendent roles of these statutory bodies are exercised over both public and private institutions for the sake of protecting the integrity of higher education standards. The bodies act jointly in advising the Minister responsible for Education, who then advises the government on all

matters concerning education in the country. We will now discuss the regulatory responsibilities of the NCTE and the NAB in turn.

National Council for Tertiary Education

The National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) is the statutory body that oversees the administration of institutions that are classified as tertiary educational institutions in Ghana. The NCTE serves mainly as the supervisory and regulatory body that advises government through the Minister responsible for Education on matters that relate to tertiary education. The NCTE was established by an Act of Parliament Act 454 of 1993; and charged, under Section 2(1) of the Act, to perform a myriad of functions that span the following:

    a. to advise the Minister on the development of institutions of tertiary education in Ghana;

    b. to enquire into the financial needs of the institutions of tertiary education and advise the Minister accordingly;

    c. to recommend to the Minister for the purpose of the preparation of annual national education budget;

        i. block allocations of funds toward running costs; and

        ii. grants towards capital expenditure of each institution of tertiary education, indicating how the allocations are to be disbursed;

    d. to recommend national standards and norms, including standards and norms on staff, costs, accommodation and time utilisation for the approval of the Minister and to monitor the implementation of any approved national standards and norms by the institutions;

    e. to advise governing councils of institutions of tertiary education on suitable measures for generating additional funds for their institutions;

    f. to advise the institutions of tertiary education on the applications for and acceptance of external assistance in accordance with government policy:

    g. to advise the Minister generally on rates of remuneration and other conditions of service of staff of the institutions;

    h. to publish information on tertiary education in Ghana; and

    i. to perform any other functions relating to tertiary education as are incidental to the functions specified in this Act.

To perform its assigned functions, the NCTE has crafted a Charter, in which is proffered a vision of '[L]eading tertiary education to greater heights.' The

realisation of the vision is embedded in its mission statement that the 'NCTE is devoted to providing leadership in the direction, functions, role and relevance of tertiary education in Ghana.' The tasks that the NCTE is responsible for are:

- Considering applications for the introduction of new programmes in tertiary institutions and advising on their relevance for national development;
- Advising on the establishment of norms for effective management of tertiary institutions and monitoring their performance;
- Preparation of composite budgets for the tertiary sector;
- Presentation of the tertiary sector budget to the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning and to the Parliamentary Select Committee on Education;
- Processing inputs for the release of subventions;
- Disbursement of approved subventions to tertiary institutions;
- Collection of and submitting monthly returns on subvention and internally generated funds from the institutions to Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning and the Controller and Accountant Generals Department;
- Preparation of Annual budget reports of the tertiary sector;
- Collection of data from tertiary institutions and publishing annual statistical digest;
- Facilitation of negotiations for salaries and Conditions of Service for staff of Universities and Polytechnics;
- Providing information on tertiary education to local and international stakeholders;
- Coordination of donor projects involving the entire tertiary sector such as Teaching and Learning Innovation Fund (TALIF) with the World Bank support;
- Liaison between tertiary institutions, government and other stakeholders on tertiary education issues;
- Publishing information on tertiary education in Ghana; and
- Organisation of orientation workshops on leadership development for newly appointed heads of institutions and in governance for newly appointed Council members.

It is important to note that the NCTE has recognised the need for organising 'orientation workshops on leadership development for newly appointed heads of institutions and in governance for newly appointed Council members.' This is an indication that the NCTE recognises the need to strengthen the capacity of

leadership in these institutions as a way of fulfilling its vision of leading tertiary education to greater heights.

Even though the NCTE was established to oversee the affairs of both public and private tertiary institutions, its attention is more steeped to addressing matters of public higher education institutions than those of the private sector. It is obvious from the list of its proclaimed tasks that the NCTE is tilted towards the public institutions where it is expected to intermediate between the public tertiary institutions and government. The scope of this intermediation covers budgeting for the tertiary sector, processing and disbursement of funds for the tertiary institutions, among other things. The NCTE is also responsible for publishing information about tertiary institutions in Ghana. The most vital information about all the tertiary institutions for the general public are about their accreditation status in respect of the courses and programmes they roll out. It is in this respect that role of the NAB becomes an essential complement to that of the NCTE.

The National Accreditation Board

The National Accreditation Board (NAB) is another stakeholder charged by the state to superintend the affairs of tertiary educational institutions in Ghana. The NAB works in close collaboration with the NCTE to actualise the objective of ensuring that leadership capabilities are apt and academic standards are high. The NAB, therefore, serves principally as the quality assurance body in the higher education sector. The proposal for the establishment of a body to that effect was mentioned in both the URC report and the White Paper. In both documents, it was envisaged that a Board of Accreditation that could contribute to the 'furtherance of better management of tertiary education' as the quality assurance body at the tertiary education level was one of the efforts in achieving this goal. It was this body that was christened the National Accreditation Board (NAB) upon its establishment; which was to ensure that the integrity of Ghana's higher education was not compromised.

The NAB was also established in 1993 with the enactment of PNDCL 317, 1993. The original legislation was replaced by the National Accreditation Board Act, 2007, Act 744. As a stakeholder in higher education in Ghana, the NAB is mandated to:

- Accredit both public and private (tertiary) institutions with regard to the contents and standards of their programmes.

- Determine, in consultation with the appropriate institution or body, the programme and requirements for the proper operation of that institution and the maintenance of acceptable levels of academic or professional standards;
- Determine the equivalences of diplomas, certificates and other qualifications awarded by institutions in Ghana or elsewhere.
- Publish as it considers appropriate the list of accredited public and private institutions at the beginning of the calendar year.
- Advise the President on the grant of a Charter to a private tertiary institution.
- Perform any other functions determined by the Minister.

In accordance with its mandate, the NAB has indicated in its strategic plan a vision for ensuring 'high standards in tertiary education' in Ghana. And in consonance with the declared vision, the NAB stated further in its mission statement that it is to 'provide the best basis for establishing, measuring and improving standards in tertiary education in Ghana.'

In doing so, the NAB seeks to:

- Reach out to a wider public by providing objective information about tertiary educational institutions and standards of their academic programs;
- Determine the equivalences of both local and foreign qualifications,
- Guide the Nation's effort to expand the access to tertiary education, ensuring the quality is not sacrificed in this quest,
- Establish credibility through relentless responsiveness to the needs of the nation and stakeholders in the tertiary education sector in Ghana.

The Accreditation Process in Ghana

The NAB has put in place a rigorous accreditation process for all programmes and courses that are run in institutions of higher education in the country. This brings the NAB to interface with the public and private tertiary institutions in ensuring that the integrity of high academic service delivery in the country is maintained. By the rules, an institution of higher education is only recognised to award certificates if it is duly accredited. The accreditation process demands that an institution applies to the NAB for the consideration of its programmes and courses for accreditation. The NAB, on receipt of the application, activates a demanding process of examining the capacity of the institution to carry out the programmes they applied for. A number of variables come under a close scrutiny in assessing the contents of the programmes and the environment in which the intended courses would be rolled out.

In the assessment of a programme, there are requirements for the institution to indicate the philosophy that girds the programme; and also for the statement of the objectives of the programme. The prospects of the programme for national development and the benefits that the programme would bring to the students are required as well. In terms of the benefits of the programme to the student, it is expected that the institution seeking the accreditation should indicate the job prospects for the student in the domestic economy. These requirements are necessary for ensuring transparency to the consumer and the avoidance of short-changing the general public.

The institutional capacity to run an intended programme is critical to the pursuance of the philosophy of the programme and the realiaation of the objectives. The NAB therefore takes a serious view of the academic capacity of the staff by examining, among other things, the academic qualification of teaching, research and administrative staff. Beyond the academic qualification, NAB takes a close look at the level of experience, professional ranking of faculty and evidence of contribution to knowledge of faculty through publications. In addition, the NAB also looks at the capacity of the support staff in the academic service delivery. The working environment for the staff and the equipment available for the services are also examined. This is to, for instance, ensure that laboratories are adequately equipped for the demands of the programme that accreditation is being sought for.

In carrying out its responsibility, the NAB relies on experts drawn from within and/or outside the country. In the case of professional courses, experts from recognised professional associations are invited to assist in the accreditation process. This is to ensure the integrity of the professional status of the programmes and to provide recognition to the products that are churned out. In the process of programme accreditation, the NAB seeks to avoid undue duplication of programmes that are offered by institutions.

Since cost has become an important element in the contemporary higher education system, the NAB also finds out the cost and the sources of funding of programmes. For public institutions in particular, the cost implications on the national purse comes under scrutiny, as this is needed for the workings of the composite budget for tertiary institutions by the NCTE.

An important aspect of the accreditation process is an examination of the infrastructural and logistics capacity of the institution in question. This is done to create a good teaching and learning environment that would be comparable to international standards. In this regard, the lecture spaces, libraries, laboratories, teaching aids, equipment in the laboratories, office equipment and any other

ancillary materials are examined by the NAB. Related to this is an assessment of the student/lecturer ratio. The negative implication of massification in lecture halls has underscored the need for the NAB to take a hard look at such matters.

The NAB has definite assessment criteria, whereby institutions being assessed are awarded scores on all the issues that are being examined. Upon a comprehensive examination of the issues, an institution that seeks an accreditation may either be recommended for accreditation or fail to be recommended. In all cases, the NAB may make recommendations to the institution for the remediation of the deficiencies that had been identified. Programme accreditations are for definite period of time and institutions are required to initiate moves for reaccreditation of their programmes when existing accreditations are about to elapse.

By October 2013, the NAB had accredited eight public universities, namely: Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology in Kumasi; University of Education in Winneba; University for Development Studies in Tamale; University of Cape Coast in Cape; University of Energy and Natural Resources in Sunyani; University of Ghana in Accra; University of Health and Allied Science in Ho; University of Mines and Technology in Tarkwa and the University of Professional Studies in Accra.[14]

The number of accredited private degree awarding institutions is 51. Forty-eight of these are university colleges; that are affiliated to public universities. There are four chartered private universities; which are the Akrofi-Christaller Institute of Theology, Mission and Culture in Akropong-Akuapem; Trinity Theological College in Accra, Central University and the Valley View University in Accra.[15]

SECTION III

Four Public Universities and Leadership Challenges

4

University of Ghana

The Genealogy of a Colonial Higher Education Project

The University of Ghana is the oldest and the largest higher education institution in Ghana. The Colonial Ordinance, which established it as a higher education institution, was passed on 11 August 1948 and named it the University College of the Gold Coast. It was officially opened for academic activities on 11 October 1948 as one of the colonial university college projects, which was born out of the recommendations of the Asquith Commission (Agbodeka 1998). The University College of the Gold Coast was established for the 'purpose of providing for and promoting university education, learning and research.' Its current mission, as found in the University's corporate strategic plan is to 'develop world-class human resources and capabilities to meet national development needs and global challenges through quality teaching, learning, research and knowledge dissemination.'[16] The genealogy of the University that has become one of the most prestigious higher education institutions in Africa can be traced back to the early decades of the 20th century.

The formation of the National Congress of British West Africa (NCBWA) in 1920 brought together nationalists, who otherwise were in discreet and discrete contentions with their respective colonial administrations. The emergence of the NCBWA came to provide the needed platform for a closer working relationship among the colonial elites in British West Africa to pursue a common goal of promoting the interests of all colonial subjects (Boahen 1975; Eluwa 1971; Webster 1971). By the close of the second decade of the 20th century, nationalist leaders across British colonial West Africa who were mobilised by the NCBWA began to make definite demands that were to create space for African involvement in colonial governance. They also saw the need for a university in British West Africa

as the preparatory grounds for the development of indigenous human resources that were required to meaningfully participate in the governance process (Kimble 1963). The persistence and the cohesiveness within the ranks of the NCBWA in their demands made them to marshal a massive political clout under its leader, Joseph Ephraim Casely Hayford. The political group thereby sent a deputation to Whitehall in London to press for the urgency of meeting their demands, which, among other things, was for the establishment of a university (Lulat 2005; Kimble 1963). Their demands did not meet immediate success but considerations to that effect began to manifest, with the establishment of the Yaba College and Achimota in Nigeria and the Gold Coast respectively.

It is important to add that even though the NCBWA was a British West African transnational political organisation, the bulk of its leadership were from the Gold Coast (Kimble 1963). This made the Gold Coast the main theater for its political contestation. The leader, Joseph Ephraim Casely Hayford, was of a strong conviction that the Gold Coast needed an institution of higher education. Consequently, he demanded in his *Ethiopia Unbound* for the establishment of what he called Mfantsipim National University (Hayford 1969). His proposed university was meant to synthesise the African traditional knowledge systems with those of the West. In fact, the idea of blending African traditional knowledge system with those of the West was a replica of demands made in the last quarter of the 19th century by the Liberian-West Indian scholar Edward Wilmot Blyden. For Edward Wilmot Blyden, African universities should have the singular purpose of serving as the instruments for 'unfettering the negro mind in expiation of past wrongs to the African race' (cited in Ashby 1966:163). In the Gold Coast, in particular, the setting up of the Achimota College in 1927 was seen as the beginning of the processes that would eventuate in the establishment of the University College of the Gold Coast in 1948.

Nonetheless, the birthing of the University College of the Gold Coast did entail a lengthened labouring process. It is worth, therefore, examining the trajectory between 1927 and 1948 to enable us come to terms with what became the defining characteristics of the University of Ghana. The prolonged Great Depression that characterised the global economy, and which impinged negatively on the colonial economy in the 1930s kept in a deep freeze any meaningful discussions on a financially-absorbing infrastructural project such as the establishment of a university in the Gold Coast (Lulat 2005). However, Agbodeka (1998) indicates that a lip-service approach was made at the British West Africa Governors' summit meeting in Lagos, Nigeria. Given the dire macroeconomic conditions associated with the Depression, discussions of that sort were apparently nothing more than wile efforts at appeasing the nationalist agitators. Even though it was clear that no university

project was going to take off the ground in this period, the mention of the matter at the Governors' summit began to betray the unity of purpose in the pan-West African project that had particularly been championed by the NCBWA. Cleavages began to be revealed between the colonies on the issue of where the institution was to be located. This was mainly the case because the governors had deemed it proper to establish only a single regional university for the whole of British West Africa.

But in the Gold Coast, there had always been a strong desire among its people for the establishment of a national university. The conviction that the Gold Coast was independently capable of establishing a university was sustained by its relative economic prosperity as a colony in the British West Africa (Agbodeka 1992). Nevertheless, when one reckoned with such other factors like territorial size and population, Nigeria was well ahead of the rest of the colonies in the sub-region and as such the preferred choice for the establishment of a West African university, if that decision was to be taken.

It was not until the closing years of the World War II that issues of higher education became a matter of particular interest to the colonial authorities in Whitehall. Subsequently, in August 1943, the British Secretary of State for the Colonies, Oliver Stanley, set up two commissions, namely the Asquith Commission and the Elliot Commission to examine the issues of higher education in the colonies. The Asquith Commission was specifically charged…

> To consider the principles which should guide the promotion of higher education, learning and research and the development of Universities in the Colonies, and to explore means whereby Universities and other appropriate bodies in the United Kingdom may be able to cooperate with institutions of higher education in the Colonies in order to give effect to these principles (United Kingdom, 1945b: 3).

While the Asquith Commission took up the general issue of examining the feasibility of establishing university colleges in the overseas territories, the Elliot Commission, which included representatives of the indigenous people, was to examine the definite needs for West Africa.

The report of the Elliot Commission very much reflected the emerging divisions within West Africa on the issue of whether or not the sub-region should have only one university. In the impasse that ensued on the matter, the Elliot Commission in June 1945 submitted two recommendations in their report: namely majority and minority recommendations. The twists and reactions to these two recommendations became fundamental in shaping the higher education situation in West Africa, especially as it related to the eventual founding of the University College of the Gold Coast (University of Ghana).

The majority recommended that there should be university colleges in the three major colonies of Sierra Leone; Ghana and Nigeria. But the minority view was that only one university should be established in Ibadan, Nigeria. The rest of the colonies were to serve as tributary 'territorial colleges' to the university that was to be located at Ibadan, Nigeria. The implementation of the majority report was however jostled by the outcome of the July 1945 elections in the United Kingdom (UK). The Conservative party lost to the Labour party; and that came to affect the implementation of the recommendations of the Elliot Commission. Creech Jones, who signed the minority recommendation of the Elliot Commission, was now appointed the Secretary of State for the Colonies (Agbodeka 1998). And with the political change, Creech Jones was now in position to implement the minority recommendation. The decision he took on the matter was to incur the displeasure of the people of Ghana.

The matter of the Gold Coasters' desire to establish a university was reawakened; and this was taken up in the Gold Coast Legislative Council in March 1946 (Agbodeka 1998). And once it became clear that the country was bent on establishing its own university, efforts at what should be done for its commencement became a major concern. Even before the institution's takeoff, matters relating to measures for ensuring academic quality and university autonomy were raised by the visiting UIC members. This was to ensure the British tradition of academic freedom. It was also suggested that the university should have its own autonomous governing council that would take charge of its general policy directions. Finally, it was added that the university should enter into a special relationship with the University of London, under whose direction it would operate (Agbodeka 1998). Thus, when the path was cleared to begin the university, it was not in doubt that the institution was going to follow the British tradition of higher education governance in ensuring quality service delivery.

Special Relationship with University of London

Right from the conception of the idea, the issue of quality assurance had always been a persistent call by all stakeholders for the institution that was to be established (Atuahene 2013). Indeed, this was the baseline shared by both the nationalists and the colonial authorities; that any university project in the country was to be based on quality service delivery. This essentialist posture on quality assurance was to prove a point that Africans would not settle for anything less, which if they do, would be tantamount to concretising the long held opprobrious typecast about African intellectual incapacity.

It is for this reason that the two colonial commissions of both Asquith and Elliot found it necessary to recommend that a special relationship should be established between the University of London and the University College of the Gold Coast when it took off in 1948 (Manuh *et al.* 2007; Lulat 2005). It remained a university college for a protracted period; and attempts to declare it a full-fledged university in 1953 by the indigenous administered government was resisted by the supervisory university, on the grounds that leadership capacity was not adequate to take up the mantle of quality assurance (Agbodeka, 1998).

But the courses that were available in the University College and the sub-culture that thrived in the institution came under strong criticism. The Oxbridge tradition which the University College adopted was attacked for being an elitist ivory tower culture that cut off its products from their socio-cultural roots. This criticism was loud from the Convention People's Party (CPP) government under Kwame Nkrumah that was anxious in promoting African Studies as an anchor for knowledge production (Manuh *et al.* 2007). The grant of political independence in 1957 and the attainment of republican status in 1960 gave the CPP government enough political fortification to begin implementing its nationalist agenda; and in projecting an anti-imperialist stance to interrogate the relevance of the University College's special relationship with the University of London, *de novo*. The drive for autonomy of the University College was thought to be the logical conclusion to the developments in the political arena and as such, the government communicated its intent to the institution.

The principal of the University College, Dr. R. H. Stoughton, to the 8 July 1960 meeting of the University of London Senate Committee on Colleges Overseas on Special Relations, communicated the government's intention to the management of the University College (Agbodeka 1998). To objectify this, however, the government decided to take a more holistic look at the higher education sector in the country; so as to act appropriately in addressing the emerging challenges in the sector. An International Commission on Higher Education under the chairmanship of Krobo Edusei was appointed to examine, among other things, the issue of autonomy for the University College of Ghana and the case for the reorientation of higher education in the country (Atuahene 2014; Agbodeka 1998).

Under the special relationship scheme, the University of London took part in the setting of examination questions and in the marking of scripts. This was the arrangement because the University of London had the responsibility for the final approval to courses; and the degrees were awarded in the name of the University of London. For 13 years, the University College of the Gold Coast looked up to two separate British institutions: to the IUC for broad policy guidance, and to the

University of London for the details of academic programmes. This arrangement was meant to promote a culture of high academic standards in the embryonic University College.

As had been stated, with time, the curricula of the programmes, which the University offered, came under scathing criticism for being sheer implantations that were only tangentially relevant to the Ghanaian situation. The criticisms that emerged became the challenges that the leadership of the University were confronted with in the early 1960s when the institution attained autonomous status. How the University leadership could marry the demands to endogenise their curricula with the received knowledge and traditions from the West became a major concern. The actions of the major stakeholders, namely the state and the University, to address the emerging conundrum came to define the governance issues in the transition period.

Continuities and Discontinuities within the Framework of University of Ghana

The path, which the University of Ghana was to take, became an urgent case to deal with in its transition years. The pressure for change was mainly from Kwame Nkrumah's CPP government. And since assuming power in 1951, the CPP government persistently expressed uneasiness about the perpetuation of the colonial mentality through the courses that were being offered. The feeling in governmental circles was that the anti-colonial struggle and the pan-Africanist agenda were going to be blunted by the kind of education that was being provided at the University. It needs to be repeated that it was those concerns that triggered the setting up of the International Commission of Higher Education to re-examine the nature of university education in the country and for the possible rectification of the existing situation. The criticisms were even louder when the International Commission was sitting. And as was expected, the recommendations of the International Commission were heavily influenced by the external criticisms.

Given the liberal environment that promoted the doctrines of academic freedom and institutional autonomy that were nurtured in the University, and the soldiering role of its benefactors, the government's agenda to overturn the *status quo* only ended up creating a dialectical collision of opposites. The International Commission's report rested on the principle, 'that Universities (in Ghana) should be able to respond to the immediate and future needs of the community and that they should have the greatest possible autonomy in their organisation, teaching and research.'[17] The recommendations of the Commission, as summarised by Francis Agbodeka (1998), focused on the following:

1. University Councils should adopt new procedures for appointment for academic staff
2. Future appointments should be for limited periods in the first instance.
3. To increase intake through rapid expansion of Sixth Form education and to modify and relax university entrance requirements
4. Universities should enter friendly relations with other universities in Africa
5. An Institute of African Studies concerned with the study of African societies in all aspects should be established at the University of Ghana.[18]

These concerns were reflected in the University of Ghana Act of 1961 (Act 79) that gave autonomy to the University. The aim is quoted as follows:

> the University shall be to provide higher education, to undertake research, to disseminate knowledge and to foster relationships with outside persons and bodies…

It was expected that this was to be done in accordance with the following principles:

a. that in determining the subjects to be taught emphasis should be placed on those which are of special relevance to the needs and aspirations of Ghanaians, including the furtherance of African unity;
b. that higher education should be available to all Ghanaians who are capable of benefiting from it;
c. that so far as practicable students should be given an understanding of world affairs, and in particular of the histories, institutions and cultures of African civilisations;
d. that students should be taught methods of critical and independent thought, while being made aware that they have a responsibility to use their education for the general benefit;
e. that research should be undertaken in all subjects which are taught in the University, but with special attention to subjects which relate to the social, cultural, economic, scientific, technical and other problems which exist in Ghana or elsewhere in Africa;
f. that opportunities for higher education and research should be provided for students from other countries, particularly countries in Africa;
g. that the fruits of research, and knowledge generally, should be spread abroad by the publication of books and papers and by any other suitable means;
h. that the University should develop close relationships with the people of Ghana and with other cultural institutions, whether within Ghana or outside.

It is obvious that the principles that were to operationalise the aim of the institution were to be focused on Ghana and Africa. In other words, the University was to boost its extrinsic value within the African context. The implementation of this agenda, which sought to break with the Oxbridge tradition, brought the governance of the University into conflict with the traditional British notions of higher education autonomy and academic freedom (Hagan 1994). Consequently, the leadership of the University came under stress as they were confronted with a tedious task of managing the enigma of the new external demands for discontinuity; and the internal push for the maintenance of the existing order.

The rolling out of the new agenda for the University was to be done by the Interim University Council. The Interim University Council was the topmost policy making body of the University of Ghana, in the interregnum. The influence of the government in the affairs of the University was accentuated as the government appointed the Interim Vice-Chancellor, and four members of the Interim University Council. This was capped with the appointment of the President of the Republic, Kwame Nkrumah, as the Chancellor of the University. In the prevailing circumstances, it was obvious that the path was unencumbered for the government to use the Interim University Council as a surrogate in getting its way through the governance process of the University.

The critical professional staff of the University, up to this point, was substantially in the hands of expatriates; as they occupied most senior academic and administrative positions. This situation was at variance with the nationalistic drive of the government, and hence the Interim University Council was used as a proxy to dismantle it. The Interim University Council thereon set off briskly to begin implementing a policy of indigenising the critical academic and administrative staff. This was to be achieved through a number of initiatives, which included the award of scholarships meant to build capacities of promising Ghanaians. The beneficiaries were bonded to return to occupy academic and administrative leadership positions in the University (Manuh *et al.* 2007; Agbodeka 1998). Most of the beneficiaries of these scholarships were indeed sent to the United Kingdom to pursue graduate programmes.

With the policy of indigenization underway, the government began tinkering with the contract conditions of the expatriate staff. This was done with the insertion of a clause that indicated that whenever a qualified Ghanaian was available, an expatriate holding the post of Head of Department should give way (Agbodeka 1998). However, there was a caveat that an expatriate that was affected by this policy was to be compensated for the loss of office. Of course one cannot discount the psychological trauma that such policies had on the expatriates and the

depreciation of camaraderie among staff that could have resulted in undermining academic output.

The indigenisation policy was also pursued with a purposive programme of Special Professorship Scheme that earmarked an accelerated promotion of Ghanaians to the higher tiers of the academic profession. This was meant to prepare the indigenous professorial class to take up more challenging leadership positions.

Given the nationalist fervour of the early 1960s, it became a strong conviction of the government that the time had come to bring into fruition the long held conviction that higher education in Africa could only be relevant if it was predicated on African Studies. The weight that had been placed on African Studies in the scheme of higher education on the continent had a long history, traceable to the last quarter of the 19th century. A combination of factors placed this burden of delivery on Kwame Nkrumah. Being an ardent advocate of this school of thought, the onus came to lie on him to carry this conviction through. Soon after independence, Nkrumah began a vigorous pan-Africanist campaign, with the propagation of the 'African personality' concept. The logical conclusion of this drive was to bring into fruition a dedicated institution for African Studies within the University of Ghana (Manuh *et al.* 2007). The establishment of the Institute of African Studies created an opportunity for the CPP government to push through Nkrumah's pan-African agenda and his notion of 'African personality.' In his 'African Genius' speech delivered to open the Institute of African Studies on 25 October 1963, President Nkrumah charged the Institute to be at the forefront of academic pursuit that would create an 'extensive and diversified Library of African Classics' (Nkrumah 1963).

Through the policies that the Interim University Council had engaged in, it was clear that there was a strong motivation to remodel the University to fit into the new image that the nationalist government had envisaged. In all respects, the workings of the Interim University Council manifested an inclination towards providing a veneer for Nkrumah's government to undo what they had always had reservations about. The desire to redesign the University's governance system to fit into the nationalist fervour became overpowering. Nonetheless, the rapidity with which the policies of indigenisation were being carried out, and the efforts at redirecting the mission of the University, had begun to create its own glitches.

The traditional notions upon which academic work in higher education were accepted corroded, as political micromanagement of the institution gained grounds. The critical concerns that were raised included the dwindling of institutional autonomy and academic freedom (Hagan 1994). A quicksand situation emerged as to how to deal with the problem. Leaving the institutional

framework of the University untouched, as deemed by those pushing for a change, would have been tantamount to accepting the notion of inviolability of a colonial project that many an indigenous person thought was ill-fitted for dealing with the national development needs. It was thought that there was disconnect between the University and the local constituency. In other words, an institution of 'intellectual isolationism' was built out of the sweat of the underprivileged masses, whose toils was to sustain an enterprise that was to provide them little social dividends. The solution according to the critics was to pull down the existing edifice, for a new architecture that would meet the demands of the local people. However, the speedy actions to reshape the University into a populist image were only providing leverage to the power-wielding class to weaken the autonomy of the institution.

Dealing with the emerging challenges was not easy; as differences arose even among the indigenous academic class regarding the way forward. The emergence of contradictions became inevitable; especially as the proponents of academic freedom stood their grounds against the marauding invasion of the political forces which at the time championed monolithism, illiberalism and a regulated public sphere (Hagan 1994). The difficulty that the government had with the University of Ghana was that it harboured political oppositionists like Kofi Busia, who utilised the immunity that academic freedom offered to lash out at Nkrumah and his government.[19] As it became evident that the struggle between the academic class of the University and Nkrumah's government was a political one; the government thence resorted to the logics of political elimination to deal with its opponents (cf. Mamdani 2008). The leadership of the University during this period was subjected to state control with very little capacity to take independent decisions (Sawyerr 1994).

The University of Ghana in the 1980s and Leadership Challenges

On 31 December 1981, the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) came into power after a military coup that toppled the government of Hilla Limann.[20] The PNDC government initially rode on a populist, antiestablishment wave as a way of gaining political legitimacy. The political waves struck a major chord with the leftist elements across the country; but with the conservative ideologues, it was a discordant tone. Soon the corporate governance structure in the University of Ghana became distorted, as unfamiliar structures like the Workers' Defence Committees (WDCs) and Interim Management Committees (IMCs) sprang up on the campus as the pillars of the new government (Adedeji 2001; Nugent 1995, Shillington 1992; Graham 1989), The existing order of leadership suffered significant dislocation, in the aftermath, as their power base and legitimacy eroded.

In implementing the anti-establishment policies, the government, for instance, abolished the University Council and the National Council of Higher Education (NCHE). The NCHE was the existing regulatory umbrella body for the universities. The action was to have adverse effects on the governance system of the University, as the overall policy formulating body – the University Council - of the institution was now in the hands of the Interim Management Committees (IMCs) that was populated by inexperienced social upstarts. The composition of the IMCs was now to include students and unionised workers' groups as provided by the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) Law 42 of 1982. It was not until 21 December 1983 that the nomenclature 'University Council' was restored; but the composition reflected very much the populist trend that was institutionalised (Manuh *et al.* 2007; Agbodeka 1998).

The location of the University of Ghana at the national capital, Accra, has made the institution an active political theatre over the years. So it came to pass in the 1980s; when the turbulent political situation in the country, at the time, played out on the Legon campus. At the instigation of the PNDC government, the reopening for second term was suspended on 5 January 1982 for all the universities (Agbodeka 1998). The interruption of the academic calendar which was meant to make students engage in various military-style task forces to rehabilitate the crumbled economy became forebode of serious interruptions in the 1980s. In this first instance, the students were engaged in volunteer service till May 1983 when the University was reopened for academic services (Nugent 1995).

It should be said that the suspension of the reopening of the University in January 1982 was supported by the National Union of Ghana Students (NUGS) but the subsequent leadership were not enthused by the apparent authoritarian inclinations of the PNDC government. In this regard, the NUGS leadership which was then based at the University of Ghana openly became an instrument for the opponents of the government. The political scene on the Legon campus became volatile as students and government engaged in prototype Bertnard Russell's (1959) chicken game brinkmanship. On 6 May 1983, students of the University of Ghana went to town to demonstrate against the government. The response of the PNDC government was unsurprisingly swift. The University was immediately closed down and militaristic 'revolutionary cadres' which virtually became an occupational force were deployed to the Legon campus to deal with the perceived antirevolutionary elements. The campus remained occupied during the period of the closure until March 1984 when the University was reopened (Nugent 1995; Shillington 1992).

These interruptions of the academic calendar of the University were just the presages of what was going to be a regular feature of the period. The leftist socioeconomic leanings of the PNDC did not last long; as the government realised the need for pragmatism in its dealing with the country's collapsed economy. This brought the state managers to embrace the neoliberal solutions that were packaged by the IMF and the World Bank as structural adjustment programmes (SAPs). The reactions to the piercing effects of the market logic created the grounds for confrontation between the disadvantaged groups and the government. The losers in this case were not limited to only students but also faculty. As the purchasing power of the salariat class dwindled, in the face of unmitigating three-digit inflationary trends, faculty acting through the University Teachers Association (UTAG) demanded for salary increments (Shillington 1992). The inability of the government to meet various union demands resulted to several closures that undermined the consistency in running academic programmes. Such interruptions distorted the delivery of academic service to the University clientele.

The neoliberal path, which the government pursued religiously in the 1980s, undermined the responsibility the state had to provide higher education, among others, as a public good. The state bore this responsibility principally because the development challenges of the country demanded that higher education was seen as the necessary investment for the national development effort (Adesina 2007; Hutchful 2002). But the close relationship that had existed between the Bretton Woods institutions, on the one hand, and the adjusting economies on the other, brought into question the essence of the social investment approach that the state had adopted (Hutchful 2002). The consequent corporatisation of the University brought the cost burden on the consumers of academic services.

Students' demonstrations against the placement of the cost of academic products on them generated paranoiac responses from government. The confrontational encounters that characterised the downscaling of state support culminated in arrests and dismissal of some student leaders. The counter reactions from the students' front regarding the high-handedness of government led to the closure of the University on 27 May 1987. The University remained closed till 28 August 1987 when it was reopened on the proviso that students signed bonds of good behaviour before being readmitted (Agbodeka 1998).

The difficulties of managing the transition to commercialisation in the University resulted in closures that raised queries about the integrity of the academic programmes. The leadership of the University could only have some respite in the 1990s, which incidentally coincided with the country's return to liberal democracy. Perhaps, the lessening of students' protest against the commercialisation of the

services could be adduced to the realisation of the futility of turning back the tide. The ideological convergence that occurred among political actors, in this period, may have helped in promoting neoliberalism as a *fait accompli* (Gasu 2011a). However, it is important to examine how the emergent situation, in itself, poses new forms of challenge to the leadership of the University.

Leadership Structures and Challenges for Quality Assurance in University of Ghana

The leadership structure of the University of Ghana has largely remained a replica of what had been established by its mentor institution, the University of London. What has been changing, though, is the dynamics of the national political economy that inevitably impinges on the governance system and the policy choices for the University leadership. With its British colonial ancestry, the governance structure of University of Ghana is in a hierarchical order, designed to meet the interests of the academic class. The traditional liberal principles of autonomy and academic freedom of the University was institutionalised by the colonial administration that allowed the governance system to be delinked from the swings of national politics. Through the parenting role of the University of London, the culture of academic freedom and autonomy of the institution as corporate entity was ensured. But these liberal principles came under attack once the nationalist leaders took over power in 1957. The autonomy of the University and its Governing Council had been breached by overzealous state managers who conceived the academic space of the University as one for political contestation. As discussed early in this chapter, the extent to which various governments infiltrated the governance structure to compromise the authority of the leadership of University of Ghana was just a matter of degree. The traditional collegial governance structure was under-propped by consensus building; both on the horizontal and the vertical axis of the governance system. The consensus building element in dealing with colleagues in the university system is based on the assumption of equal capacity within academe.

As institutions of higher education, universities are generally conservative in following corporate governance systems with which they are familiar. This is especially the case when such systems are believed to produce desired quality outcomes. It is for this reason that the side effects of the global ideological paradigm shift of the 1980s came to pose dilemmatic challenges, regarding which course leadership in Ghanaian universities were to take to secure academic quality. And in the case of University of Ghana, the shift to privatisation and commercialisation

of services came to pose challenges about how to manage the transition. The situation for the leaders was worsened by the boisterous oppositional responses from students that resulted in disruptions of academic calendars.

Perhaps, it is important for us to reiterate the context within which the University of Ghana operates currently to enable us determine the appropriate coordinates for our guidance. Student numbers, since the mid-1980s, have witnessed a steep rise, mainly due to educational reforms that increased the upstream enrolment numbers. The University has a student population of 29,754 (University of Ghana 2014). Nonetheless, infrastructural facilities in the University lagged behind the developments that were taking place in the upstream educational system. The result has been inadequate facilities in the institution to meet the demands for a higher education establishment.

The dynamics within the contemporary globalised higher education system are such that it has become compelling to re-examine the leadership strength within the University. In the marketplace situation that the University of Ghana finds itself, the leadership is pushed to corporatise the institution for the sake of raking in revenue from fees that clients pay. The adoption of managerialism through institutional corporatisation also goes with the principle of prioritising the interests of all stakeholders. The need to take into account stakeholders' interest is to enable the University to be proactive to their needs. What this calls for, in reality, is a leadership system that appreciates the varied, and oftentimes, contradictory expectations so as to meet its core mandate as an industry for knowledge production, dissemination and public service.

The University of Ghana, since its beginning, has been established as an academic corporate entity with the requisite legal backing for autonomy, necessary to deliver on its mandate. The autonomy that the University enjoys is now enshrined in the University of Ghana (2010) Act, Act 806. The leadership structure of the University as indicated in the Act is portrayed in Figure4.1 as follows:
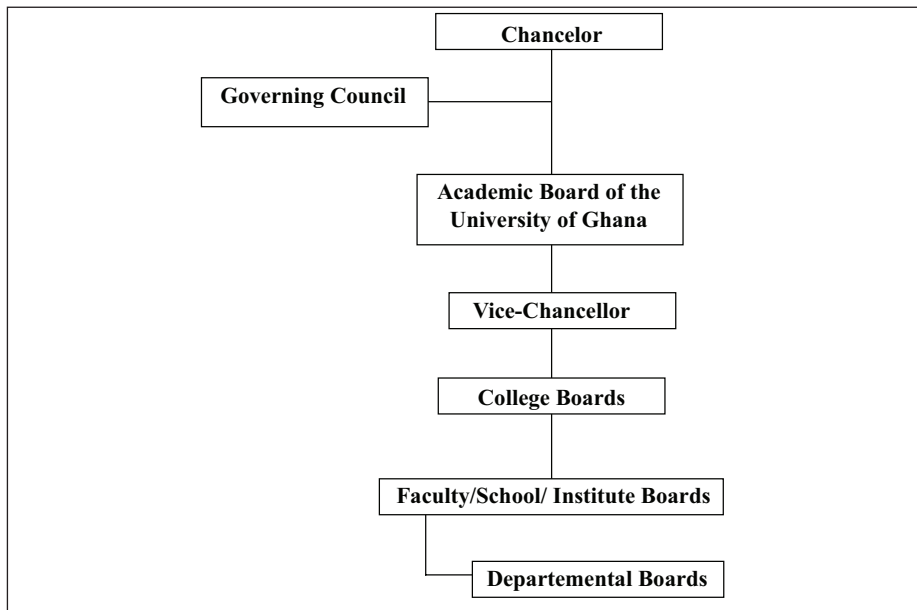
Figure 4.1: Leadership Structure of University of Ghana

Chancellor of the University of Ghana

The mode of appointment of the Chancellor and the powers of office are spelt out in Section 6 of the University of Ghana (2010) Act, Act 806 and in the University of Ghana Statutes (2011). According to Statute 3 of University of Ghana, the position of a Chancellor is provided for as follows:

1. There shall be a Chancellor of the University who shall be elected by an electoral college.
2. The Electoral College consists of an equal number of the total membership of Council and the Academic Board convened specially for that purpose by the Registrar of the University.
3. The Chancellor is the head of the University and takes precedence over the other officers of the University.
4. The criteria and modalities for the nomination and election of the Chancellor shall be prescribed by Statutes of the University.[21]
5. The Chancellor shall hold office for a period of five years and is eligible for reappointment but shall not be appointed for more than two terms.

6. The Chancellor shall preside at Congregation, meetings and ceremonies of the University at which the Chancellor is present.

7. The Chancellor shall be served with the summons; minutes and other documents related to meetings of the Council and may attend the meetings.

8. The Chancellor shall confer on qualified persons, degrees, diplomas and certificates awarded by the University in accordance with this Act and procedures prescribed by the Statutes.

9. The Chancellor may delegate functions under subsection (8) by directions in writing to the University Council

The University of Ghana Council

The University Council is headed by a chairperson. It is stipulated in Article 70 of the national constitution that the President shall appoint the Chairperson and other members of the University Council. And the Chairperson of the Council shall hold office on the terms and conditions specified in the statutes of the University.

The University Council acts essentially as the institution's principal corporate policy making body. To perform this role, the Governing Council is invested with a wide range of powers, as specified in the statutes of the University are to:

• Formulate in consultation with relevant bodies the strategic vision and mission, long term academic and business plans and key performance indicators of the University;

• Determine the authority limits for the use of finances of the University;

• Control the property, funds and investment of the University and may, on behalf the University, sell, buy, exchange and lease and accept leases of such property;

• Borrow money on behalf of the University and use the property of the University as security;

• Generally enter into, carry out, vary or cancel contracts;

• Delegate authority to the Vice-Chancellor or any other official of the University;

• Establish processes for the monitoring and evaluation of itself and any other person or establishment of the University;

• Keep under review the policies, procedures and limits within which the management functions of the University are carried out by the Vice-Chancellor and other officers of the University;

• Safeguard the good name and values of the University;

- Appoint or dismiss the Vice-Chancellor, the Pro-Vice-Chancellor(s), the Provosts, the Deans, Directors, Registrar, College Registrars, Deputy Registrars and Professors of the University;
- Award honorary degrees on the recommendation of the Academic Board; and set up standing and ad hoc committees composed of members and/or non-members and assign them such functions as are not inconsistent with the Act and the Statutes.

The University Council is further empowered in the Statutes of 2012 to do the following:

1. Have the power to create new establishments or merge or abolish existing establishments.
2. The Council shall control the finances of the University and may determine any question of the finance arising out of the administration of the University or the execution of its policy or in the execution of its policy or in execution of a Trust requiring execution by the University.
3. Before determining the question of finance which directly affects the academic policy of the University, the Council shall invite the opinion of the Academic Board and shall take into consideration the recommendations or report made by the Academic Board
4. The Council is responsible for the resources necessary or desirable for the conservation or augmentation of resources of the University and for this purpose may specify a matter affecting the income or expenditure of the University in respect of which the consent of the Council shall be obtained before action is obtained or liability is incurred
5. The Council shall determine the allocation of the funds at the disposal of the University, and the recurrent grants shall be made in the form of block grants unless the Council otherwise determines,
   a. for expenditure by the Academic Board on those central activities of the University for which the University is wholly responsible; or
   b. for expenditure by the governing bodies of Schools and Institutes as part of their general income
6. The Council shall annually determine the expenditure necessary for:
   a. capital and revenue investments,
   b. the maintenance of property of the University, and
   c. the human resources for the transacting the financial and administrative business of the University; and may appropriate moneys for these purposes.

7. The Council may prescribe the manner and form in which the times at which units of the University shall submit accounts or estimates of income and expenditure.

Composition of the University of Ghana Council

The University Council is composed of the following members:

a.   The Chancellor
b.   A Chairperson
c.   The Vice-Chancellor
d.   Four persons appointed by the President taking into account
    i.   the need for gender balance
    ii. expertise in finance, and
    iii. expertise in management
e.   One representative of the Alumni of the University
f.   Two representatives of the Convocation, one whom is from non-teaching staff
g.   One representative of National Council of Tertiary Education, nominated by the National Council for Tertiary Education
h.   A Vice-Chancellor of an African University appointed by the Council
i.   An elected representative of Heads of Second Cycle Institutions in Ghana
j.   Four other persons appointed by the Council from outside the University, two of whom shall be women
k.   One representative of the Legon Branch of the University Teachers' Association of Ghana
l.   One representative of undergraduate students of the University elected by Students' Representative Council
m.   One representative of the Legon Branch of the Teachers' and Educational Workers Association.

Terms of Office of University Council Members

• Members of the University-Two year term and eligible for a second term only
• Non-Members of the University-Three year term and eligible for second term only
• No remuneration for members of Council. Allowances to be determined by Council are allowed

The government still has a hand in the appointment of some of the members of the University Council. The President appoints not only the Chairperson of the University Council but also four other persons. It is thus possible that government can use the appointed persons as a conduit for having its way in the deliberations of the University. What is important to add though is that the interface between the state and the University is no longer antagonistic. The political system which has seen a remarkable consolidation of democracy in the country has enabled a return of liberal ethos of academic freedom within the University and outside it.

The Academic Board of the University of Ghana

The Academic Board is responsible for overseeing and maintaining the highest standards in learning, teaching and research. It does this by providing an environment for the academic community, including representatives from colleges, faculties, boards of studies and similar organisations, the opportunity to communicate with one another on both formal and informal levels.

The composition of the Academic Board is indicated in Statute 7 as follows:

1. Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellors, Provosts and Deputy-Provosts, Deans and Vice-Deans
2. Directors and Deputy Directors of Institutes and Schools
3. Heads of Academic Department
4. Professors and Associate Professors, including those on post retirement contract
5. Representatives from an Academic Department, School, Institute or Center
6. Librarian
7. Registrar (Nonvoting)
8. At least nine members elected by Convocation
9. The Heads of Halls, and
10. Three members of the academic staff elected by Convocation.

Functions of the Academic Board of University of Ghana

The Academic Board of the University of Ghana, as indicated in the Statute 7 of the institution has a wide range of powers to perform the following functions:

a. determine and establish the academic policy of the University and generally regulate the programme of instruction and the examinations held by the University;

b. promote research within the University and require reports from the Colleges, Faculties, Institutes and Schools from time to time on research being done;

c. approve the appointment of examiners on the recommendations of the Boards of Faculties;

d. suspend or remove examiners for negligence or any other sufficient cause during their term of office; and in the case of death, illness or resignation or suspension or removal of examiner shall appoint a substitute;

e. establish regulations after receiving reports from the Boards of Faculties, Institutes and Schools concerned relating to courses of study, degrees and any other academic distinctions;

f. make reports and representations to the Council, on its own initiative or at the request of the Council, on a matter affecting the University;

g. make appointments of senior members of the University subject to the Statutes enacted in that behalf by the Council;

h. make recommendations to the Council on the establishment, combination, abolition, change of scope of division of a Faculty, an Institute, a School, Center or Department;

i. recommend to the Council the affiliation of other institutions to the University on the appropriate terms and conditions;

j. approve, amend or refer back the yearly estimates and accounts of the University prepared by the Finance Committee;

k. determine subject to the made by the benefactors which are accepted by the Council and after report from the Board of the Faculty, Institute or School concerned, the mode and conditions of competition for fellowships, scholarships, exhibitions, bursaries, medals, prizes and examine for and award the same or to delegate to the Faculty, Department, Center, Institute or School concerned power to examine for and award same;

l. make Regulations for the admission of junior members to courses approved by the University;

m. make Regulations for the discipline of junior members of the University;

n. propose to the Council the names of persons for honorary degrees; but a person shall not be admitted by the University to an honorary degree whose name has not been first submitted to and approved by both the Council and the Academic Board;

o. refer proposals on a matter to Convocation for consideration;

p. perform the functions conferred on it by the Act or the Statutes subject to the Act;

q. make the reports and recommendations to the Council, and within the scope of policy approved by the Council take the action, that it considers necessary for the development, welfare and good governance of the entire University community;

r. determine the length of each academic year and divide the year into appropriate terms, semesters or divisions.

It is also added that the Academic Board may delegate any of its functions to a standing committee or officer of the University with or without conditions.

Vice-Chancellor of the University of Ghana

It is stated in Statute 5 of the institution that the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Ghana is appointed by the University Council. The Vice-Chancellor is answerable to the Council. The Vice-Chancellor is the academic and administrative head, as well as being the chief disciplinary officer of the University. The Vice-Chancellor is appointed for a term of office of four years and is eligible for a second term. In the discharge of his/her duties the Vice-Chancellor is assisted by two Pro-Vice-Chancellors.

The Vice-Chancellor is, by virtue of office, a member of Congregation, of Convocation, and of every standing committee of the Academic Board. The Vice-Chancellor is the chairperson of every board or committee of which he/she is a member. As the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the institution, the Vice-Chancellor is responsible for providing the strategic direction of the University and drives the institution's growth and development as defined by the Council. The Vice-Chancellor is expected to submit an annual report of the University; in terms of the institution's human resource requirements, finances and infrastructure, which in the opinion of the Vice-Chancellor is required for the transaction of the University's business.

As the effective head of the University, unless otherwise provided in the Act or in the Statutes, the Vice-Chancellor is responsible to the Council for the custody of the University Seal and for affixing it to documents in accordance with the Regulations made by the Council. Also, the Vice-Chancellor acts as an intermediary between the Academic Board and the University Council and in that role advises the Council and Academic Board on matters affecting policy, finance, governance and administration of the University. The Vice-Chancellor, thereby has unrestricted rights of attendance and speech at the meetings of University bodies, whether executive or advisory, which are charged with the consideration of those matters. In the performance of his/her duties, the Vice-Chancellor is allowed in the Statutes and in the Act to delegate authority to a senior member.

College/Faculty/School Boards in University of Ghana

The College/Faculty/School Boards are responsible for developing and regulating internal guidelines related to academic programmes, including teaching, learning, research, and assessment. The Boards have oversight responsibility for all committees established for these purposes. They receive advice and recommendations on issues pertaining to teaching, learning, research and assessment at the College/Faculty/School levels, and report to relevant University committees on these issues.

Faculty Boards in University of Ghana

It is provided in Statute 31 of the University that each Faculty shall have a Board whose membership shall include, as appropriate:

a. the Dean as Chairman,

b. the Vice-Dean

c. the Heads of Department and Directors of Institute and Centres in the Faculty and at least one member of each Department elected by the members of that Department;

d.   at least one representative from each cognate Faculty in accordance;

e. the Professors, including those on post retirement contract, and

f. any other persons recommended by the Faculty Board by the Academic Board.

Functions of Faculty Boards in University of Ghana

The functions of Faculty Boards as provided in Statute 32 are:

b. regulate the teaching and study of a subject or subjects as assigned to the Faculty, subject to approval of the Academic Board;

c. ensure the provision of adequate instruction and facilities for research in the subjects assigned to the Faculty and coordinate the teaching and research programmes of the Faculty;

d. recommend examiners to the Academic Board for appointment;

e. make Regulations and propose syllabuses dealing with courses of study and other questions relating to the work of the Faculty subject to the approval of the Academic Board;

f. make recommendations to the Academic Board for award of degrees, diplomas, certificates, scholarships and prizes within the Faculty;

g. subject to the Regulations, promote cooperation with other Faculties and institutions within or outside the University in matters relating to academic work of the Faculty;

h. deal with a matter referred or delegated to it by the Academic Board; and

i. discuss any other matters relating to the Faculty.

Departmental Boards in University of Ghana

A Department, as defined in the Statutes of University of Ghana, is an establishment that has the responsibility for undergraduate and graduate level teaching and research. Departments are thus the primary divisions within the University that are devoted to a particular academic discipline and responsible for the delivery of courses for the programmes they run. The responsibility of managing an academic department in the University lies with the Head of Department. The Head of Department assigns courses to lecturers, supervises the delivery of the tasks peculiar to departmental needs. As indicated, the departments are primarily responsible for courses and as such it is the responsibility of the Head of Departments to ensure that content of courses, their modes of delivery and the assessment of students meet standards that are ascribed by Academic Board and other quality assurance units within the University.

Academic Quality Assurance in University of Ghana

The University of Ghana (2009) *Academic Quality Assurance Policy* document has elaborated on the measures that should be taken to ensure the maintenance and enhancement of academic quality in the University. The task for institutionalising internal quality assurance in the University is part of the global trend in establishing institution-specific bodies, purposely for quality assurance in higher education. Subsequently, the University of Ghana, in 2005, established the Academic Quality Assurance Unit (AQAU) as the main organ of the University with direct responsibility of overseeing academic quality assurance issues for all programmes and for all institutions that award University of Ghana degrees (University of Ghana 2009). The *Academic Quality Assurance Policy* is linked to the realisation of the University's mission of producing world class human resources for national development. The quality assurance policy of the University is also designed to meet current global challenges and as such the document has expatiated on the specific roles of the multiple stakeholders in ensuring that quality assurance is reflected in all aspects of the institution's undertakings. The pillar upon which the Policy is anchored, are the following five principles: (a) rigorous and comprehensive

coverage in evaluations; (b) internal and external peer review; (c) staff and student involvement; (d) rapid and effective feedback and (e) evidence based assessment (University of Ghana 2009:5). The five principles are thus explained as follows:

Rigorous and Comprehensive Coverage in Evaluations

The quality strategy under this principle is to achieve rigorous and comprehensive coverage by addressing quality service delivery across the entire University system. This is to be addressed through a comprehensive range of mechanisms that include (i) course approval and validation in the academic department; (ii) course and departmental annual monitoring; (iii) subject review; (iv) partnership approval and review; (iv) monitoring and review of all areas including learning support and (v) monitoring and review of all research and specialist centres.

Internal and External Peer Review

It is recognised that internal peer review mechanism is a critical factor for assuring and enhancing the quality of academic service. The elements of the University's internal peer review mechanism include the validation of courses that are taught in the departments and peer observation of teaching of a colleague. The feedbacks from internal peer reviewers are meant to reinforce the strengths of lecturers, and to address weaknesses that are pointed out.

The external peer review mechanism, which was the earliest form of quality assurance, continues to feature in the AQUA policy assurance document. The external peer review mechanism provides the required validation that the University seeks for their products to be accepted globally. This is designed for the purpose of deriving independent assessment of standards as it relates to the quality of programmes that the University runs. The external reviewers' reports are required for accreditation and reaccreditation of programmes.

Involvement and Ownership

An important factor that has also been identified is that of involvement and ownership of the process of assuring quality. It is stated that staff and students have obligation to be involved in the quality assurance process. It goes further by stating that the University is obligated to involve all staff in quality assurance and the institution shall there by provide support and training for the professional and personal development of personnel. This is especially targeted at junior staff; whose efficiency and value addition through further training would contribute

to the collective benefit of the University. With such a holistic approach through the inclusion of all staff and students in the quality assurance process, it is envisaged that ownership of the processes for enhancing standards and quality would become the hallmark of staff and institutional objectives. It is envisaged that in such settings, students who are the ultimate consumers of the University's products would be satiated, in their conviction that they have value for money.

Rapid and Effective Feedback

As modern trends in management specify, personnel assessment which is an integral part of the quality assurance process, is not meant necessarily to be punitive; but to be corrective. It is for this purpose that the quality assurance mechanism in University of Ghana has adopted the principle of rapid and effective feedback on matters that arise from the assessments that are carried out by various stakeholders. It is stated that students 'feedback is a critical part of the University's Quality Assurance Strategy and is obtained at course, departmental and other levels' (University of Ghana 2009:6). A feedback may be obtained through methods that include departmental meetings, committees, working groups, evaluations of staff development sessions, questionnaires about validation and review of events and consultation exercises about specific projects.

Evidence Based Assessment

It is indicated that for the purposes of assessing staff performance, and the other factors that are required for quality assurance within the University, such measurements should be based on procedures, processes and practices that are guided by the objective of verifiable criteria data; and other forms of hard evidence (University of Ghana 2009:6).

Institutional Responsibilities for Quality Assurance in University of Ghana

The responsibilities for the assurance of quality in the University are assigned to a spectrum of bodies. The University Council, which is the main policy formulating organ of the institution, is given the responsibility of monitoring the implementation of decisions, and of ensuring the creation and maintenance of an environment that creates equal opportunity for all within the University community. Secondly, the Academic Board is vested with the authority and responsibility of authorising course additions, changes, and delegations. The Academic Board is the ultimate body for taking academic decisions in the

University. The Academic Board ratifies the award of degrees and approves courses/programmes that emanate from Graduate, College and Faculty Boards, which are the first lines of due diligence in academic quality assurance.

In addition to the generic control exercised by the Academic Board, we can also mention the specific role played by its subcommittee: the Academic Curriculum, Quality and Staff Development Committee (ACQSDC). The Committee has oversight responsibility on all matters related to academic curriculum, the approval of new courses; and the development of policy in support of the unit and for the establishment of staff a development programme for academic staff. In the matrix of ensuring academic quality are such other institutions as the College, Faculty, Graduate and Departmental Boards. The Pro-Vice-Chancellor (Academic) is charged with overseeing the implementation, evaluation and Review of the Academic Quality Assurance Policy of the university and it is the responsibility of the office of the Pro-Vice-Chancellor (Academic) to ensure that adequate resources are in place to support quality teaching and research.

The Academic Quality Assurance Policy of the University recognises the important roles of the academic teaching staff, in terms of the pedagogical effectiveness; their research output; and the responsibilities for the purpose of quality assurance. The next section devotes attention to the empirical data gathered on such matters in the University of Ghana.

Leadership Capacities in University of Ghana

The ability of higher education to deliver on their missions, and on quality assurance, depends largely on the capacity of the human resources at the institution's disposal and also on the conditions within which such human resources are deployed. These factors are examined in turns in the sections below.

Academic Staff Capacity and Classroom Situation in University of Ghana

One of the key concerns of the study was to examine the capacity of the academic staff. This was, for instance, meant to find out about the highest academic qualification of the academic staff. The highest academic qualification attained by the academic staff of the University of Ghana is depicted in Figure 4.2
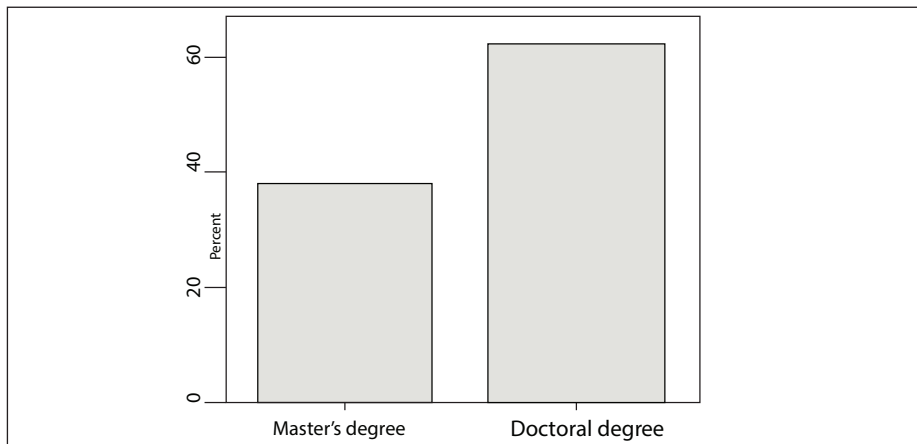
Figure 4.2: University of Ghana Academic Staff Highest Academic Qualification

The evidence from Figure 4.2 indicates that more than 60 percent of the academic staff of the University, have obtained Doctoral degrees; with less than 40 percent of the academic staff being holders of Master's degree. The University is thus reasonably placed in achieving the requirements of the NCTE, which requires Doctoral degrees as the minimum academic qualification for lectureship positions in Ghanaian universities.

It is important to note though that capacity issues in the academia go beyond minimum academic qualifications. The profiles of faculty in terms of professional rankings do matter, in institutional capacity determination. Professional ranking in the academic community is determined by a number of variables, key being the extent and scope of peer reviewed research publications. The research pedigree of faculty is necessary for the purposes of building capacities for mentorship of newly recruited academic staff and also for the guidance of postgraduate students. Figure 4.3 shows the professional designation of the academic staff covered in our study.
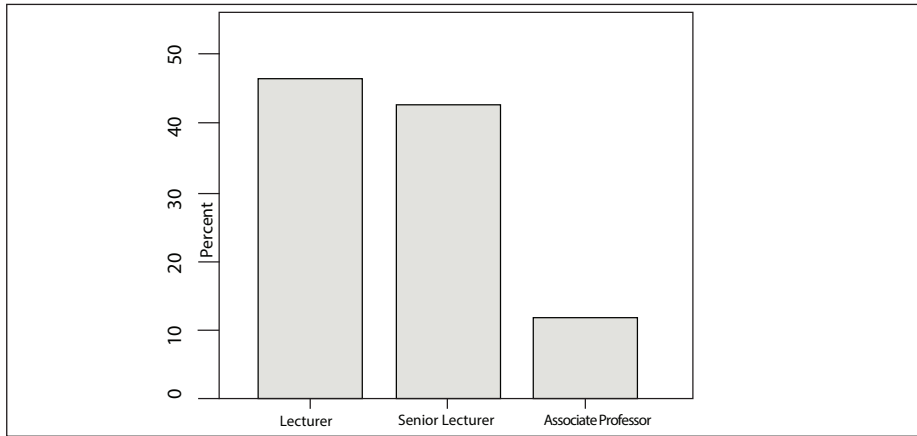
Figure 4.3: Professional Designation of Academic Staff in University of Ghana

As shown in Figure 4.3, 48 per cent of the academic staff is designated as Lecturers, while Senior Lecturers constitute 42 percent and 10 per cent of those covered are within the rank of Associate Professorship. This point out that at least 52 per cent of the academic staff has carried out enough research and academic publications to merit promotions to a higher level. It is this category of academic staffs that are usually deemed to have the scholarly wherewithal to be normally available for teaching and guidance at the graduate level; and for the mentorship of newly recruited academic staff. However, it is necessary to add that the capacity of academic teaching staff is not limited to research outputs and publications. The experience derived from handling of classes and teaching over a period of time, is also important.

The duration of teaching by the academic staff is hereby captured to provide an overview of the situation at the University of Ghana. This is shown in Figure 4.4.
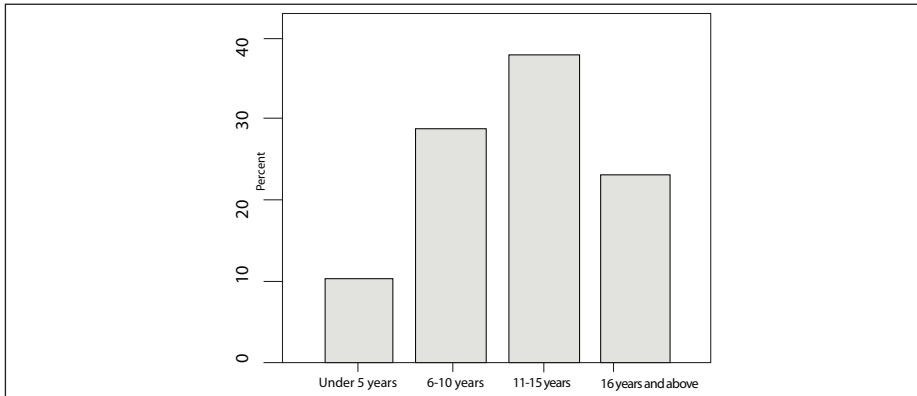
Figure 4.4: Length of Teaching of Academic Staff in University of Ghana

The modal group constitutes those who have been teaching for 11-15 years. This group comprises 39 per cent of the academic teaching staff. The next group comprises those who have been teaching for 6-10 years. The most experienced category, that is, those who have taught for more than 15 years represent 22 per cent of the teaching staff. Those who have taught for less than 5 years constitute only 10 per cent of the academic teaching group.

The data broadly show a fairly experienced teaching staff that was most likely to have acquired pedagogical skills necessary for effective knowledge transmission. Such an experienced corps of teaching staff is most likely to acquire the skills of leadership and human relations necessary for effective interaction with students and in fostering teamwork with colleagues. However, the effectiveness of teachers is contingent on a number of factors; among which are: teaching load, in terms of the number of courses that are borne by staff and also the number of students involved. These factors as they do occur in University of Ghana are respectively shown in Figure 4.5 and Figure 4.6
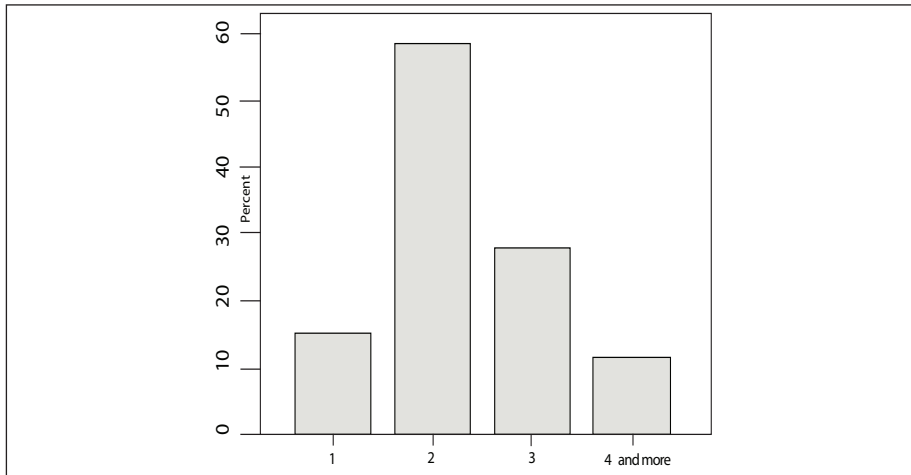
Figure 4.5: Average Class Sizes Taught by Lecturers in University of Ghana

Most of the lecturers handle two courses per semester, and those who do so constitute 58 per cent of the teaching staff. They are followed by those who teach three courses per semester, which represent 28 per cent of the lecturers. Those who have more teaching responsibilities, in terms of handling four or more courses, are 14 per cent of the teaching staff. Only 2 per cent of the lecturers handle one course per semester. The evidence from the field indicates that those who teach only a single course per semester are mostly those who have administrative responsibilities in addition to their core responsibility of teaching.

One other factor that has affected the performance of lecturers in the institution is the matter of large student numbers. Massification has been present in public higher education and this has been decried as a factor that has contributed to the decline of academic standards. The class sizes handled by lecturers are shown by the compulsory (core) courses taught by the teachers. This is depicted by Figure 4.6 that shows the average size of core courses.
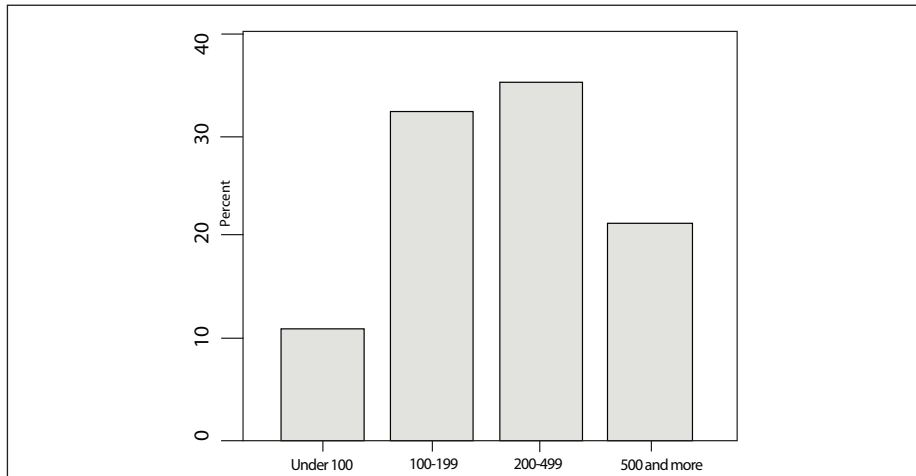
Figure 4.6: Average Class Sizes of Core Courses in University of Ghana

As shown in Figure 4.6, the class size for most of the lecturers who handle core courses are student numbers that range between 200 and 499; and this is indicated by 35 per cent of the lecturers. This is followed by 32 per cent of lecturers, who teach core courses with class sizes that range between 100 and 199. While 22 per cent of lecturers handle core courses with class sizes that exceed 500, with 11 per cent of the lecturers teaching core courses that have student numbers less than 100 students.

To examine the practical implication of the class sizes on how it affects teaching and learning in the University of Ghana, we sought the views of students. Students' perspective on the congeniality or otherwise of the lecture hall environment, as regards overcrowding is depicted in the responses as captured in Table 4.1

Table 4.1: Whether Class Size results in Overcrowding

	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative Percent
Yes	105	41.7	41.7	41.7
No	147	58.3	58.3	100.0
Total	**252**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

The data as captured in Table 4.1 was in response to a question regarding whether their class sizes result in overcrowding of the lecture space. Of the 252 student respondents 41.7 per cent (i.e. 105 students) responded in the affirmative that they experience overcrowding. However, 147 of the students, which represent 53.3 per cent, stated that they do not experience overcrowding. Obviously from the perspective of both students and lecturers, the issue of overcrowding needs to be dealt with in the University to create an appropriate teaching and learning environment for enhanced academic service delivery.

To find out whether class sizes affect interactive teaching and learning processes, the following responses of students on this score are shown in Table 4.2

Table 4.2: Whether Class Size of Compulsory Courses affects Interactive Teaching and Learning

	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative Percent
Yes	141	56.0	56.0	56.0
No	99	39.3	39.3	95.2
Do not know	12	4.7	4.7	100.0
Total	**252**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

Interactive teaching is demonstrated to be a superior mode of pedagogy than the banking system. Interaction creates what Paulo Freire (2006) describes as 'mutual humanisation,' in which a partnership is established between teachers and students. Through this mode of education, the attention of the latter is hooked to the subject under discussion through the engaging skills that are deployed by teachers to achieve learning goals. Among such skills of creating interaction are opportunities for both parties in the learning process – teachers and students – to ask and respond to questions that help in clearing obfuscations in the minds of the parties involved. In the contemporary multimedia era, interactive teaching process are enabled and boosted by the deployment of requisite electronic media which creates the appropriate connectivity between teachers and students.

But the desired impact of these techniques of teaching is dependent on the appositeness of class sizes. It is here that the case of overcrowding in the lecture halls serves as a setback on the objectives of interactive teaching. Thence we set out to find out from the student respondents how class sizes affect interactive teaching and learning. The statistics as captured in Table 4.4 reveals that while 56 per cent responded 'yes' to indicate that class sizes of core courses do affect

interactive teaching and learning, 39.3 per cent of the students answered 'no' to suggest that the sizes of classes were no impediments to interactive teaching and learning. However 4.7 per cent of the students responded 'do not know' to apparently indicate ignorance as to whether there are disruptions or otherwise to interactive teaching and learning as a result of class sizes.

Effects of Classroom Situations on Lecturers' Output in University of Ghana

The effects of the burden on lecturers in dealing with large student numbers can be determined in many ways. The time spent on marking of examination scripts and the consequences of time management on academic output can be revealing, in this regard. It is for this reason that we take a look at the time spent by lecturers in the University on processing of examination results. This is shown in Figure 4.7
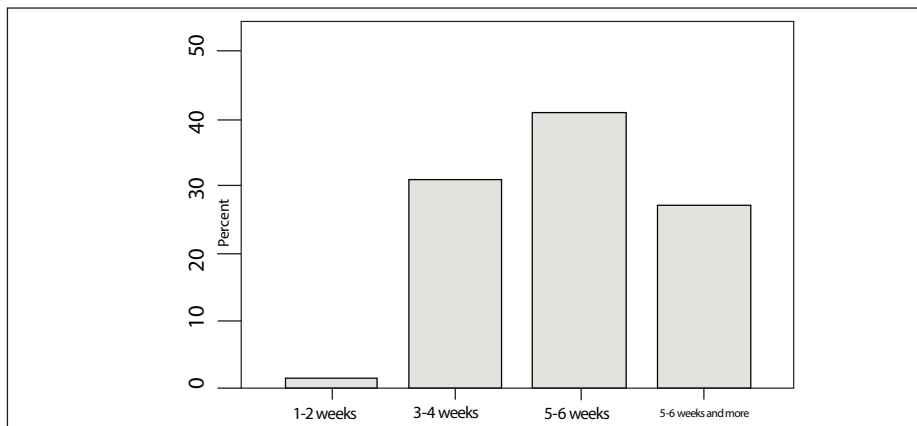
Figure 4.7: Duration for Marking and Processing of Results

The evidence as shown in Figure 4.7 is that 40. 9 per cent of the lecturers use 5-6 weeks in marking examination scripts and for processing results. This is followed by lecturers who spend 3-4 weeks on the same effort; and they constitute 30.7 per cent. Those who spend more than 6 weeks consist of 27.3 per cent; with only 1.1 per cent of the lecturers indicating spending just 1-2 weeks for marking of scripts and processing of examination results. It is apparent that the marking of examination questions and processing of results take a great deal of lecturers' time.

It is worth reminding ourselves that it is incumbent on lecturers in higher education to produce research based publications as a way of expanding the frontiers of knowledge in the various disciplines. The burdening effect of teaching

large classes, and expending of about 4 weeks for marking of scripts can be a drawback on research output. To enable us have a fair idea of the research output of lecturers in University of Ghana, we sought to find out the number of peer-reviewed articles to their credit; and their average yearly output in publications. The findings are shown below, in Table 4.3 and Table 4.4, respectively.

Table 4.3: Number of Peer Reviewed Papers to Credit

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Percent
0-2	11	12.6	12.6	12.6
3-5	31	35.6	35.6	48.3
6-10	30	34.5	34.5	82.8
11 and more	15	17.2	17.2	100.0
Total	**87**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

The data as captured in Table 4.3 was in response to an inquiry into the number of peer-reviewed publications that were credited of the respondents. The evidence is that those who have 3-5 peer-reviewed publications constitute 35.6 per cent of the 87 respondents. This is closely followed by the category of academic teaching staffs that have 6-10 peer reviewed publications to their credit. Those lecturers who have 11-plus peer reviewed publications constitute 17.2 per cent; and the group of lecturers with the least number of publications (0-2) comprise 12.6 percent.

In addition, we made an effort to establish the annual research output of the lecturers in the University. The purpose was to find out the effort that was devoted to research writings, which may or may not culminate into publications. Table 4.4 depicts the data derived from the inquiry, regarding the average number of research papers that an individual lecturer writes in a year.

Table 4.4: Research Papers Written per Year

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Percent
0-1	17	19.5	19.5	19.5
2-4	37	42.5	42.5	62.1
5 and above	33	37.9	37.9	100.0
Total	**87**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

Of the 87 respondents, 42.5 per cent of them indicated that they write 2-4 papers yearly. While 37.9 per cent of the respondents stated that they produce 5 or more research papers in a year, 19.5 per cent of the lecturers either produce nothing or just one research paper a year.

Beyond an individual lecturer's effort at writing a paper, it is worth noting that one of the cardinal principles in the academia is publication of research papers, which should go through the regime of peer review. The rigors through which such peer review papers go through make it the most accepted mode of contributing towards knowledge within academia. Table 4.5 captures the number of papers that lecturers indicated that they are able to publish a year in peer reviewed journals.

Table 4.5: Number of Papers Published in Peer Reviewed Journals in a Year

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Percent
0-1	50	57.5	57.5	57.5
2-4	31	35.6	35.6	93.1
5 and above	6	6.9	6.9	100.0
Total	**87**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

Most of the respondents, 57.7 per cent, indicated that on the average they publish 0-1 paper in a year. This is followed by a cohort of lecturers, 35.6 per cent, that publish 2-4 papers yearly in peer reviewed journals. Only a small percentage of the lecturers, 6.9 per cent, checked that they publish 5 or more papers yearly. It is obvious from the data presented in Table 4.4 and Table 4.5 that efforts directed at writing papers do not necessarily translate into publications. For instance, while those who stated that they produce 5 papers or more yearly constitute 37.9 per cent, those who are able to publish at that rate yearly are only 6.9 per cent. Similarly, we witness a drop in the rate of those who write 2-4 papers a year, 42.5 per cent to 35.6 per cent for those who are able to publish the same number of papers in peer reviewed journals. Remarkably, those who publish 0-1 paper a year constitute the modal group, 57.9 per cent; this contrasts sharply with the 19.5 per cent that indicated that that is the rate of their writing per year.

Obviously, there must be some constraining factors that affect the publication rate of lecturers. To find out the challenges that confront them, the following are some reasons that were randomly picked to illustrate the point. The viewpoints cited in Box 4. 1 below provides us with some insight.

Box 4.1: Factors that Inhibit Research and Publication in University of Ghana

1. Inadequate local journals to publish papers. (Lecturer, Department of Sociology)
2. The fees charged for processing the papers by journal publishers are prohibitive. (Senior Lecturer in the Department of Geography and Resources)
3. Administrative responsibilities have encumbered my writing and publishing rates. (Senior Lecturer in the Department of Chemistry)

While the factors, as mentioned in Box 4.1 may not be exhaustive, they are nonetheless indicative of the challenges that confront lecturers in the University in their bid to become active participants in the global knowledge production business.

To find out the challenges that confront the academic teaching staff in the University of Ghana on their delivery of research outputs, we probed further to examine other factors that could be detracting their focus from publishing. And here, the focus was on the effect of administrative responsibilities on the lecturers. The main administrative responsibilities are those of headship of departments and responsibilities in Halls of residence as Hall tutors. The indications are that a considerable number of hours are spent on such responsibilities every day. Figure 4.7 shows the average number of hours that are checked by academic staffs for administrative responsibilities in a day.
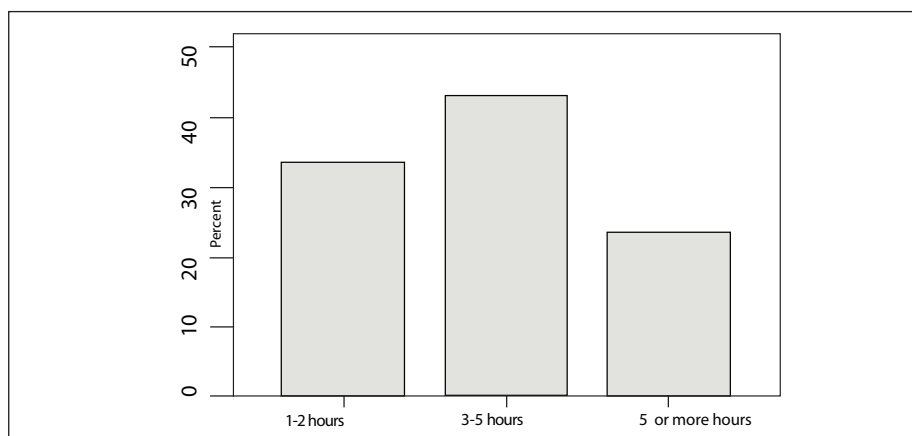
Figure 4.7: Number of Hours Spent a Day on Administrative Responsibilities

It is shown in Figure 4.7 that about 45 per cent of those involved in administrative duties spend on the average 3-5 hours a day on administrative responsibilities. This is followed by 32 per cent of the respondents who spend 1-2 hours daily for administrative responsibilities. And those who spend 5 hours or more constitute about 23 per cent of the respondents.

To find out from the lecturers who hold administrative responsibilities whether the administrative duties have any effects on their core academic work, the responses to that effect are captured in Figure 4.8
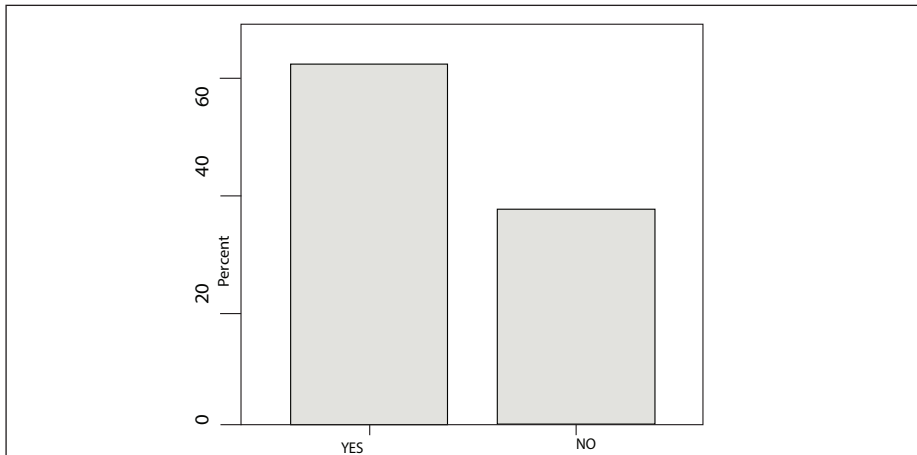
Figure 4.8: Effect of Administrative Responsibilities on Teaching and Research in University of Ghana

It is pointed out in Figure 4.8 that 63 per cent of the lecturers who perform administrative duties indicated that such responsibilities affect their core academic duties of teaching and research. This is however denied by 37 per cent of respondents in this category that their core duties are affected by administrative responsibilities. We can deduce thus that a large number of lecturers with administrative responsibilities get affected negatively by the extra burden of administrative duties.

The nature of the effects of administrative responsibilities on teaching and research are captured in Box 4.2

Box 4.2: Effects of Administrative Duties on Teaching and Research in University of Ghana

1. I suffer exhaustion from combining administrative duties as a Head of Department to my teaching responsibility (Head of Department)
2. The responsibility of being a Hall Tutor is time consuming, especially at the beginning of the academic year (Hall Tutor, Mensah Sarbah Hall)
3. It demands time to attend to the numerous concerns of students (Hall Tutor, Akuafo Hall)

Commercial Programmes in University of Ghana and Implications

The University of Ghana has essentially become corporatised university and has rolled out a number of academic products for the market. The University participates in the academic marketplace to take advantage of demand driven programmes at both undergraduate and graduate levels. The current policy of the University is that all mainstream graduate programmes are fee paying. Besides that, the University of Ghana Business School (UGBS) runs premium business programmes in parallel graduate schemes, in the form of Evening and Weekend schools. The fees for these programmes are normally dollar-indexed, targeted at those in executive positions with the requisite financial backbone to pursue higher academic laurels. The parallel graduate programmes in the UGBS lead to the award of MBA, MPA and Executive MBA degrees.

The University also runs parallel undergraduate programmes at the Accra City campus, where programmes leading to the award of Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science (Administration) and other forms of certification in non-degree programs are offered, by the Colleges of Humanities and Education. Again, the Colleges of Humanities and Education collaborate to run sandwich programmes which normally take place during vacation periods of May to August. The commercialised programs are institutionalised by the University as they serve as additional sources for Internally Generated Funds (IGFs).

In similar vein, the additional responsibility on the lecturers is seen to be financially remunerative, as it serves as income supplement. However, the implications of the extra burden of teaching remain a matter of concern in relation to the effectiveness of teaching and research. It is indicated, for instance

by a lecturer at the Department of Political Science who teaches on both Legon and Accra City campuses, that commuting between the two campuses and the prolonged teaching hours over the academic year produces a telling effect; as the task is 'physically demanding.' Even so, he was emphatic about the financial benefits of the undertaking by pointing out that it 'serves as an additional source of income.' It thus appears that there is mutual benefit to the University and the individual lecturers, in terms of pecuniary rewards. But the rifeness of the contention that such exercises have tendentiously reduced universities to 'teaching only' institutions cannot be ignored. It is for this reason that we examine the institutionalised remedies in the form of capacity building for academic staff, so as to meet emerging challenges.

Capacity Building for Academic Staff in University of Ghana

The University of Ghana, over the years has pursued policies for building capacities of its staffs, as well as for promising students, by instituting sponsorship programmes for further studies. The objective has been to optimise the contributions of the beneficiaries of the programmes to academic and leadership roles they will turn out to play in the University. As pointed out, this policy was most prominent during the indigenisation phase of the immediate post-independence period but the policy has been maintained as the essence of faculty reproduction and skills renewal remains. The importance of the policy in the scheme of things in the University is captured in the current Statutes, published in 2011, and in the *Academic Quality Assurance Policy* document.

For the academic staff, in particular, staff development programmes are meant to be realised on two main fronts. These are through the pursuit of higher academic laurels and the upgrading of professional skills through in-service training. The first category, which deals with the pursuit of higher academic qualifications, usually draws much attention, as it serves as the launch-pad for a professional career in the academia. While the official documentation of an existence of staff development is not a contestable subject, the implementation of such policies according to laid down procedures remain a critical one for those in the queue for such opportunities. Our focus was therefore directed at finding out from the respondents whether the laid down procedures for sponsorship for further studies were being followed. Table 4.6 indicates whether or not procedures are being followed.

Table 4.6: Procedures Followed

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Percent
Yes	33	37.9	37.9	37.9
No	26	29.9	29.9	67.8
Do not know	28	32.2	32.2	100.0
Total	**87**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

From Table 4.6, it is seen that only 37.9 per cent of the respondents believe that the laid down procedures are being followed. The rest of the respondents either felt the procedures were not being followed (29. 9 per cent) or 'do not know' (32. 2 per cent).

In any case, the implementation of staff development policies had provided avenues for many a faculty to acquire higher academic capacities and the evidence of this is shown in Table 4.7

Table 4.7: Beneficiaries of University Scholarship

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	37	42.5	42.5	42.5
No	50	57.5	57.5	100.0
Total	**87**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

Of the 87 respondents, it is indicated by 37 (42.5 per cent) that they had never benefited from the University's scholarships as part of staff development programmes.

In-Service Training for Academic Staff in University of Ghana

In-service capacity building in the form of skills development on continual basis is recognised by the University of Ghana and the national regulatory bodies as an assured way of keeping up with the pace of academic staffs' relevance in the knowledge production industry. The essence of this is captured in the quality assurance policy document of the University. In-service capacity building programmes are usually tailored to meet identified needs, and these include the adoption of appropriate pedagogical skills, research methodological approach, and the application of multimedia skills for teaching, leadership and administrative duties. Since in-service

capacity building is a goal directed effort mainly for enhancing efficiency, we sought to find out from the respondents what, or if, they had ever benefited from participating in such programmes. The type of benefits which the respondents felt they had had from previous in-service capacity building programmes are shown in Table 4.8

Table 4.8: Mode of Benefits from Capacity Building Programs

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Improved teaching and research skills	40	46.0	46.0	46.0
Improved research skills only	26	29.9	29.9	75.9
Improved teaching skills only	16	18.4	18.4	94.3
No benefits in particular	5	5.7	5.7	100.0
Total	**87**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is shown in Table 4.8 that 46 per cent of the respondents have indicated that the internal capacity building programmes had improved their teaching and research skills. It is the conviction of 29.9 per cent of the respondents that the programmes had 'improved their research skills only,' and for 18.4 per cent of the respondents the benefit they had derived from the capacity building programmes had been in the form of 'improved teaching skills only.' It is only 5.7 per cent on the respondents that stated that they had 'no benefit in particular.' It is obvious that the in-service capacity building programmes impacted in enhancing teaching and research skills of academic staff.

Prospects and Challenges of University of Ghana

The University of Ghana has significantly transcended the prior governance challenges that led to the infringements of its institutional autonomy and academic freedom. The state managers and all stakeholders now appreciate their respective roles and limitations leading to tranquillity in the operations of the University. The University community has also reasonably adjusted to the corporatisation of the institution and the accompanying managerial principles. As such, the protestations against commercialisation have significantly disappeared and with that sort of atmosphere, the leadership of the University is projecting the University of Ghana to become a world-class player in the development of quality human resources.

But the prospects for realising such goals are not too clear in the short haul. It is clear from our discussion that lecturers are overburdened with teaching loads in

mainstream, parallel and sandwich programmes. The disclosures by of some of the lecturers on this score bear a testimony of sacrificing research concerns on the altar of generating IGFs. The obvious unimpressive publication profiles as shown in the chapter also projects an institution that is drifting into the arena of 'teaching only' university, notwithstanding the rhetoric to the contrary.

The situation is however being addressed by the institutionalisation of internal and external quality assurance systems. But the quality assurance should as well be focused on lecturers' contribution in research-based knowledge production. Regularity of in-service training workshops, which should be based on needs' assessment, would help in addressing the abortion rate of research papers that never get published in peer reviewed journals.

5

Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology

The Founding of a Technical University

The Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), was founded as a technical university, charged in its establishment Act of 1961 (Act 80) to '… provide higher education, to undertake research, to disseminate knowledge and to foster relations with outside persons and bodies….' The KNUST was therefore set up to carry out the traditional activities of higher education, which is to produce and transmit knowledge; in addition, to influencing the larger community through the knowledge that is generated. The pursuance of this mandate is appropriately captured in the University's Ten-year strategic plan for the period 2005-2014 (Plan 2K14) which posits a vision of '[A]dvancing knowledge in science and technology in Africa' (KNUST 2005:7). The mission statement of the Corporate Plan (Plan 2K14) of the University states that the institution would provide…

> an environment for teaching, research and entrepreneurship training in science and technology for the industrial and socioeconomic development of Ghana, Africa and other nations. KNUST also offers service to the community, is opened to all people and positioned to attract scholars, industrialists and entrepreneurs from Africa and the international community (KNUST 2005:7).

Certainly the vision, and mission statements of the KNUST's corporate plan (Plan 2K14) places lot of responsibilities on the leadership of the University. The strategic plan also reveals the long standing expectations from society about the

vital role the institution was to play in the development of the country. Indeed, the motivation for advancing a vision of this sort was even stronger when the University was founded in the early 1950s; given the development deficit of the time. The eagerness on the part of the state managers to bridge the development gap was severely handicapped by the dearth of personnel with the requisite technical skills, and opportunities, for science and technological education at the higher education level in the country.

The Achimota School, in Accra, had provided some amount of basic Engineering programmes up to the intermediate level; but that was inadequate to propel the country's development agenda. It was, therefore, expected that the Engineering Department in Achimota was going to be made part of the University College of the Gold Coast; but those plans fell through (Agbodeka 1998). The failure to incorporate the Engineering Department of Achimota School into the system of the University College of Gold Coast therefore created the urgency for having a higher education institution in the country, which would principally be devoted to technical education. In consequence, it was for the need for boosting the training of the critical human resources in the fields of technical and scientific education that informed the Colonial Ordinance of 6 October 1951 upon which the Kumasi College of Technology was established. The College of Technology actually became Ghana's version of the British colonial policy of establishing Regional Colleges in West Africa.

It was clear from the ferment of political and social events in the country since the end of World War II that ongoing political transformations were going to culminate in political independence. This realisation pushed the agenda for accelerating the production of technologically savvy indigenous human resources to take up the leadership mantle in various fields. In prosecuting this agenda, the need to address the low level of technical human resources became imperative.

The Bradley Committee, in 1946, did promise the Asantehene that they would do their best to have a College for tertiary education established in Kumasi.[22] In implementing the policy of establishing a Regional College in the country, an Interim Standing Committee for a Regional College was put in place in March 1949. Subsequently, it was disclosed in 1950 that the Regional College was to be sited in Kumasi. The unfolding events in the direction of the Regional College led to the passing of the Colonial Ordinance upon which the Kumasi College of Technology was to be founded in August 1951. Being part of the post-World War II British colonial policy for the establishment of higher education in West Africa, the colonial office took a particular interest in the development of its infrastructure. Of the estimated initial cost of £2 million, the Colonial Development and Welfare

Fund (CDWF) devoted £1.5 million to the infrastructural development of the College (Agbodeka 1998). The rest of the funding was provided by the Ghanaian government. It is this College of Technology that metamorphosed into today's Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) (Pitcher 1976).

The country's attainment of internal independence in 1951 resulted in the transfer of substantial governmental business to the indigenous administration under Kwame Nkrumah. This quickened the pace at which matters concerning the College were brought to the fore and dealt with. The Asantehene Agyeman Prempeh II who had, for a considerable period, desired for the establishment of an institution of higher education in Kumasi as part of the modernising project of his Asante kingdom, provided the necessary support for the institution's takeoff.

The Kumasi College of Technology began academic work in January 1952, when 200 teacher trainees were transferred from the Achimota College in Accra to become the nucleus of the new institution (Bening 2005; Agbodeka 1998; Pitcher 1976). In the debate leading to the establishment of the Kumasi College of Technology, it was indicated in the Legislative Assembly that the institution, generally, was for the 'purpose of providing studies, training and research in technology, science and arts' (Gold Coast 1951). The College's founding Principal J. P Andrews had to carry the burden of building a premier technical higher education in the country. This was amidst the high expectation that it was that sort of institution, which was to unlock the development potentials of the country (Pitcher 1976).

Amidst the high expectations that the College was expected to play in the development process of the country, the Principal, J. P Andrews, indicated quite cogently that the institution would "… never confine its studies to 'bread and butter' subjects but will freely encourage research into recondite matters, though with an eye on application. In some respect this is an undeveloped country. Research into 'resources, and into their use, will be one of our functions' (Pitcher 1976:10). In this sense, the College was expected to pursue knowledge not only in its complex form, but also with the view of engaging in research that would benefit Ghana as an underdeveloped country. When the founding principal departed in 1954, W. E. Duncanson served as the second principal in the period 1954 to 1960, in continuing the task of building a modern higher education. In this period the current iconic School of Engineering was barely in its embryonic stage of development.

The Growth of the Kumasi College of Technology

The Kumasi College of Technology, as was the case of all the other colonial higher education projects, was placed under the University of London for the purpose of mentorship and for academic quality assurance. Due to its affiliation to the University of London, the certificates that the graduates of the Kumasi College of Technology were issued were in the name of University of London. The superintendence exercised by the University of London was quite extensive; and it embraced the determination of the programmes and courses, the recruitment of lecturers, the moderation of examination questions, the marking and grading of examination papers (Pitcher 1976). The tutelage period lasted from 1952 to 1961; when the institution was granted autonomy to run its own programmes and to award its own degrees, diplomas and certificates (Agbodeka 1998; Pitcher 1976). Equally manifest, during the tutelage period of the College of Technology to the University of London, was the kind of institutional governance structure that emerged.

The Kumasi College of Technology from October 1952 began to establish a number of academic departments with the establishment of the School of Engineering and the Department of Commerce (Manuh *et al.* 2007). The School of Engineering in the period 1952 to 1955 trained students for professional qualifications. Thereafter, the School began courses that led to the award of University of London's Bachelor of Engineering (External Degree). The Pharmacy Department was also started in January 1953; the pioneering students for the Department were transferred from the Korle-Bu Hospital in Accra where there was an existing School of Pharmacy. The Department ran a two-year comprehensive course in pharmacy that led to the award of Pharmacy Board certificate (Pitcher 1976).

Indeed, it became apparent that 1953 was significant as the growth year for the College as the Department of Agriculture came on stream. The Department of Agriculture from its beginning provided various types of courses to students than ran between few terms to three years. The graduates of the Department of Agriculture were mainly trained for the Ministry of Agriculture that needed them to provide agronomic extension services to the mostly illiterate farmers in food crop cultivation and in the burgeoning cocoa business.

Again in 1953, the Department of General Studies was established to prepare students for the Higher School Certificate Examinations in both Science and Arts subjects. The Higher Education Certificate Examinations were otherwise taken in the Sixth Form departments of secondary schools. The intervention of the Department of General Studies helped in expediting the preparation of academically gifted students to abridge the period that they would otherwise have

spent in accessing higher education programs (UST 1974). The Department of General Studies also served as a service department to the others on the campus.

The College grew rapidly in terms of academic programmes and by 1957 the School of Architecture, Town Planning and Building was added. The first students to this School were admitted for professional courses in Architecture, Town Planning and Building. Thence forward, it was decided that the College of Technology should have a narrower focus. The College from its inception was meant to focus on science and technology training. But the growth of the College was accompanied by non-core programmes that blunted its institutional focus. In returning to its core mandate, the College began shedding off some of the non-core disciplines by transferring the Teacher Training Department to the Winneba Training College in 1958. In doing so, however, it was decided that the Art School which was part of the Teacher Training Department was to remain in Kumasi.

Again in acting to refocus the Kumasi College of Technology to its core mandate, the Department of Commerce was also moved to Achimota in 1959. The Department of Commerce was later incorporated into the University College of the Gold Coast in Accra.[23] The decision to transfer the departments to Winneba and Accra was unilaterally taken by the CPP government to the exasperation of the Council of the College (Pitcher 1976). Thus, before the Kumasi College of Technology was transformed into a full-fledged university, it was made to slough off some of the programmes that were deemed not to fall in line with its mandate; never mind that such decisions were taken by the government.

Attainment of Autonomous University Status and Challenges

The placement of the country's two existing higher education institutions in a 'special relationship' with the University of London had been a matter of concern for the CPP government. When the country became a republic in 1960, the CPP government with an apparent sense of relief, felt the time was nigh to rethink the nature of higher education. The International Commission on Higher Education, which was set up to examine nature of higher education recommended the transformation of the Kumasi College of Technology into an autonomous university (Ghana 1961a).

Thus, the Kumasi College of Technology was upgraded into a full-fledged university and incorporated initially as the University of Science and Technology (UST) by an Act of Parliament of 22 August 1961. However, on 21 November 1961, the institution was renamed the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) (Ghana 1961c).

In its establishment law Act 80 (1961), the KNUST was expected to chart a path of studies, which would make its programmes and research activities relevant to the Ghanaian and African situation. The aims assigned the KNUST and the principles to realise them are stated as follows:

a. That in determining the subjects to be taught, emphasis should be placed on those which are of special relevance to the needs and aspirations of Ghanaians, including the furtherance of African unity;

b. That higher education should be available to all Ghanaians who are capable of benefitting from it;

c. That so far as practicable students should be given an understanding of world affairs and in particular the histories, institutions and cultures of African civilisations;

d. That students should be taught methods of critical and independent thought, while being made aware that they have a responsibility to use their education for the general benefit;

e. That research should be undertaken on all subjects which are taught in the University, but with special attention to subjects which relate to the social, cultural, economic, scientific, technical and other problems which exist in Ghana or elsewhere in Africa;

f. That for higher education and research should be provided for students from other countries in Africa;

g. That the fruits of research and knowledge generally, should be spread abroad by the publication of books and papers by any other suitable means;

h. That the University should develop close relationship with the people of Ghana and other cultural institution, whether within Ghana or outside.

Obviously, these principles were meant to enhance the extrinsic value of KNUST as its faculty performs roles that were to enhance the social and development needs of their immediate communities. The expectation was that the institution will move from the colonial ivory tower model that had received a barrage of attacks from the government for being separated from the real African situation. In a word, the effort was to endogenise research and knowledge for the development of Ghanaians and African peoples (cf. Adesina 2006).

Even so, the zeal by the political leaders to apply the envisaged utilitarian notion to the operation of the University brought the government into a collision course with the traditional adherents of the liberal principles of academic freedom and institutional autonomy (Manuh *et al.* 2007; Sawyerr 2004; Hagan 1994). The

eagerness of the government to engage intrusively into the University's governance was not shared by its opponents. The University became a hotbed for political opposition against the government especially among its academic staff (Agbodeka, 1998). They accused Nkrumah of pursuing a self-gratifying agenda, by naming the University after himself. It was for this reason that the institution was renamed the University of Science and Technology (UST) once Kwame Nkrumah was ousted on 24 February 1966 (Ghana 1966).

Leadership and Governance Structure in KNUST

As a corporate entity, the KNUST was established to achieve well defined objectives. The establishment law of 1961 (Act 80) provides that context, as spelt out in the preceding section. The context and organogram for leadership and governance are derived from Act 80 and the statutes of the University. With minor modifications the current corporate governance structure of the KNUST is very much in line with what was established by its mentor institution, the University of London. The antecedent institution, the Kumasi College of Technology, much the same way as the other post-World War II colonial higher education projects in Africa, was controlled in its leadership by expatriates that transferred unto the College a British higher education governance culture. Nonetheless, the government acting through the University Council pursued a vigorous indigenisation policy meant to create space for Ghanaians to eventually take over the leadership of the University.

During the period of affiliation, what was of primary concern was for the University of London to provide the required guidance for quality academic service. The governance structure that emerged in the Kumasi College of Technology was a familiar one; in which institutional autonomy was guided through an independent College Council, which was responsible for policy formulation. The founding Principal J. D. Andrews provided the initial linkage between London and the College in Kumasi. The extended period of the second principal W. E. Duncanson, who served from 1954 to 1960, helped in anchoring the Kumasi College of Technology within the community of technical higher educational institutions with acceptable standards (Pitcher, 1976).

The departure of W. E. Duncanson in 1960 and the assumption of R. P Baffour (the first Ghanaian head) as the Principal in 1960 and later as the first Vice-Chancellor in 1961 began the process of a vigorous effort at indigenising the management of the University. The funding of the University in all aspects, including scholarship for students was provided by the state. The state considered the institution as a public good that formed an integral part of the country's development agenda.

Nonetheless, the transition period was a difficult one. It was characterised by a clash of ideas regarding the intrusive path the government was pursuing on the one hand, as against the notions of academic freedom and autonomy on the other hand. It was the conviction of the government of the CPP government that a section of the academic staff of KNUST was abusing the tenets of academic freedom to pursue a political agenda (cf. Mamdani 2006). The political agenda in question was an anti-Nkrumah politicking that worked for a regime change. The government was also frustrated by the fact that KNUST was not keen in pursuing African Studies, which Nkrumah thought was necessary for bringing young undergraduates to appreciate their position in the global situation and for them to understand their roles in uplifting the status of the continent (Agbodeka 1998). The altercations that resulted between the government and academic staff of KNUST were decried within the academic community as being an infringement on academic freedom (Agbodeka 1998; Hagan 1994).

Despite the transition difficulties, the commitment to develop the indigenous academic class to take over from the expatriate staff was strong. The processes of building capacity of academic staff were similar to those of the University of Ghana; except that in the case of KNUST, some of the staffs were sent to Eastern Europe to train (see Mkandawire 1995). This was especially the case for engineering programmes. The Cold War-induced solidarity scholarship programmes provided by the Eastern bloc countries facilitated this process, as engineers were trained in Eastern Germany, Soviet Union, Poland and Czechoslovakia, among others.

The institutional governance structure of the KNUST was designed to largely ensure autonomy of the university as a higher education institution. The governance of the University is carried through the University Council, which is broadly composed of government appointees, representatives of academic staff, representatives of unionised groups in the University and students' representatives. In this governance structure, the KNUST has such key office holders as the Chancellor, Chairman of the University Council, the Vice-Chancellor, the Pro-Vice-Chancellor and the Registrar. Even though institutional autonomy has been at the heart of the liberal system that was bequeathed by the University of London, the implementation of the underlying principles suffered many setbacks in Ghana. The context within which national politics played affected the governance of the University.

Like many other higher education institutions, the KNUST has witnessed massive expansion in terms of departments, student numbers, faculty and programmes over the years. This has generated governance challenges pertaining to efficiency in the delivery of academic service. To deal with this problem, the University became the first higher education institution in Ghana to adopt the

collegiate system on 29 November 2004. The Colleges are headed by Provosts.

Under the collegiate administrative system, a semi-autonomous status is granted to the constituent colleges to be financially independent of the central administration of KNUST. The overall purpose of this arrangement is to bring efficiency into the governance processes through devolution of power in an expanding University.[24] The collegiate administrative system as it operates in KNUST consists of both a 2-tier and 3-tier academic/administrative systems. While in the 2-tier system, there exists a Provost and Heads of Department, in the administrative structure, the 3-tier academic/administrative system on the other hand, operates with the Office of Provost, Deans of Faculties and Heads of Department. The University is structured into six Colleges and these are: (a) College of Art and Social Sciences; (b) College of Agriculture and Natural Resources; (c) College of Architecture and Planning; (d) College of Science; (e) College of Engineering and (f) College of Health Sciences.[25] The authority structure in KNUST is depicted in Figure 5.1:
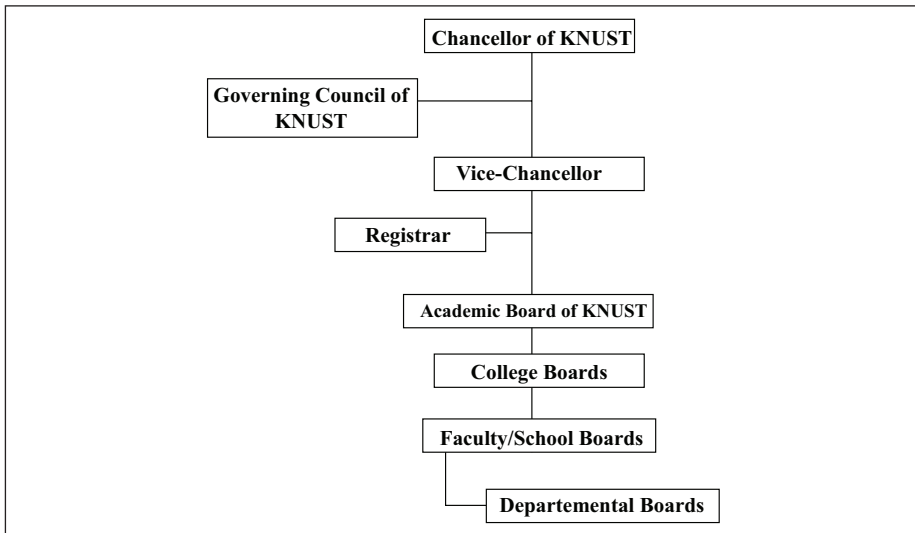
Figure 5.1: Governance Structure of Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology

The University Council of KNUST

The Governing University Council of the KNUST is the highest decision making body of the institution.[26] It is chaired by the Chancellor and in his absence, the Council Chairman presides over meetings. The University Council, just as it is the

case in the other public universities in Ghana, is mainly concerned with providing broad policy guidelines for the institution (Manuh *et al.* 2006).

The composition of the University Council is broad, with representation from its various constituent units. The University Council is composed as follows:

- Chancellor
- Government appointees;
- Vice-Chancellor;
- Pro-Vice Chancellor;
- Representation of Students' Representative Council (SRC);
- Representative of Conference of Assisted Secondary Schools (CHASS);
- Representative of Convocation (Non-Professorial);
- Representative of Convocation (Professorial);
- Representative of Teachers and Educational Workers Union (TEWU);
- Alumni Representative;
- Representative of University Teachers Association (UTAG);
- Representative of Graduate Studies Association of Ghana (GRASAG);
- Executive Secretary of the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE); and
- Registrar (The Secretary of the Council).

Academic Board of KNUST

The governance of the University is, however, carried out primarily through the Academic Board, which has the responsibility for:

1. formulating and carrying out the academic policy of the university;
2. devising and regulating the courses of instruction and study, and supervising research;
3. regulating the conduct of examinations and the award of degrees, diplomas and certificates;
4. advising the University Council on the admission of students and the award of scholarships; and
5. reporting on such matters as may be referred to it by the University Council.

College Boards in KNUST

The College Boards are constituted by Provosts, Deans and Heads of Department. The College Boards are organs for the implementation of policies that are reached

by the University Council and the Academic Board. The College Boards are responsible for directing academic programmes that are run in the respective Colleges and for the assurance of quality in the programmes that are rolled out.

Quality Assurance in KNUST

In line with the national policy of ensuring that universities prioritise quality assurance, the KNUST in 2003 set up the Quality Assurance and Planning Unit (QAPU) and placed it under the office of the Vice-Chancellor (Yankson 2013). The QAPU was established to deal with several challenges that tend to undermine the delivery of quality service. The challenges include, among others, the relevance of programmes, meeting the expectations of industry, increasing number of students, competition from emerging private and public institutions of higher education within the country, and cross-border provision of education among others.

The University has a vision of becoming the 'Premier Centre of Excellence in Africa for teaching Science and Technology … to support the industrial and socioeconomic development of Ghana and Africa;' and in line with this vision the University's Statute No. 47 caused for establishment of the Quality Assurance and Planning Unit (QAPU) (KNUST 2014). The QAPU, among other things, is charged with the responsibilities of data management, student assessment, and to interface with the national regulatory bodies like the NCTE and NAB; as well as other national and international quality assessing bodies.

The QAPU has an expanded influence in the University through a number of initiatives meant to build the capacity of academic and administrative staffs. This is mostly done through capacity building workshops that target newly recruited personnel, Heads of Department, Deans and other categories of staff in positions of responsibility in the University (KNUST 2010). To ensure that quality assurance issues are taken seriously, the QAPU has decentralised its operations by setting up College and Unit Quality Assurance Sub-Committees, which are manned by qualified personnel at those levels. In addition to this, the QAPU has also rolled out a policy of Internal Accreditation System (IAS). These Sub-Committees are designed to carefully review all documents for programmes that emanate from Colleges and Faculties; and to report the outcomes to the University's Academic Board before the documents are forwarded to the NAB. The University Web Ranking Committee was also formed as part of the quality assurance process to coordinate issues related to the international visibility of the University. As part of the efforts of assuring quality and visibility of the KNUST, the QAPU introduced

the Summer School concept as a way of continuing the professional education that would build the capacity of staff (KNUST 2014).

Academic Staff Capacity and Classroom Situation in KNUST

While the efforts made for quality assurance in KNUST are commendable, it is important to add that the quality that is sought depends on staffs' capacity, facilities and the organisational culture within the institution. It is significant for us, therefore, to examine the capacity of the academic staff that the institution relies on for the realisation of specified quality assurance objectives. Figure 5.2 provide us with a view of the highest academic attainment of academic staff.

Figure 5.2: Highest Academic Qualifications in KNUST

As shown in Figure 5.2, out of the 78 academic staffs that were covered, 59 per cent of them indicated that they were holders of Doctoral degrees while 41 per cent have Master's degrees. This suggests that there were still considerable percentage of the academic teaching staffs that were yet to meet the required minimum academic qualification of Doctoral degree for teaching in the university.

The professional ranking of the teaching academic staff in the KNUST is shown in Figure 5.3
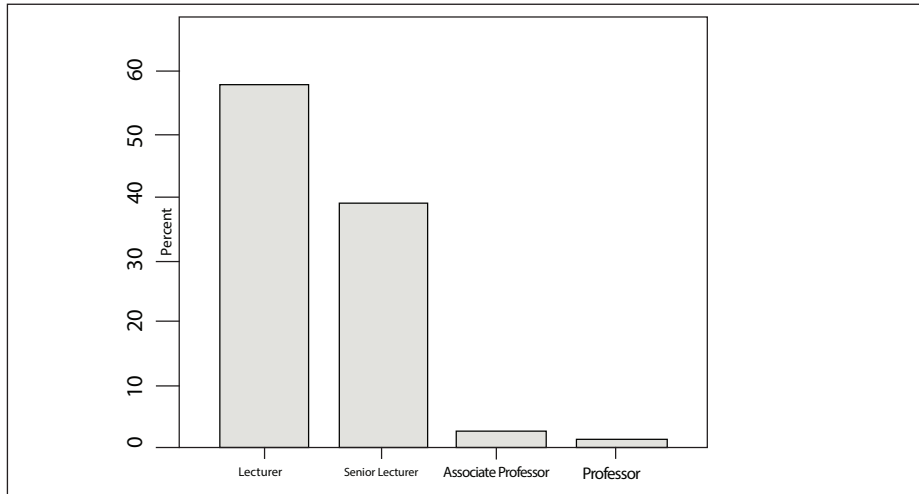
Figure 5.3: Professional Designation of Teaching Staff in KNUST

It is shown in Figure 5.3 that 58 per cent of the teaching staff is within the rank of Lecturers; 39 per cent fall within the category of Senior Lecturers. Associate Professors and Full Professors respectively constitute 3 per cent and 1 percent. This indicates that 42 per cent of the teaching staffs have adequately built capacity, through research work and publications, to have been promoted to the next rank of the professional order. This is normally the cohort of teaching staff that is available for teaching at the graduate level and for mentoring newly recruited teaching staff.

The experience acquired in the field of teaching is also an important ingredient in higher education staffs' capacity. The experience acquired over the years strengthens the individual lecturer's ability in dealing with such issues as in knowledge transmission, student guidance and skills for class management. Figure 5.4, provides us with an overview of length of teaching of the lecturers.
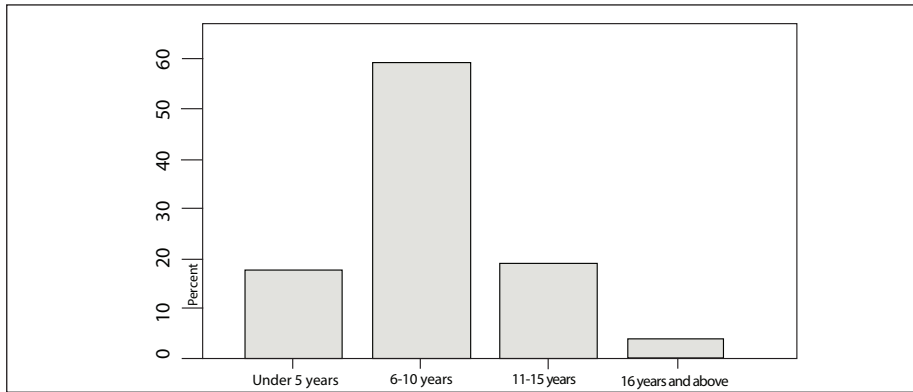
Figure 5.4: Length of Teaching of Academic Staff in KNUST

As shown in Table 5.4, the modal group with regard to the length of teaching is those who fall within the ranks of 6-10 years. This group constitutes 59.0 per cent of the teaching staff. While those who have taught for 11-15 years constitute 19 per cent, those who have taught for five years or less constitute 18 per cent. The most experienced group, that is the group that has taught for more than 16 years, comprised only four per cent of the staff. If we discount the under five-year group, we can state that the teaching staff is quite experienced. Those who have taught for more than six years constitute 82 per cent of the teaching staff. Nonetheless, the effectiveness of lecturers depends on some other factors; among which are: teaching load in respect of the number of courses that lecturers handle and the number of students they teach. These factors as they do occur in KNUST, and how they affect the teachers, are respectively shown in Figure 5.5 and Figure 5.6.
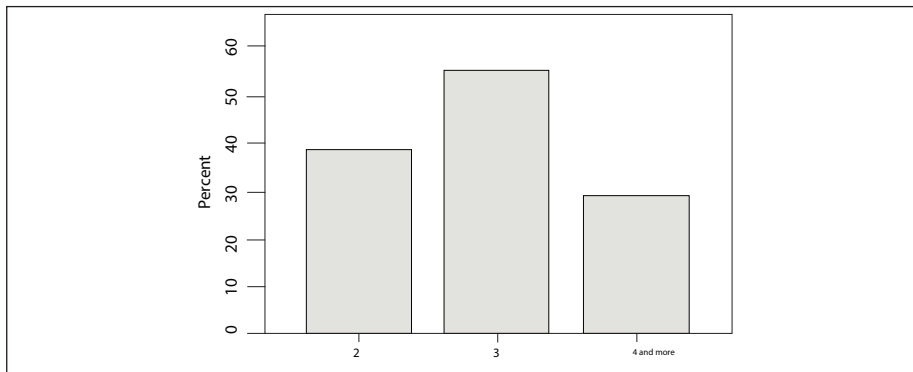
Figure 5.5: Number of Courses Taught Per Semester in KNUST

As indicated in Figure 5.5 those who teach three courses constitute 55 per cent of the lecturers. This is followed by 39 per cent of lecturers that teach two courses per semester and those who have the burden of teaching four courses or more constitute six per cent.
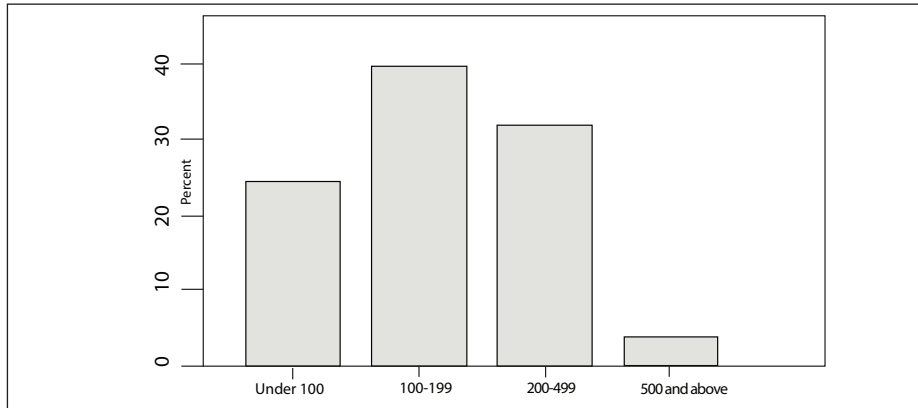
Figure 5.6: Average Class Sizes of Core Subjects in KNUST

It is shown in Figure 5.6 that those lecturers who teach core courses with class sizes in the range of 100-199 constitute 40 per cent; while those who handle core class sizes of between 200 and 499 students constitute 32 per cent. Those who teach core courses with numbers that are 500-plus are just four per cent. The indication is that 70 per cent of class sizes in KNUST are between 100 and 499.

As the size of classes can result in overcrowding and thereby interfere with teaching and learning, the effort to seek information from students on this factor became necessary. Table 4.1 indicates the responses of students as regards whether or not class sizes of core courses result into overcrowding in the lecture spaces.

Table 5.1: Whether Class Size Results in Overcrowding

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
Yes	76	35.8	35.8	35.8
No	136	64.2	64.2	100.0
Total	**212**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

As it is shown in Table 5.1, whereas 35.8 per cent of the students indicated that their classes get crowded, 64.2 per cent of the students, on the other hand, do not have problems with overcrowding in their lecture halls.

It is pointed out in chapter 4 that interactive teaching, according to Paulo Freire (2006) creates positive 'mutual humanisation' effect in the teaching and learning environment. Thus, interactive teaching facilitates knowledge impartation than what is otherwise the case through banking pedagogical approaches. In a multimedia environment, interactive teaching processes are enabled further by the deployment of requisite electronic media which creates the appropriate connectivity between teachers and students. It is for this reason that we sought to find out from the students whether class sizes affect interactive teaching processes. The statistics as captured in Table 5.2 reveals the students' view on this matter.

Table 5.2: Whether Class Size of Compulsory Courses Affect Interactive Teaching

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
Yes	17	38.6	38.6	38.6
No	25	56.8	56.8	95.5
Do not know	2	4.5	4.5	100.0
Total	**44**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

From this inquiry, it is shown that 56.8 per cent of the students responded 'no' to suggest that class sizes do not interfere with interactive teaching processes. However, 38.9 per cent of the students responded 'yes' to indicate that class sizes do interfere with interactive pedagogical processes. Apparently, 4.5 per cent of the student respondents expressed no idea by checking 'do not know' on this matter. Having dealt with some of the concerns that can affect quality service delivery in the lecture halls, the study moved on to investigate how some other factors also affect the output of lecturers. These matters are discussed in the sections that follow.

Effects of Classroom Situations on Lecturers' Output in KNUST

The outputs of lecturers are affected by classroom situations in many ways. In this section we examine some of these factors, which include: time spent on marking of examination scripts; the number of research papers written and published in a year. These cases are examined in turns.

Time Spent on Marking Examination Scripts in KNUST

The adoption of the continuous assessment model by higher education institutions in Ghana has worsened the burden of not only teaching large student numbers but also the task of continuous assessments through various test arrangements. Besides that, the examination arrangement in Ghanaian universities provide for an elaborate end-of-term examination. Here the weight of student numbers do manifest on the length of time lecturers spend on marking. Table 5.3 provides us with some insight on the time spent by lecturers in the KNUST in marking and processing results.

Table 5.3: Duration for Marking and Processing Examination Results

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Pe rcent
1-2 weeks	17	21.8	21.8	21.8
3-4 weeks	47	60.3	60.3	82.1
5-6 weeks	14	17.9	17.9	100.0
Total	**78**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It clear from Table 5.3 that 60.3 percent of lecturers spend 3-4 weeks in marking and processing of examination results. This is followed by lecturers who spend just 1-2 weeks for the same task. It is also indicated that a significant group of lecturers that constitute 17.9 per cent spend five to six weeks in carrying out the task of marking and processing of examination results.

The knock-on effects on lecturers having to spend extended periods for teaching and assessing students are varied. One of the obvious effects has to do with research output in the form of publications. Table 5.4 shows the number of peer review publications to the credit of lecturers.

Table 5.4: Number of Peer Reviewed Publications to Credit in KNUST

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
0-2	25	32.1	32.1	32.1
3-5	24	30.8	30.8	62.8
6-10	26	33.3	33.3	96.2
11 and more	3	3.8	3.8	100.0
Total	**78**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

As shown in Table 5.4, 33.3 percent of the lecturers indicated that they have 6-10 publications to their credit. While a cohort of lecturers, 32.1 per cent, have 0-2 publications to their credit, those who have 3-5 publications consists of 30.8 per cent. Lecturers that indicated that they have 11-plus peer review publications to their credit constitute only 3.8 per cent.

To investigate into the rate of papers written per year the statistics as shown in Table 5.5provide us with this information.

Table 5.5: Average Number of Research Papers Written in a Year in KNUST

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
0-1	42	53.8	53.8	53.8
2-4	22	28.2	28.2	82.1
5 and above	14	17.9	17.9	100.0
Total	**78**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

From Table 5.5 it is shown that more than half (53.8 per cent) of the lecturers, on the average, write 0-1 paper in a year, Those who write on the average of 3-4 papers in a year consist of 28.2 per cent and those in the higher bracket (5-plus) in terms of writing constitute only 17.9 per cent.

It is already pointed out that a fundamental principle in the academia is one that relates to lecturers' contribution to knowledge through publication of research findings. The rigorous processes for publication in peer review journals or books become an important ingredient for measuring the capacity of academic staff. It became incumbent in the circumstances to ascertain the average rate of publications in KNUST. The data available in Table 5.6 provide us with what the situation is in this regard.

Table 5.6: Average Number of Papers Published in a Year

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
0-1	60	76.9	76.9	76.9
2-4	15	19.2	19.2	96.2
5 and above	3	3.8	3.8	100.0
Total	**78**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is obviously the case that a large percentage 76.9 per cent of lecturers publishes averagely 0-1 paper in peer review journals per year. Again, it is apparent that those who indicated that they publish more than two papers in a year do not have the same success rate in publishing the papers they write. For instance, whereas those who stated that they write 2-4 papers a year on the average constitute 28.2 per cent, in Table 5.5 and in Table 5.6, the percentage that publish within this range dropped to 19.2 per cent. And the category that publishes 5-plus number of papers is only 3.8 per cent as depicted in Table 5.6. This drop in percentage should be compared with the 17.9 per cent that are able to write this number of papers in a year.

To find out from the lecturers what could be accounting for the state of affairs in their rate of publications, the suggestions in Box 5.1 are illustrative.

Box 5.1: Factors that Inhibit Research and Publication in KNUST

1. Teaching load enervates efforts at doing independent research work. Funding for experimental research is inadequate and it requires pooling resources from colleagues, in the face of a lack of dedicated donor support. (Lecturer, Department of Animal Science)
2. Fees charged by journal publishers tend to be a disincentive. (Lecturer, Department of Economics)
3. Carrying out research work with colleagues for the purposes of publication can sometimes be discouraging as free riding behaviour crops up (Lecturer, Department of Accounting and Finance)

Administrative Responsibilities and Impact on Academic Work in KNUST

Academic staffs in KNUST perform administrative duties in various capacities. These include headship of academic departments, units, students' residential management duties; and students' guidance and counselling responsibilities. The time spent in the discharge of these responsibilities take a certain toll on the academic output of the lecturers in various forms. We sought, therefore, to find out from the lecturers in KNUST the amount of time that they spend on administrative responsibilities. Figure 5.7 provides some indications regarding the average number of hours lecturers spent on administrative duties.
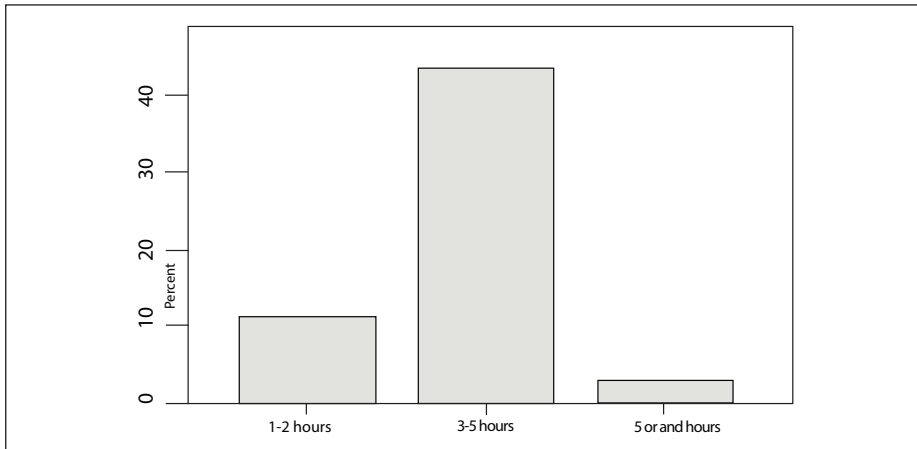
Figure 5.7: Hours per Day Spent on Administrative Work

It is the case that most (76 per cent) of the lecturers who have administrative responsibilities spend 3-4 hours per day on their duties. Those who spend 1-2 hours constitute 20 per cent and the lecturers who spend 5-plus hours represent 5 per cent.

To find out from those who have such responsibilities whether or not such engagements affect their performance in teaching and research, the data Figure 5.8 indicates the responses.
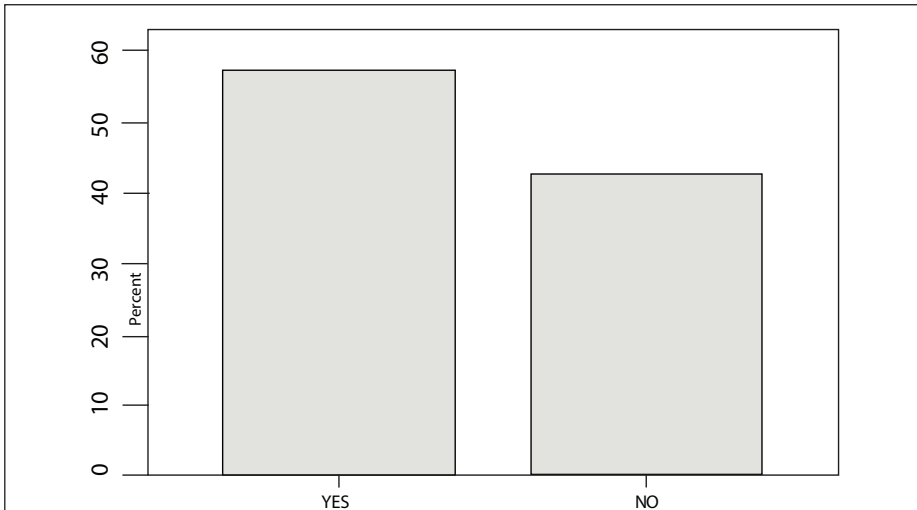
Figure 5.8; Whether Administrative Responsibilities affect Teaching and Academic Work

The evidence as shown in Figure 5.8 is that 58 per cent of the lecturers with administrative responsibilities in KNUST indicate that their duties affect their teaching and research output. On the other hand, 42 per cent of the respondents answered 'no' to suggest that their administrative duties do not have any effect on their academic and teaching output.

Box 5.2: Nature of Effects of Administrative Responsibilities on Teaching and Research

1. I get tired because of spending several hours in the office (Head of Department)
2. I spend hours attending to students' concerns in the Hall (Tutor, University Hall)
3. Commitments to administrative and teaching loads are physically and mentally demanding. It leaves very little space for continuous academic research (Head of Department)

Commercialised Programmes and Effects in KNUST

As discussed, public higher education institutions in Africa have largely switched into managerial mode that demands that various institutions operate to mobilise funds from their clientele. The leadership of the KNUST has thus put in place structures to run commercially driven programmes in a bid to generate funds for the institution. The Institute of Distance Learning (IDL) was particularly established in 2005 to champion the course of bringing higher education to prospective students who are unable to study on the KNUST campus in Kumasi. The IDL has campuses in all the ten administrative regional capitals in the country. The IDL rolls out a myriad of fee paying programmes to students in the regions who may otherwise not access university education. While the commercial services provided by the IDL are important sources of Internally Generated Funds (IGFs) for the KNUST, our interest in this section is on the parallel programmes that the University runs.

The KNUST is actively involved in running parallel and sandwich programmes. Specifically, the College of Humanities and Social Sciences and the College of Arts and Built Environment, are the key players in the parallel programmes, which the KNUST rolls out. The parallel programmes are normally run in the afternoons and evenings by the same lecturers who are responsible for the mainstream

programmes. All the parallel and sandwich programmes are fee paying for both undergraduate and graduate students. The KNUST School of Business (KSB) is a conspicuous actor in the parallel programme space. The KSB capitalises on the high demands for business-based programmes, to run courses that lead to the award of MBA, MPA and Commonwealth Executive MBA and Commonwealth Executive MPA degrees.

Several other departments in the College of Humanities and Social Sciences run parallel undergraduate programmes leading to the award of B.A and BSc degrees in such fields as Culture and Tourism, English, Economics, French, Geography, Law, Political Studies, Social Work and Sociology, among others. The College of Art and Built Environment also offers parallel undergraduate programmes for the award of B. A. degrees in such areas as Communication Design, Publishing Studies and Integrated Rural Art and Industry. All the parallel programmes are essentially commercial in nature, directed at generating funds for the University; as it also serves as income supplement for the teaching staff.

While the income from the extra teaching responsibilities are financially rewarding to the lecturers involved, the repercussions on the quality of academic service could be glossed over. The revelation of a lecturer at the Department of Commercial Law is indicative of the stress that the lecturers bear. He states that the long hours involved in teaching throughout the academic year 'limits the time available to focus on research activities.' Another lecturer in the Department of Social Work and Sociology bemoans 'physical and mental exhaustion' at the end of the day. Apparently, the lecturers involved in the commercially driven courses by their own accounts do not seem to have the time and physical fortitude to engage in activities that will help in contributing to knowledge. The institutional remedies for dealing with academic staff needs in KNUST so as to meet the various challenges within the institutional environment are addressed in the next section.

Capacity Building for Academic Staff in KNUST

The KNUST, as it is already indicated, has always had policies for building the capacity of its staff, and those of promising students. This has largely been carried out through scholarships for further studies in or outside the University. The obvious purpose has been to improve the scholarly capacities of beneficiaries for the challenges of academic and leadership roles. The necessity of pursuing staff development programmes is the recognition of faculty reproduction and acquisition of skills that are required in contemporary higher education environment. For the lecturers, staff development processes are realised through

the pursuit of higher academic qualifications and also through on-the-job training programmes. The desire for the acquisition of terminal degrees remains an imperative for those in the academia, especially when that constitutes the basic qualification for lectureship in Ghana. It is for this reason that queues for PhD sponsorships can be long, and the anxiety over delays can be frustrating. As part of conditions of service, the University has laid down procedures for meeting such needs. The implementation of such policies according to laid down procedures, however, remains matters of concern for those in the queue. To find out whether the laid down procedures for sponsorship are being followed, the views expressed on the issue are shown in Table 5. 7

Table 5.7: Laid Down Procedures for Academic Staff Development

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
Yes	48	61.5	61.5	61.5
No	14	17.9	17.9	79.5
Do Not Know	16	20.5	20.5	100.0
Total	**78**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

The evidence as shown in Table 5.7, regarding whether the laid down procedures are being followed, shows that 61.5 percent indicated 'yes' to affirm their position that the procedures are being followed. However, 17.9 per cent of the respondents thought otherwise. Those who 'do not know' comprise 20.5 per cent of the respondents, and this could possibly be explained by the fact that those who do not need to avail themselves of such opportunities may not be too keen on the developments on that front.

In-service Capacity Building in KNUST

As part of quality assurance measures in KNUST, in-service training programmes for newly recruited staff have been institutionalised. In-service trainings are conducted on regular basis to equip academic staff on matters that deal with teaching, research, publication, and on the ethics of leadership. The trainings are recognised by the KNUST internal quality assurance bodies, and the national regulatory bodies as an assured way of building capacities of staff to enable them function well in the academic world. The benefits that the respondents in KNUST indicated they derived from in-service training programmes are shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Type of Benefits from In-service Capacity Building Programs

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Improved teaching and research skills	49	62.8	62.8	62.8
Improved research skills only	19	24.4	24.4	87.2
Improved teaching skills only	6	7.7	7.7	94.9
No benefit in particular	4	5.1	5.1	100.0
Total	**78**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is shown in Table 5.8 that 62.8 per cent of the respondents said their benefit came in the form of 'improved teaching and research skills.' While those who indicated that they had benefited in the form of 'improved research skills only' constitute 24.4 per cent, the cohort that checked 'improved teaching skills only' comprise 7.7 per cent. The remaining group of respondents that indicated 'no benefit in particular' was just 5.1 per cent.

Prospects and Challenges of the KNUST

The strategic plan of the KNUST has a mission of creating an environment for research, teaching and entrepreneurship training in science and technology for industrial and socioeconomic development of Ghana. The prospect of realising this goal is greater today than it was the past. This is partly due to the operation of the corporate governance system of the University in an atmosphere of tranquility. The turbulence that had characterised the students' front has significantly ebbed, as the major stakeholders have come to accept the reality of commoditisation of higher education.

From its inception as the premier technical higher education institution, the KNUST has come to carry the burden of meeting the expectations of an underdeveloped country that seeks to accelerate its development process through technological and scientific breakthrough. The refocusing of the training regime to embrace entrepreneurship is meant to train new corps of scientists and technologists that imbibe business ethos to enable them become creators of jobs.

But the evidence of the University's ability to deliver on this mission is best shown by the capacity that is displayed by the lecturers. In the competitive technological age, it is obvious that the development gap between Africa and the rest of the world is a technological one; and hence research within higher

education is expected to provide that leverage for bridging the gap. But the commercialisation of academic programmes, especially the concentration on evening and weekend schools; as well as sandwich programmes has become so enervating for lecturers. The imperative to optimise on these additional teaching responsibilities for economic gains to the University and the individual lecturers leaves little room for effective research output.

The effort to deal with the shortfalls in academic service delivery through in-service workshops needs intensification, and the organisation of such workshops would be most effective if they are based on needs assessment.

6

University of Cape Coast

The Founding of Teachers' University

The University of Cape Coast (UCC) has indicated in its corporate strategic plan for the period, 2012-2017, a vision to '…have a University that is strongly positioned, with world-wide acclaim.' The mission statement espoused that:

> The University of Cape Coast is the University of Choice in Ghana. It is an equal opportunity university uniquely placed to provide quality education through the provision of comprehensive, liberal and professional programmes that challenge learners to be creative, innovative and morally responsible citizens. Through distance learning, it also extends expertise and facilities to train professionals for the education enterprise and business by employing modern technologies. The University constantly seeks alternative ways to respond to changing needs. The institution continues to expand its existing highly qualified academic and administrative staff, offering a conducive (sic) environment that motivates them to position the University to respond effectively to the development needs of a changing world.[27]

The UCC, which has a vision of becoming a globally acclaimed institution, was founded in October 1962. It is the third public university established in the country; and was founded under a Presidential fiat (Bening 2005). The intention to establish the university was first made by President Kwame Nkrumah at a durbar in Cape Coast on 5 November 1960. This declaration was made at the time when the government was very critical about the form the existing two higher education institutions – University of Ghana and the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology – had taken. The existing institutions of higher education were

seen as colonial implantations that required reengineering to enable them fit into the Ghanaian and African contexts (Bening 2005; Agbodeka 1998) .

The International Commission on Higher Education, which the government set up to examine the nature and future of higher education in Ghana recommended in its report for the establishment of a university college in Cape Coast. This recommendation was just to affirm what Nkrumah had already declared few months earlier. The proposed university college was to deal with a human resource gap, in respect of the training of teachers for second cycle institutions that constitute the vital link between basic and tertiary education (Manuh *et al.* 2007; Bening 2005; Agbodeka 1998). The existing institutions of higher education – University College of the Gold Coast and the Kumasi College of Technology were thought to be unequipped to undertake those specific tasks.

The accelerated educational programme pursued since the attainment of internal independence in 1951 led to the establishment of many public and private second cycle institutions across the country (Bourret 1960). Teachers with the relevant academic and professional competence were required from the universities to take up the challenge of teaching students in the second cycle institutions. The University College of Cape Coast was, as a result, meant to provide this connection, which was to generate positive multiplier effects to the national development process. Special attention was to be given to the training of science teachers as they were considered to be the critical corps of professionals that were required for development in the building of scientific and technological capacities (Atuahene 2013; Manuh *et al.* 2007; Bening 2005).

The UCC, unlike the two older universities, was started as a postcolonial project. And given the nationalist and pan-Africanist zeal of Nkrumah and the CPP government, the government was not enthused with the traditional idea of placing the newly established University College under the University of London. Doing so would have contradicted the very stance Nkrumah and his CPP government had taken, since their coming into power in 1951. The avoidance of a self-contradictory approach made it a compelling matter for the University College of Cape Coast to be placed under the University of Ghana for its mentoring period (Atuahene 2014; Manuh *et al.* 2007; Bening 2005; Agbodeka, 1998). This, subsequently, began a special relationship between the University of Ghana and the University College of Cape Coast that lasted from 1962 to 1971 (Bening 2005).

Growth of the University College of Cape Coast

The task of building the University of Cape Coast began from the scratch. The University College started in the buildings that were intended for the Osagyefo Training College (Bening 2005). Inadequacy of infrastructure and qualified staff constrained the ability of the University College to start on a large scale. The institution, therefore, started with only two departments, namely the Department of Arts and the Department of Science. These two initial departments were subsequently transformed into faculties in 1963. From A humble beginning, the growth process of the institution became pronouncedly visible with the start of the academic year in 1964. The University College then added two more faculties - the Faculty of Education and Economics and the Faculty of Social Studies. The institution was renamed the University College of Science Education (UCSE). Nonetheless, the name change was not backed by law, and as such it was not officially adopted (Bening 2005). The change of government through a coup with the subsequent formation of the government of the National Liberation Council (NLC) eased the renaming of the institution as the University College of Cape Coast on 1 October 1966. The revert to the old name was backed by law, which stipulated among other things that the University College was 'to produce graduate teachers for the secondary schools, teacher training colleges, polytechnics and technical institutes in Ghana' (Ghana 1967a:2).[28]

The law further stated the aims of the institution, which were generally similar to those of University of Ghana and the KNUST. In this regard, the University College of Cape Coast was to provide broad services that higher education globally exists to undertake: namely knowledge production through research, dissemination of knowledge and community service. However, it was expected of the University College of Cape Coast, in the law, to be guided by the following principles:

a. In determining the subjects to be taught emphasis should be on those which are of special relevance to the needs and aspiration of Ghana, including the furtherance of African Unity.

b. Higher education should be available to all Ghanaians who are capable of benefiting from it.

c. So far as practicable, students should be given understanding of world affairs, in particular of the histories of African civilisations;

d. Students should be taught methods of critical and independent thought, while being made aware that they have responsibility to use their education for the general benefit;

e. Research should be undertaken in all subjects which are taught in the University College but with special attention to the subjects which relate to social, cultural, economic, scientific, technical and problems which exist in Ghana or elsewhere in Africa;

f. Opportunities for higher education and research should be provided for students from other Countries, particularly countries in Africa;

g. The fruits of research and knowledge generally should be spread abroad by the publication of books and papers and by any other suitable means; and

h. The University College should develop close relationship with the people of Ghana and with other cultural institutions whether within or outside Ghana (Ghana 1967a:3).

There had always been a considerable opposition, within the ranks of the University College of Cape Coast staff, to its affiliation to the University of Ghana (Bening 2005; Agbodeka 1998). The preference was for autonomy of the institution or for the College's affiliation with some other university. The NLC government which was immediately confronted with this problem found a decoy, by appointing an Education Review Committee to examine the issue. The Education Review Committee, in its recommendation however played down the need for autonomy, by invoking quality assurance argument. The Committee indicated that at that stage of the institution's development…

> there should be a machinery for ensuring that a new university institution establishes proper procedures and achieves and maintains proper standards in order that its graduates may receive recognition by other universities and may be adequately equipped to play their role in the community (Ghana 1967b:104).

The task of determining the modalities, and the time, for the attainment of an independent status for the University College of Cape Coast was placed on the existing umbrella body for higher education in the country: the National Council Higher Education (NCHE). The NCHE thereby devised means for achieving the objective for autonomy. The autonomy for the University College was finally granted on 1 October 1971 on the recommendation of NCHE. The attainment of autonomy gave the University of Cape Coast the leverage to reposition itself within the comity of higher education institutions in the country. Thence, the UCC had seen substantial expansion of its infrastructure that enabled it to begin pursuing programmes that were not initially within its locus. In this instance, the School of Agriculture was established as the fifth Faculty in 1975. The Faculty of Science was split into the Schools of Physical and Biological Sciences during

the 2002/2003 academic year while the Department of Business Studies was also elevated to the School of Business from the 2003/2004 academic year (Manuh *et al.* 2007).

The aims of the University of Cape Coast as enshrined in Act 380 (1971), which granted autonomy to the institution, are:

a. To provide facilities for, and to engage in teaching and research and thereby to promote the advancement of and dissemination of learning and knowledge with particular reference to the needs and aspirations of Ghana, including the furtherance of cooperation between African States.

b. On proper terms, to hold out to all Ghanaians and other persons who, in the opinion of the University, are suitably qualified and are able and willing to benefit from the facilities it offers, the opportunity of acquiring a liberal and professional education befitting a University of the highest standing; and

c. That students should be taught methods of critical and independent thought, while being made aware that they have responsibility to use their education for the general benefit (Ghana 1971, 3.2).

Also under Act 380 (1971) the University was to perform such other functions as were necessary for boosting its aims. The University was, therefore, empowered:

> to provide instruction and to make provision for research and for the advancement of knowledge in such branches of learning and study, for such persons (whether members of the University or not) and such manner as it shall determine, provided that initially the University shall give emphasis to the preparation of teachers (graduate and others) for the secondary schools, teacher-training colleges, polytechnics and technical institutes in Ghana (Ghana 1971: 3.2).

The University of Cape Coast fundamentally rolled out programmes that were in tune with their mandate of producing graduate teachers in the arts, sciences and business in second cycle institutions. However, in response to the changing needs of society, the University has progressively expanded its scope by moving away from its original singular mandate of producing only teachers. In the PNDC Law 278 Section (3) (1), the Law seeks to expand the mandate of the University of Cape Coast with a provision that…

> The University shall provide instruction and undertake research for the advancement of knowledge in such branches of learning and study for persons whether members of the University or not and in such manner as it shall determine; except that the University shall give emphasis to the preparation of teachers both graduates

and non-graduates for secondary schools, teacher training colleges, polytechnics and technical institutions as well as the training and retraining of such specialised personnel as may be required for the effective provision of education service in the country.

What the law seeks to do is to allow the University to 'provide instruction and undertake research for the advancement of knowledge …that it shall determine' except that the University shall give emphasis to the production of teachers. Somehow a legal leeway was provided the University of Cape Coast, whereby the institution was to emphasise the production of teachers. But this time round, production of teachers was no longer the sole mandate of the University. Increasingly, the University of Cape Coast is invading into disciplinary areas that were the preserve of the University of Ghana.

Leadership and Governance Structure in the University of Cape Coast

The organogram of the governance structure of the University of Cape Coast is shown in Figure 6.1
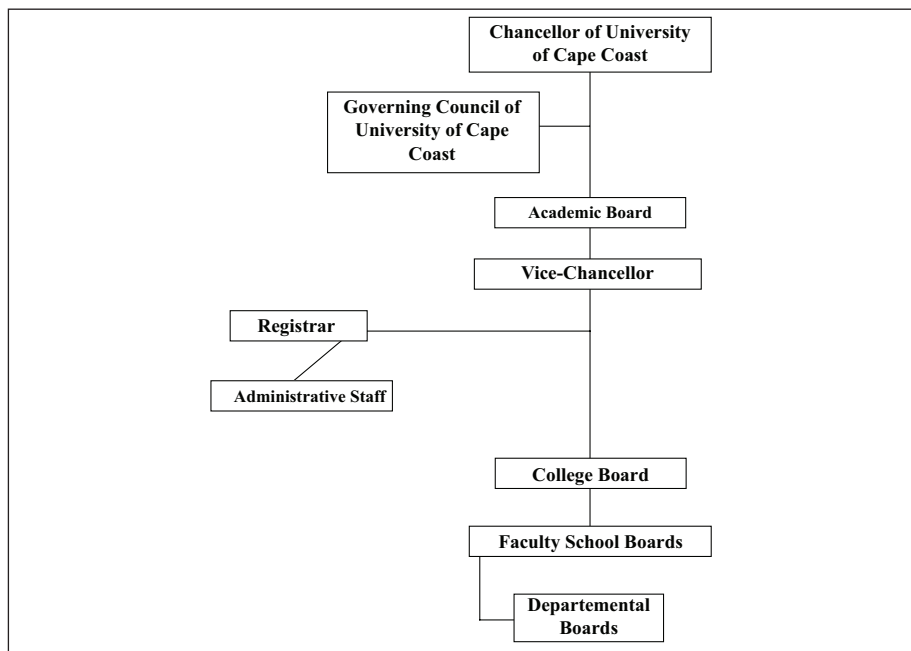
Figure 6.1: The Governance Structure of the UCC

Chancellor of the UCC

The titular head of the UCC is the Chancellor. As spelt out in Statute 7 of the University, the Chancellor is appointed by the Council; and holds office for five years but is eligible for re-election for a second term of two years only.

The responsibilities of the Chancellor are stated in Statute 7(1); and it is spelt out that the Chancellor shall be the head of the University and shall confer degrees. It is expected that the Chancellor presides at any ceremony of the University at which he/she is present. And once in every five years, the Chancellor is expected to appoint a visiting committee to inspect the work of the University and report to him/her. As the titular head, it is expected that the Chancellor shall be furnished with copies of minutes of Council and Academic Board. In addition, the Chancellor is entitled to receive other publications of the University, so that he/she would be adequately informed about developments within the University system.

University Council of the UCC

The University Council of the UCC constitutes the governing body of the institution. The Council is the policy formulating organ of the institution. And its composition reflects the broad representative approach that is adopted by public universities in the country. The composition of its membership is stated in Statute 14 as follows:

a. The Chairman
b. The Vice-Chancellor
c. Two representatives of Convocation, one of Professorial status, one of non-Professorial status
d. One representative of the University Teachers' Association (University of Cape Coast branch)
e. One representative of undergraduate students of the University
f. One representative of post graduate students of the University
g. One representative of the Teachers and Educational Workers Union (University of Cape Coast branch)
h. One representative of the Conference of Heads of Assisted Secondary Schools
i. One representative of the Alumni Association of the University
j. Three other persons, including at least one women

In Attendance at the Council's Meetings are:

1.   The Pro-Vice-Chancellor
2.   The Registrar
3.   Director of Finance
4.   A representative of Ministry of Education.

Functions of the University Council

The Council of the UCC is the highest policy making body of the institution. The Council in this respect is responsible for the management and administration of the finances and properties of the University. It has a general control over the affairs and public relations of the University including the use of the common seal of the University. Specifically the functions of the Council include the determination of expenditure necessary for maintenance of University property and for adequate staff necessary for transacting the academic, financial and administrative business of the University (University of Cape Coast, 2012).

The Academic Board of the UCC

The Academic Board of the UCC is composed of the broad spectrum of the academic interests of the institution. The Statute 15 of the University indicates the composition of the Academic Board to be as follows:

i.   Vice-Chancellor (Chairman)
j.   Pro-Vice-Chancellor
k.   Provosts
l.   Vice-Provosts
m.   Deans
n.   Vice-Deans
o.   Heads of Department
p.   Directors of Institute and Centre
q.   Director, Directorate of Academic Planning and Quality Assurance
r.   Librarian
s.   Chairperson of Convocation
t.   Professors/Associate Professors
u.   Senior Members who are also Council Members
v.   Registrar – Secretary
w.   The Deputy Registrar (Academic) shall be in attendance

The Roles of the Academic Board of the UCC

The Academic Board of the UCC has extensive powers granted it by the PNDCL 278 and the Statutes of the University to perform the following functions:

a. To formulate the academic policies of the University including those related to programmes of study, admissions, teaching, assessment, progression, research and award of degrees and other academic distinctions

b. To advise Council on the appointment of academic staff

c. To make recommendations to Council on the academic structure of the University

d. To consider and approve programmes and courses and recommend them for accreditation

e. To recommend to Council the affiliation of other institutions to the University on such terms and conditions as it may deem appropriate

f. To determine the conditions under which and the extent, if any, to which periods and courses of study and examinations passed at other Universities, places of learning and other institutions may be regarded as equivalent to periods and programmes and courses of study and examinations in the University.

g. To determine, subject to any conditions made by University's donors which are accepted by Council and report from Faculty or School Boards concerned, the mode and conditions of competition for fellowships, scholarships, bursaries, medals and prizes and any other awards

h. To determine the academic calendar

i. To refer proposals on any matter to within its remit to Convocation or administration and Social Services, as the case may be, for consideration

j. To review the decisions of any of its Statutory Committees

k. To undertake five-year reviews of the Statutes and to furnish its report to Council

l. To deliberate on the inspection report of visiting committees

m. To order the closure of the University where the academic or normal life is disrupted for three continuous days and it seems to it fit to do so and in any event to order the closure of the University where academic life is disrupted for 21 continuous days.

Even though the UCC is a postcolonial higher education institution, the leadership and its governance structures very much resembles the structures that exist in

the pre-independence institutions like the University of Ghana and the KNUST. It would be recalled that the University of Cape Coast was founded amidst the CPP government's criticism of the culture and the programmes that the British universities had transfused into their Ghanaian protégé institutions. They were variously decried opprobriously as ivory tower institutions that were disconnected from the African reality. The effort was to make a break with what was deemed to be an unsavoury colonial heritage. This was, in fact, the motivation behind the setting up of the 1960 International Commission on Higher Education to re-examine the nature and future of higher education in Ghana. The placement of University College of Cape Coast under the University of Ghana was to make it possible for an institutional transformation in the new institution in Cape Coast.

Collegiate System in UCC

The University has since 1 August 2014 adopted the collegiate system of adminis-tration. The collegiate administrative system was effectuated when the University Council gave approval for the establishment of five colleges. The colleges are: College of Humanities and Legal Studies; College of Education Studies; College of Natural and Agricultural Sciences; College of Health and Allied Sciences and College of Distance Education. According to a Senior Assistant Registrar of the University, Kofi Baah-Bentum, the collegiate system as adopted in the University of Cape Coast is to devolve some areas of administrative authority to the colleges as a way of bringing higher efficiency into service delivery. It is further posited by Kofi Baah-Bentum that the collegiate system would help 'to pool resources, strengthen potentials and provide opportunity to deliver better services to students' (Baah-Bentum 2014). It is clear that reasons for adopting the collegiate system in the University of Cape Coast are similar to those of the KNUST and University of Ghana.

College Boards of UCC

The Colleges have Boards that comprise the Provost as the Chairperson, Vice-Provost, Deans, all persons of Professorial rank of the College, and one representative of Professorial status from every other College. The Deputy Registrar for the College serves as the secretary. Matters decided by the College Boards would normally be referred to the Academic Board only for final approval. The Academic Board reserves the right to reconsider and vary any decision taken by a College Board. The College Boards have the power to determine the schemes of instruction, regulations and syllabi for examinations in the programmes of the

College. The College Board is also empowered to determine all matters relating to the progress of students following schemes of instruction, study and research within the College and to keep appropriate records on them. And in the decentralised governance system of the University of Cape Coast, the College Board has the responsibility of coordinating teaching and research programmes of the various Faculties of a College. Finally, the College has the responsibility of presenting to the Academic Board candidates qualified for the award of degrees (other than honorary degrees), diplomas, certificates, fellowships, studentships, scholarships, prizes and other academic distinctions within the College (University of Cape Coast 2012).

Faculty/School Boards in UCC

The affairs of each Faculty or School in the University are managed by a Board. The Dean of the Faculty or School is the Chairman of the Faculty or School Board. The other members of the Board are: (a) Vice Dean; (b) Professors and Associate Professors within the Faculty or School; (c) Heads of Department, Institute, Centre, Unit within the Faculty/School; (d) one member of each Department elected by academic senior members; (e) one representative from each other Faculty or School; a caveat is made that subject to the approval of the Academic Board other persons may be determined for membership of the Board. The Faculty Officer acts as the Secretary of the Faculty/School Board.

The powers and functions of Faculty or School Boards as stated in University of Cape Coast (2012) Statute 21.9 are:

a. To determine all matters relating to teaching and research in the subjects of the Faculty or School;

b. To determine, subject to the approval of the Academic Board, the schemes of instruction and regulations and syllabi for the examinations in the subjects of the Faculty or School;

c. To determine all matters relating to the progress of students following schemes of instruction, study and research within the Faculty or School and to keep appropriate records on them;

d. To ensure the provision of adequate instruction and facilities for research in the subjects assigned to the Faculty or School and to coordinate the teaching and research programmes of the various Departments or School;

e. To determine a code of conduct, professional dress code, disciplinary process and other matters relating to or uniquely associated with the discipline or profession concerned;

f. To hold examinations;

g. To recommend to the Academic Board External Examiners for appointment;

h. to make recommendations to the Academic Board for the award of degrees (other than honorary degrees), diplomas, certificates, fellowships, studentships, scholarships, prizes and other academic distinctions with the Faculty or School.

Departmental Boards in the UCC

Each academic department in the University of Cape Coast has a Departmental Board. All academic Senior Members in a Department are members of its Board. The 2012 Statutes of the University, defines a 'department' as part of a Faculty or School that is concerned with teaching and research in a recognisable academic discipline and has been designated by the Academic Board and is headed by a Head of Department (University of Cape Coast, 2012:7). The departments are directly responsible for the running of courses and academic programmes that are specific to a given field of academic endeavour. The departments in the University essentially form part of Schools or Faculties. The Departmental Boards meet to:

1. discuss ways of promoting discipline

2. periodically review existing programmes and develop new one

3. consider issues relating to quality assurance and the maintenance of ethical standards in the delivery of teaching and research activities

4. consider the general organisation and regulations of courses and research in the Department

5. consider the Departmental budget

6. consider matters referred to it by the Academic Board and other relating to the department

7. plan and evaluate work

Quality Assurance in UCC

In 2001, the UCC established an internal quality assurance unit, known as the Academic Quality Assurance Unit (AQAU), to provide a formal institutional framework and procedures for the provisioning of quality in its academic programmes. The definition of the role and focus of the AQAU was initially limited to only direct academic services (Yankson 2013; University of Cape Coast 2012). This conception was, however, expanded to embrace all services and

products that the University provides, which directly or indirectly affect its clientele (University of Cape Coast 2012). To ensure that the AQAU kept to its focus, the Unit was placed under the office of the Vice-Chancellor (Yankson 2013). It was, however, headed by a Director that was appointed and responsible to the Vice-Chancellor. With the redefinition of the concept of 'quality assurance' to embrace all services that are directly or indirectly delivered in the University, the Unit was in 2006 renamed the Directorate of Academic Planning and Quality Assurance (DAPQA). The DAPQA remained under the office of the Vice-Chancellor; but this was changed in 2012. Under the Statutes that were adopted in January 2012, the DAPQA was removed from the Vice- Chancellor's office and placed under a new Office of Dean of Academic Affairs.

The University's Statute 22(4) indicates the functions of the Dean of Academic Affairs to include the following:

a. Community engagement and extension services,
b. Quality assurance,
c. International education,
d. Continuing education,
e. Distance learning,
f. The University's affiliation with institutions of higher learning and professional bodies with rights of certification,
g. The University's basic and secondary schools.

It appears the placement of the Director of the DAPQA under the Office of the Dean of Academic Affairs is to provide the required platform for a more focused body that would deal with quality guarantees. A Board of the Office of the Dean of Academic Affairs, which consists of all heads of unit under DAPQA, had the responsibility of dealing with quality issues on all products that the University offers. These include such areas of activity as Community engagement and services; International education; Continuing education; Distance learning and the University's with institutions of higher learning. The purpose is certainly one of improving the intrinsic and extrinsic values of the University.

The strategic plan of the DAPQA identifies the various tiers in its responsibility matrix, and thereby has taken steps to include all the stakeholders (University of Cape Coast 2012). This effort has been facilitated by the decentralised mechanism of the collegiate governance system that became operational in August 2014. In the collegiate system the internal quality assurance mechanisms have been devolved to the Departments through the intermediary tiers of Faculties and the Colleges.

The ultimate role of the Academic Board in the scheme of quality assurance is recognised in the collegiate governance structure (University of Cape Coast 2012).

This approach as captured in the Strategic Plan of the DAPQA, for the period 2012-2017, envisages that quality service should be pervasive through the ownership of the processes by all actors (University of Cape Coast, 2012). The foundations for such approach are in line with the expanding scope of products that the University now provides. The University has become a leader in the provisioning of distance and continuous education and hence the need to extend attention to all sectors for quality. The University of Cape Coast also bears the burden of mentoring all the Colleges of Education that specifically train teachers for basic schools. The DAPQA is therefore tasked to deal with the following functions, to:

- Monitor academic programmes of the University in terms of their objectives, assessment practices and availability of human and material resources.
- Set up audit teams, periodically, to evaluate teaching and research activities of Departments and Faculties.
- Oversee the processing of examination results and storage relevant statistical data for determining trends and patterns.
- Monitor all processes and resources that directly or indirectly influence the teaching, learning and research environment.
- Organise seminars and workshops on quality assurance issues.
- Facilitate curriculum development/review processes.
- Conduct peer reviews.
- Facilitate workshops on research proposal writing.
- Commission institutional research to guide the relevant Boards/Committees to formulate policies regarding maintenance and enhancement of quality in all spheres of the university's endeavours.
- Monitor Research Facilities.
- Collate and publish research activities in the Faculties.
- Collate information/data and submit reports in response to requests from management or outside organisations.
- Liaise with corporate bodies to establish the relevance of curricula for national manpower development.

The matter of quality service, without it being nay said, hinges on the calibre of staff and the exigencies that are encountered in the course of work. We turn now to examine the capacity of academic staffs in the University and the context in which they work.

Existing Academic Capacities and Classroom Situation in the UCC

As a higher education institution, the capacity of the leadership at all levels constitutes an important ingredient in meeting the primary goals of its academic services. The core academic issues that the University of Cape Coast engages in relates to teaching, research and community service. In this section, we will look at the issues of capacity as they relate to the calibre of academic staff available to the institution. This will be done by examining (1) academic qualification of lecturers; (2) professional ranking, (3) length of teaching (4) research output and classroom situations. Figure 6.2 shows the highest level of academic qualification of the teaching staff.
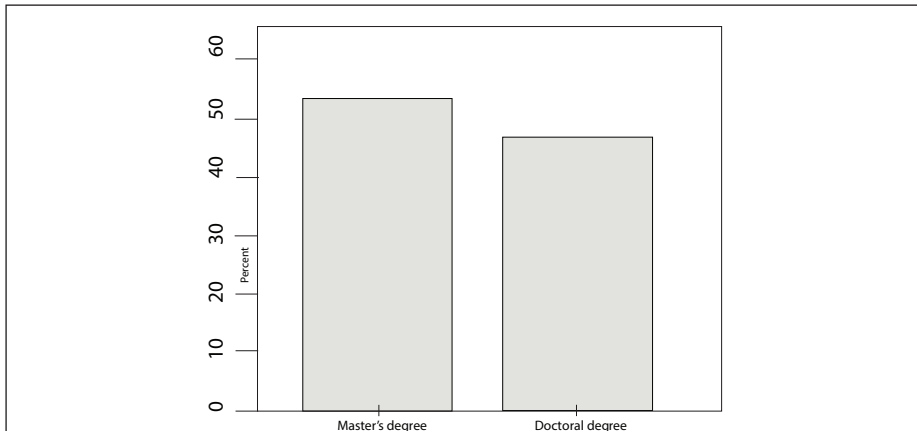
Figure 6.2: Highest Academic Qualification of Academic Staff

It is shown in Figure 6.2 that 53 per cent of the respondents have a Master's degree as the highest academic qualification, while 47 per cent of the respondents indicated that they had obtained Doctoral degrees. The indication of this is that more than half the number of respondents is yet to acquire terminal degrees.

While a Doctoral programme may expose a person to extensive literature in a given discipline, and may also sharpen the research skills of the holder, same may not be adequate for quality academic service delivery. A lecturer in the university is expected to engage in continual search for knowledge and contribution to the global knowledge through dissemination of research findings. The research activities of lecturers and the dissemination of findings are so important within the academic community that the publication of peer reviewed articles form a critical component

in academic staff professional progression. Thus, the professional rankings of academic staff in institutions of higher education provide a snapshot of the capacity that is available for quality academic service. Figure 6.3 provides us with an overview of the professional ranks that were captured in our findings in UCC.
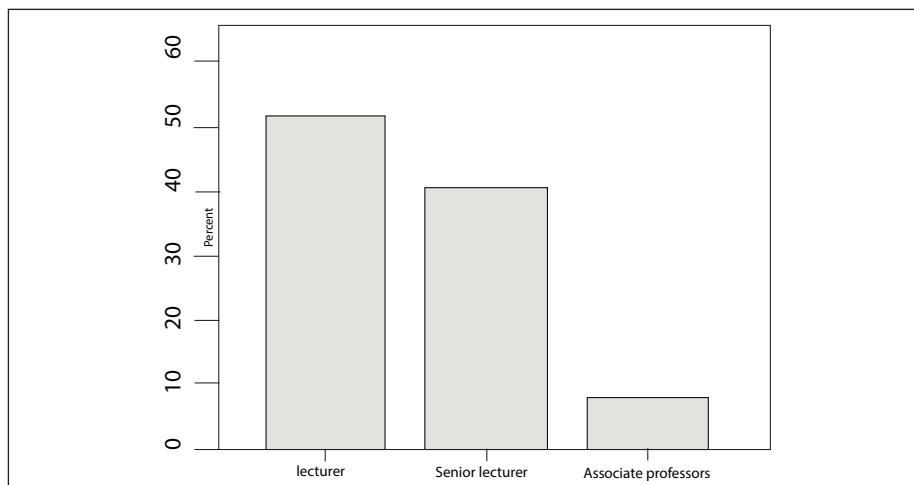
Figure 6.3: Professional Ranking of Academic Teaching Staff in UCC

As depicted in Figure 6.3, most of the teaching staffs are of the rank of lecturers. Out of 62 respondents, those who fall within the ranks of lecturers constitute 52 per cent. Senior lecturers number 25; and they constitute 40 per cent. Associate professors consist eight per cent of the respondents. The indication from the breakdown is that at least 48 per cent of the teaching staffs had conducted research and published creditably to be promoted to the next level of the academic rank in the University of Cape Coast. It is senior lecturers and those in the professorial class that are required for academic mentoring for new lecturers, and for the teaching and supervision of graduate work.

One other factor that affects the quality of staff in teaching, and in providing quality leadership, has to do with the experience gathered through the length of academic service. Figure 6.4 gives us an insight of the length of teaching of the respondents covered in the University of Cape Coast.
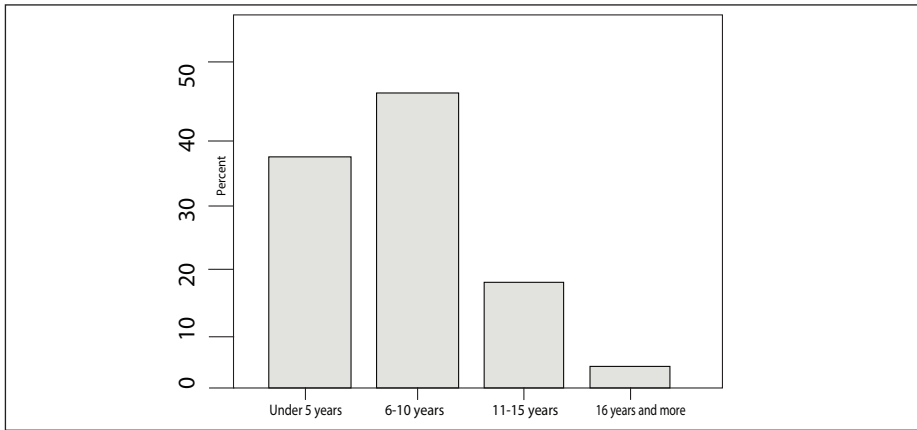
Figure 6.4: Length of Teaching Staff in UCC

Figure 6.4 shows that those who have taught for 0-5 years, form 36 per cent, while those who had taught for 6-10 years constitute 45 per cent. The cohort of teaching staff that had been on the job for 11-15 years, constitute 16 per cent. And those who taught for more than 16 years consist three per cent.

It is also found out that one other factor that affects the performance of lecturers has to do with the burden of teaching load. Here we considered the number of courses that individual lecturers teach in a semester. The teaching load for lecturers has implications on the time that is available for research and publications. Figure 6.5 depicts the picture regarding the number of courses lecturers teach.
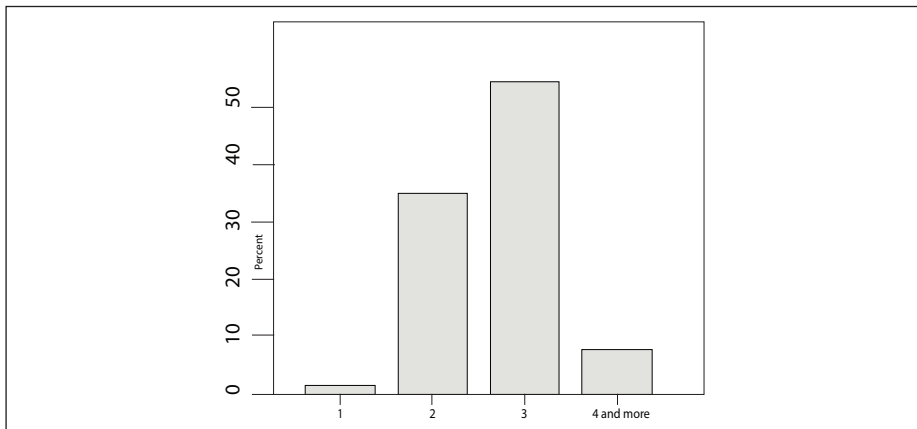
Figure 6.5: Number of Courses taught per Semester

It is shown in Figure 6.5 that while about 55 per cent of the lecturers teach three courses per semester, 36 per cent handle two courses. Those who teach four or more courses constitute eight percent, with only about two per cent of the teaching staff indicating that they teach only one course per semester.

But the tasks that lecturers are confronted with in the delivery of their services go beyond the number of courses they handle in a semester. One other factor that was examined was the average size of classes that the lecturers handled. Teaching involves knowledge transmission to heterogeneous group of students that constitute a class. Thus, in a class we may find students at various levels of cognitive abilities. The effectiveness of teachers in appreciating individual challenges depends, among other things, on the class size. It is pointed out early in this volume, (chapter 1), that the public universities in the country are often overwhelmed by large class sizes with resultant telling effects on both lecturers and students. In the case of the UCC, Figure 6.6 shows the average class size of core courses that lecturers handle.
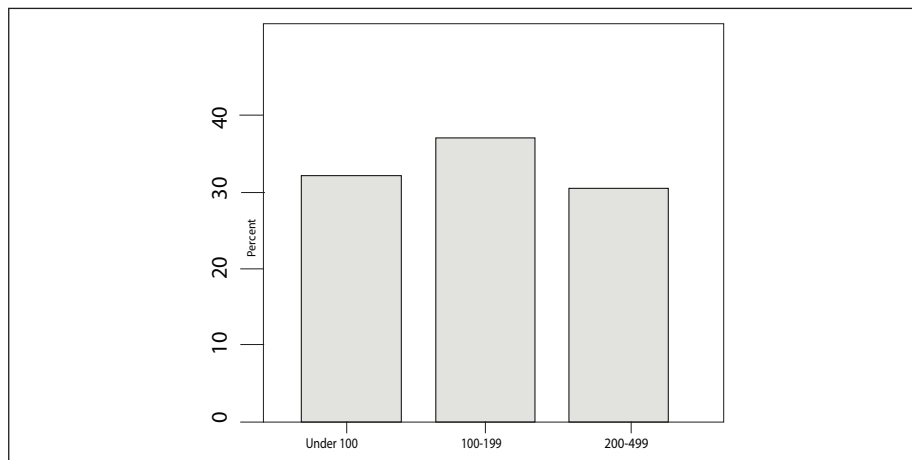
Figure 6.6: Average Class Sizes of Core Courses Handled by Lecturers

Figure 6.6 indicates that 37 per cent of the lecturers teach core courses that have class sizes of between 100-199 students. This is followed by 32 per cent of lecturers who stated that they teach core courses that have less than 100 students. Nevertheless, 31 per cent of the lecturers handle class sizes that are between 200-499 students.

The perspectives of students were sought about whether the classroom situations result into overcrowding in the University of Cape Coast. The findings are shown in Table 6.1

Table 6.1: Whether Class Size Results in Overcrowding

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Yes	131	58.5	58.5	58.5
No	93	41.5	41.5	100.0
Total	**224**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

The evidence as shown in Table 6.1 is that 58. 5 per cent of the students feel the classes are overcrowded and 41.5 per cent indicated otherwise. Interactive teaching has been identified as an effective pedagogical approach that enhances the learning process. Table 6.2 shows the data captured on whether class sizes of compulsory courses do affect interactive teaching.

Table 6.2: Whether Class Size of Compulsory Courses Affect Interactive Teaching

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Yes	115	51.3	51.3	51.3
No	89	39.7	39.7	91.1
Do not know	20	8.9	8.9	100.0
Total	**224**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is shown in Table 6.2 that 51.3 percent of the student respondents answered 'yes' to suggest that class sizes of compulsory courses do interfere with interactive teaching. The response of 39.7 per cent, of the students on this matter is 'no' while 8.9 per cent did say 'do not know.' It is clear from the responses given that the majority (51.3 per cent) of the respondents feel that class sizes do interfere with interactive teaching processes in the University of Cape Coast.

Effects of Classroom Situations on Lecturers' Output in UCC

The aggregate of the contributions individual lecturers make towards knowledge, through research publications, form a critical factor in determining the pedigree of universities. But the environment within which academics operate influences the output. In the section below we set to examine the issues that affect the research outputs of lecturers in the University of Cape Coast.

Time Spent on Marking Examination Scripts in UCC

The time spent on marking examination and processing examination results is influenced by the burden of the classroom situation. The higher education institutions in Ghana are confronted with the challenges of not only teaching large student numbers, but also the task of dealing with continuous assessment of students by various test arrangements. The duration spent on marking and processing examination results are shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Time Spent on Marking and Processing Examination Results

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
1-2 weeks	20	32.3	32.3	32.3
3-4 weeks	38	61.3	61.3	93.5
5-6 weeks	3	4.8	4.8	98.4
6 weeks and more	1	1.6	1.6	100.0
Total	**62**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

As shown in Table 6.3, those who use 3-4 weeks in marking and processing of examination results constitute 61.3 per cent of the respondents. This is followed by those who use 1-2 weeks for the same task. The rest of the respondents use more than five weeks and the summation of the percentage of this cohort is 6.4 per cent. The effects on lecturers having to spend up to four weeks for marking and processing examination papers can be varied. One of these relates to research output in the form of publications. Table 6.4 shows the numerical range of peer reviewed publications credited to lecturers.

Table 6.4: Number of Credited Peer Reviewed Publications in UCC

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
0-2	26	41.9	41.9	41.9
3-5	29	46.8	46.8	88.7
6-10	5	8.1	8.1	96.8
11 and more	2	3.2	3.2	100.0
Total	**62**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is shown in Table 6.4 that peer review publications credited to the teaching staff is that 46.8 per cent of the lecturers have peer review publications in the range of 3-5 papers. This is followed by 41.9 per cent of the lecturers who have 0-2 publications. Those who have more than six publications constitute 11.3 per cent. Whereas the statistics for the number of publications do not look impressive, we tried finding out whether a much more efforts were actually being made to write research papers. In Table 6.5 and Table 5.6, we are able to get some information regarding the efforts that are directed at writing research papers and the numbers that actually get published in peered reviewed journals or books.

Table 6.5: Research Papers Written in a Year in UCC

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
0-1	31	50.0	50.0	50.0
2-4	23	37.1	37.1	87.1
5 and above	8	12.9	12.9	100.0
Total	**62**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

The indications from Table 6.5 is that while 37.1 percent of the respondents write 2-4 research papers a year, 50 percent write 0-1 papers in a year. And those who write five papers or more comprise 12.9 per cent. Table 6.6 shows the actualisation of efforts into publications.

Table 6.6: Average Number of Papers Published in a Year in UCC

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
0-1	43	69.4	69.4	69.4
2-4	19	30.6	30.6	100.0
Total	**62**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

The case as depicted in Table 6.6 shows that as much as 69.4 per cent of the respondents are only able to publish 0-1 papers in a year. Those who indicate that they are able to publish 2-4 papers in a year constitute 30.6 per cent. Obviously, there are challenges that impede the rate of writing papers, and more importantly the rate of successful publication of papers. Some of the reasons adduced by the respondents in UCC are captured in Box 6.1.

Box 6.1 Factors Accounting for Research Output

1. Local journals are irregular and also delay in publishing papers submitted to them (Lecturer, Social Science Education)
2. Inadequate journals locally to address the needs of beginners in the academic publications (Lecturer, Department of Geography and Regional Planning)
3. Fees charged by publishers are on the higher side (Senior Lecturer, Department of African Studies)

Administrative Responsibilities and Implications on Academic Output in UCC

Just as it is the case in the other public universities in Ghana, academic staff in UCC, aside from their core teaching and research activities, also performs administrative duties. Some of these administrative responsibilities pertain to headship of departments, units, students' residential management duties; and students' guidance and counselling responsibilities. Those who undertake such responsibilities have to spend time discharging their academic responsibilities in addition to the administrative roles. We sought to find out from the concerned lecturers in UCC the amount of time they spend on administrative responsibilities. Figure 6.7 provides us with some insight regarding the average number of hours they spend on administrative responsibilities per day.
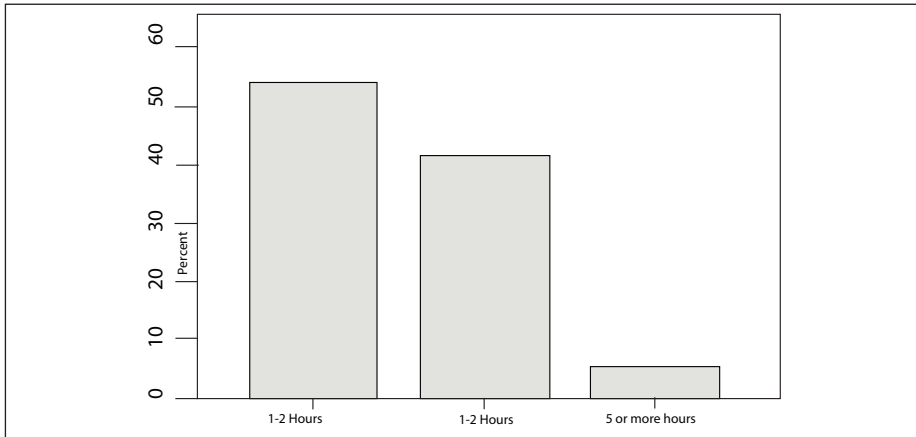
Figure 6.7: Hours Spent per Day for Administrative Responsibility

Out of 39 respondents who have indicated that they have administrative responsibilities, the indications from Figure 6.7 show that about 54 per cent spend 1-2 hours in the office for administrative responsibilities. It is also shown that 41 per cent in this category spends 3-5 hours; while 5 per cent spend even more hours per day. Without engaging in *apriority*, we sought to find out whether the hours spend on administrative responsibilities affect academic works of teaching and research. The evidence of the findings on this score is shown in Figure 6.8.
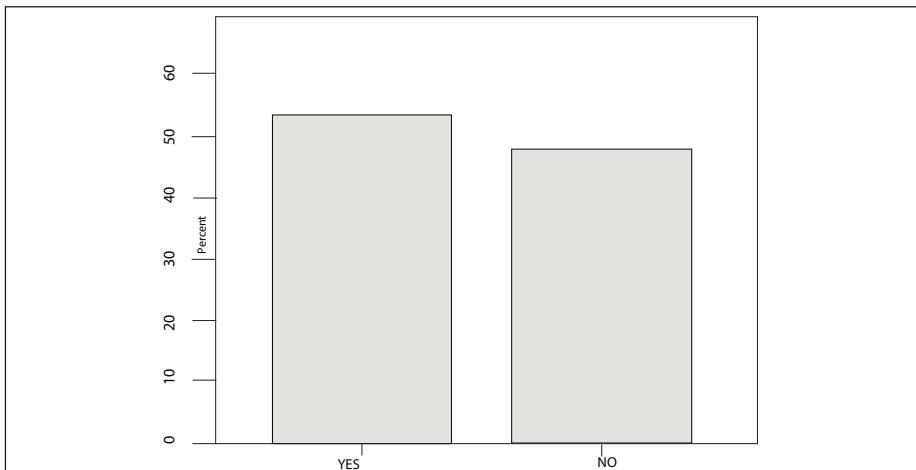
Figure 6.8: Effects of Administrative Responsibilities on Teaching and Research

It is shown from Figure 6.8 that 53 per cent of the respondents did admit that administrative responsibilities affect their core academic duties. On the other hand, it is indicated by 47 per cent of the respondents that the administrative responsibilities do not affect their core academic duties. Those who admitted that their administrative responsibilities do affect their academic work provided some insight regarding the nature of the interruptions. Some of these are captured in Box 6.2

Box 6.2: Types of Effect on Core Academic Responsibilities

1. Interruption of lecture periods by unscheduled meetings and engagements outside the University (Head of Department).
2. Responsibilities for the National Accreditation Board interfere with teaching schedules that have to be rearranged (Dean of Faculty).
3. Emergency duties in the Hall of residence sometimes affect class attendance (Hall Tutor).

Commercialised Programmes and Effects in UCC

The University of Cape Coast has elaborate sandwich programmes that are run for commercial purposes. The programmes that are run in the sandwich sessions are tailored to meet the needs of workers that would otherwise not be able to pursue full time higher education programmes at UCC. The key players in the sandwich programmes in UCC are: Faculty of the Social Sciences, Faculty of Education, School of Physical Sciences and the School of Business. These providers strive to meet the needs of students in programmes that lead to various forms of certification. The sandwich programmes in UCC are normally run in the holiday periods of December-January and also in June-July. The bulk of the sandwich activities are, however, rolled out in the June-July period.

As is the case in the other public universities, the sandwich programmes serve as important sources for fund mobilisation for the institution. With the wide range of programmes that the UCC brings on board for the sandwich sessions, many lecturers get involved in teaching during the holidays. Normally, the end of the sandwich sessions coincides with the resumption of regular sessions. This virtually turns the lecturers into carousels; as they move from one classroom situation to another.

The attractions of the pecuniary reward system serve as a strong motivation for lecturers' craving to be part of the teaching circus. The evidence of this is pointed

out by a lecturer in the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management who says 'it is difficult to ignore the financial rewards from these activities, even though it is mentally and physically exhausting.' This is corroborated by another lecturer in the Department of Accounting and Finance who stated that 'payments from the sandwich programmes help in easing the financial burdens that occur at the beginning of the academic year.' It is clear that the pull factor to be a participant in the sandwich programmes can be too overwhelming for a lecturer to resist.

The opportunity cost for committing all efforts to teaching has manifestation in low research output as depicted in Table 6.6. The sandwich factor in the academic service system is arguably one of the obstructing factors accounting for the low research and publications rates in the University. For a University that seeks to be an institution of choice and quality service delivery, the constraints of time unavailability could as well translate into the postponement of the realisation of that goal.

Capacity Building for Academic Staff in UCC

The UCC has pursued policies for building capacities of its staffs, and promising students. This has largely been carried out, through scholarships and sponsored study leaves for further studies in the University or outside it. The obvious purpose has been to improve the scholarly capacities of the beneficiaries for the challenges of academic and leadership roles. The necessity of pursuing staff development programmes is the recognition of faculty reproduction and acquisition of skills that are required in contemporary higher education environment. For the lecturers, staff development processes are realised through the pursuit of higher academic qualifications and also through in-service training. The desire for terminal degrees has been, and continues to be, an imperative for those in the academia. It is for this reason that queues for PhD sponsorships can be long. The University has laid down procedures for meeting such needs and hence the official documentation of the policy is not so much an issue. But the implementation of such policies according to laid down procedures remain matters of concern for those in line. It is for this reason that we sought to find out whether the laid down procedures for sponsorship opportunities are being followed. The views of respondents on this issue are shown in Table 6. 7

Table 6.7: Laid Down Procedures for Academic Staff Development

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
Yes	46	74.2	74.2	74.2
No	9	14.5	14.5	88.7
Do not know	7	11.3	11.3	100.0
Total	**62**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is shown in Table 6.7 that 74.2 per cent of the respondents indicated that the laid down procedures for staff development are being followed. But it is the view of 14.5 per cent of the respondents that such procedures are not being followed. For 11.5 per cent of the respondents, no particular views were expressed, as they checked 'do not know.' The 'do not know category response may be from lecturers who do have interest in the subject matter as they may already have such expectations fulfilled.

In-Service Capacity Building in UCC

In-service training programmes have become a regular feature of university governance in Ghana. The DAPQA in UCC organises in-service workshops on identified thematic issues to cater for staffs' needs. Table 6.8 depicts the benefits respondents indicate they derive from the in-service training programmes they attended.

Table 6.8: Mode of Benefit of In-service Training in UCC

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative %
Improved teaching and research skills	38	61.3	61.3	61.3
Improved research skills only	16	25.8	25.8	87.1
Improved teaching skills only	3	4.8	4.8	91.9
No benefit in particular	5	8.1	8.1	100.0
Total	**62**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

As shown in Table 6.8, 61.3 per cent of the respondents indicated that the benefit they derived is in the form of 'improved teaching and research skills.' However, it is checked by 25.8 per cent of the lecturers that their benefit is in the form of

'improved research skills only.' Those who posited that the benefit they got was in the form of 'improved teaching only' constitute 4.8 per cent. The low percent of those who benefit from 'improved teaching only' could be attributed to the fact that UCC is mainly a higher education institution devoted to the training teachers. It is also important to note that 8.1 percent of the lecturers did state that they derived 'no benefit in particular.'

Prospects and Challenges of UCC

The UCC was originally established to serve as a higher education institution for training teachers. But its mandate has since 1992 been expanded to meet the challenges of human resource needs of the country. The UCC has a vision to become an institution that is strongly positioned in the global comity of higher education institutions. The drive to realise this vision is connected to the University's pioneering role in institutionalising quality assurance in Ghana's higher education landscape.

But the UCC had not been immune to the malaise of students' unrest that affected the public universities. Student protests that previously interrupted academic calendars have significantly abated. The emerging tranquillity has paved way for a corporate governance system that operates in a germane environment for academic service delivery. The acceptance of fee paying in UCC has enabled the institution to engage extensively in sandwich and distance education programmes. However, the negative implications of the moonlighting activities of lecturers on their research output are obvious. The pull to generate funds for the University and for the individual lecturer's accumulation needs have led to continuous teaching with limited time. The prospect of transforming the UCC into a world-acclaim university of choice may not be realised any time soon, if the unceasing engagement of lecturers' time for teaching is not addressed.

7

University for Development Studies

Establishing University in Northern Ghana

The establishment of the University for Development Studies (UDS) in May 1992 was to bring to a conclusion the long held view that the northern sector of Ghana needed an institution of higher education that could catalyse the development of human resources in the area. In many respects, northern Ghana lags behind the rest of the country, in terms of infrastructural development and access to education (Gasu & Akakpo 2011). The quest for higher education in this part of the country was meant to help in training human resources needed for bridging the development gap that exists between the south and north. The development gap was created by the colonial governance system; and was subsequently perpetuated by the postcolonial governance systems (Songsore & Denkabe 1995). The framers of the PNDC Law 279 which established the University clearly had in mind the notion that the institution would be of massive extrinsic value to the peoples of the north, especially as the mandate of the University identifies with the peculiar conditions of underdevelopment and pervasive poverty of the area.

The genealogy of the UDS can, however be traced to the early 1950s. On 13 November 1953, a concern was raised in the Gold Coast Legislative Assembly by Dr. Ansah Koi that it was necessary to speed up the development of not only secondary school education in the north; but more importantly that there should also be a consideration for the establishment of an institution of higher education (Bening 2005). A year later, on 9 November 1954, a representative from the Northern Territories, B.K. Adama asked a specific question in the Legislative Assembly pertaining to when a College of Technology (a replica of

what was in Kumasi) was going to the built in northern Ghana. But the response from government to his concern was that the Kumasi College of Technology was set up for the whole country and the need for an additional one had not arisen (Bening 2005). While these early calls for the establishment of higher education in northern Ghana may be legitimate, the reality on the ground was that colonial policy, which did not encourage education in the north, had impacted negatively on the establishment of formal educational institutions in this part of the country (Songsore & Denkabe 1995). For instance, it was not until January 1951 that the first public secondary school was founded in northern Ghana, in its administrative capital of Tamale. The lack of secondary schools that could serve as feeders for the envisaged university partly accounted for prolonged lukewarm attitudes towards the idea.

However, in the early 1960s, there were opportunities in the country for the establishment of new institutions of higher education that the promoters for such projects could exploit. There was evidence that Nkrumah, and his government, were dissatisfied with the nature of the existing universities and the programmes that were being run. One of such concerns raised by the government was about the duplication of programmes in Agriculture at University of Ghana and KNUST, which were respectively located in Accra and Kumasi. To address this problem, it was proposed by government that the two Agriculture faculties should be merged into one Central College of Agriculture (Bening 2005; Agbodeka 1998). As was the practice regarding the siting of higher education institutions in the country, the location of the proposed Agricultural College became a matter of controversy. Many locations were subsequently considered and these included Somanya in southern Ghana, Kwadaso in the Ashanti Region (central Ghana) and Nyankpala (northern Ghana). Even though Somanya was chosen as the site for the proposed institution, there had been an immense lobbying championed by the Regional Commissioner for the Northern Region, Mumuni Bawumia, to locate the institution in Tamale. This request from Mumuni Bawumia fell through though. But the failure to have the Agricultural College located in the north did not deter Bawumia from persisting thenceforward. The advocacy for the establishment of higher education in northern Ghana virtually became Bawumia's personal crusade on the governments that came after Nkrumah (Bening 2005).

The type of university that was demanded for northern Ghana had always been for an archetypal American Land Grant agriculture biased institution that would focus on developing that potential in its catchment area (NCHE, 1978). It was this narrow focus on agriculture that mainly stalled the early establishment of a university in the north, as similar demands for an agriculture- biased higher

education were made from the other ecological zones of the country. It is important to add that until the 1970s, the focus on the development of agriculture in the country was mainly directed at the tropical rain-forest zones of southern Ghana. As a result of the competition that emerged for an agriculture-based higher education, it turned out that the political muscle of the elite from the south clearly outmatched those from the north.

This situation was created by the late entry of the Northern Territories into mainstream national politics. The integration of the Northern Territories into the mainstream Ghanaian politics delayed until 1951. This resulted in weak bargaining power for the northern political elites, as compared with the more politically sophisticated class from the south. It was not until the mid-1970s that then military Head of State, Colonel (later General) Ignatius Acheampong, in his Operation Feed Yourself (OFY) agricultural policy, that they prioritised the production of grains and cereals; which the ecology and topography of the north was most suitable for. This brought into prominence the agricultural potential of the north.[29] An audience now existed to pay attention to the persistent demands for establishing an agriculture based university in northern Ghana. To set the plans rolling for such a university, a Committee was appointed by Gen. Acheampong to examine the feasibility of the northern Ghana university project. While an approval was given for its establishment, the project never saw the light of day. Political instability that jostled Gen. Acheampong, its principal architect, out of power botched its implementation. The period, 1970s and early 1980s, witnessed massive economic dislocation in Ghana; and the situation subdued any interest in the university project (Hutchful 2002).

It was only when some restoration of the economic health of the country occurred in the late 1980s, through the implementation of the SAPs, that a revisit to matters concerning the establishment of a university in northern Ghana was countenanced (Hutchful 2002; Nugent 1995). The URC that had examined the general state of higher education in the country made recommendations for the establishment of a university in northern Ghana (URC 1988). By 1990, it became apparent that the government was willing to finally push the agenda of a northern university to its logical completion. Thence, a Task Force was set up by the government to re-examine the nature of the proposed university. The blueprint of the Task Force provided the philosophy of the proposed university. This time around, the focus was shifted away from the narrow concept of an agriculture biased institution to a more generic notion of establishing a higher education with development focus of which agricultural programmes would only be a part (Bening 2005).

In placing development at the centre of the mandate of the proposed university, the name of the new institution was appropriately taken as the University for Development Studies (UDS). By its name and mandate, the extrinsic worth of the institution was to be emphasised so as to deal with the socioeconomic challenges of its locational area. This was to be realised through a positive interface between the university and the local communities. The UDS was envisaged to serve as a bridgehead between abstruse theoretical academic enterprise, which all universities are wont to; and a practical engagement of students and faculty through community service. The University would, thus in a practical way, help in erasing the backward tag of the north (UDS 2008).

The developmental role of the institution is espoused explicitly in the founding legal framework, which is the PNDC Law 279. The Law stipulates, among other things, that the UDS should 'blend the academic world with that of the community in order to provide constructive interaction between the two for the total development of Northern Ghana, in particular, and the country as a whole' (PNDC Law 279, Section 2). The essence of the institution is captured by its first Registrar, Paul Effah, that 'UDS was borne out of the new thinking in higher education which emphasises the need for universities to play a more active role in addressing problems of the society, particularly in the rural areas (Effah, 1998). It is this conviction about the new role of universities that is reflected in its vision as being the University that is envisaged to be a 'Home of World Class Pro-Poor Scholarship' (UDS 2008). Indeed the motto of the University 'Knowledge for Service' provides an apropos encapsulation of the whole import of the institution.

The Idea and Implementation of Multi-campus University

As indicated, the idea of setting up a university in northern Ghana that would be accessible to the people, and relevant in addressing the development challenges of the area had always been a persistent call. One other form that the demands took was that the existing agriculture institutions dotted across the savannah ecological zone of northern Ghana could be amalgamated on the basis of a multi-campus arrangement into one university. These prior demands for a development oriented university and the possibility of multi-campus federated university were to become the definitive character of the UDS when it started academic programmes in 1993. Even so, the implementation of the multi-campus arrangement, based on the foundation faculties was mired in politics and this, to some extent, invoked inter-regional altercations. The triggers for the contestations that emerged were largely out of the calculations of the perceived social and economic benefits that could accrue to the sites that hosted particular faculties.

As it turned out, the blueprint of the Task Force assigned the responsibility of working out the framework for the establishment of the University based its recommendations on the concept of a multi-campus institution. In this regard, campuses were to be set up in the four administrative regions that were to benefit from the multi-campus arrangement, namely: Brong Ahafo, Northern, Upper East and the Upper West. However, the Task Force did not provide definite sites for the founding faculties; but left its determination to the governing board of the institution. Aside from the common understanding that the University was to be headquartered in Tamale, which facilitated the siting of the Faculty of Agriculture in Tamale and later in Nyankpala, the location of the rest of the faculties became matters of controversy and politicking[30] The expected benefits were not limited to economic issues alone but also the psychosomatic gratification that was associated with hosting a university campus. After going through a period of turbulence regarding where the original faculties were to be located, the UDS has largely transcended that phase and has currently settled with campuses located in Tamale (headquarters), Nyankpala, Navrongo and Wa.

The University started academic programmes in September 1993; when 39 students were admitted into the Bachelor of Technology programme in Agriculture (UDS, 2008; Manuh *et al.* 2007). The students were initially admitted into a borrowed premise that belonged to the Islamic Secondary School in Tamale. This was the situation until the students were moved to their destined campus at Nyankpala. The facility at Nyankpala was inherited from a defunct Agricultural College that had trained extension officers for the Ministry of Agriculture. Due to its proximity to the city of Tamale, Nyankpala was identified by the Task Force as one of the sites for the University; and was expected to be a key player in hosting the pioneering faculties. The Nyankpala campus was thus started in an inherited facility; as the University began without any edifice built for that purpose.

In 1994, the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies (FIDS) was also started as an additional faculty in Tamale. Again, the facility at Islamic Secondary School was available to be used for the start of the second faculty: the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies. But the facilities at the Islamic Secondary School were not particularly fit for higher education purposes. The students were as a result confronted with many challenges, which included the lack of basic municipal services. Meanwhile, the hosting of UDS students in the Islamic School started to spark apprehensions among the Islamic youth about whether the University was employing subtleness to dislodge them from their property. The anxieties that surfaced among the Islamic youth were expressed in the form of press conferences and demonstrations against the government and the management of the University (Bening 2005).

This necessitated the transfer of the pioneering students of the Faculty of Integrated Development Studies (FIDS) by the University's management to Navrongo where another facility, belonging to Integrated Field Communication for Agriculture Training (IFCAT), had been identified by the Task Force as one of the sites for a campus. Notwithstanding the agitations that arose in Tamale against the hosting of FIDS at the Islamic Secondary School, the transfer of the Faculty to Navrongo caused lots of discomfort within the Tamale metropolis. The protest in Tamale against the administrative solution that was taken by the UDS leadership was given negative spin. This was championed by those who were opposed to the relocation of the campus outside Tamale. Although protests and deputations to that effect were sent to the seat of national government against the relocation of FIDS to Navrongo, the Faculty remained in Navrongo until September 2002, when the Faculty was again moved from Navrongo to Wa. The movement of FIDS from Navrongo, in the Upper East Region to Wa in the Upper West Region, as should be expected, was greeted with protests.

This time around, the protest was from the Regional House of Chiefs in the Upper East Region that came to appreciate the contribution of the students to their immediate communities especially through the University's flagship programme of the Third Trimester Field Practical Programme (TTFPP). But just as the earlier protests against the movement of the Faculty from Tamale did not result in a reversal of the decision, so was it in 2002. The Faculty of Applied Sciences (FAS), which was initially in Tamale as a service faculty to the Faculty of Agriculture and the School of Health and Allied Sciences, came to replace FIDS in Navrongo. The hosting of FIDS in Wa was facilitated by two major stakeholders: the Upper West Regional Coordinating Council (RCC) and the Upper West House of Chiefs. In the absence of any suitable facility that the University could take advantage of, the Upper West RCC released its newly constructed office infrastructure to the University. In addition, the Regional House of Chiefs made available its auditorium to the University. The availability of these basic structures facilitated the start of FIDS in Wa, as students found accommodation in town.

The transfer of FAS to Navrongo paved the way for the Faculty to begin its own independent programmes, even as it continued to perform its other service responsibilities to the other science-based faculties. The successful transfer of FIDS to Wa and the movement of FAS to Navrongo has largely brought an end to the uproar that had been associated with the movement of the faculties. It also helped in getting over the conception that campuses at various locations were tied to single faculties. The later decisions by the leadership to expand the University by introducing new faculties and schools have helped in dispelling the initial fears.

The UDS currently has seven faculties, three Schools and a Centre for Continuing Education and Interdisciplinary Research that operate on four campuses located in Tamale, Wa, Nyankpala and Navrongo. The Wa campus hosts not only FIDS but also the Faculty of Planning and Land Management (FPLM) and the School of Business and Law (SBL). Tamale serves as the administrative nerve-centre and in addition are School of Medicine and Health Sciences (SMHS), Graduate School, Faculty of Education (FoE) and the Centre for Continuing Education and Interdisciplinary Research (CCEIR). At the Nyankpala campus are the following: Faculty of Renewable Natural Resources (FRNR), Faculty of Agriculture (FoA) and the Faculty of Agribusiness and Communication Sciences (FACS). At Navrongo in the Upper East Region are Faculty of Applied Sciences (FAS) and the Faculty of Mathematical Sciences (FMS). The administrative trauma of where to locate faculties had been destabilising but current developments within the UDS have come to establish the situation as a *fait accompli*.

Governance Structure of the UDS

Even though the UDS shares many governance features with the rest of the public universities, the institution differs from the rest in respect of the fact that UDS has never been placed under the tutelage of any existing higher education institution. It is also the case that the UDS has never had a Chancellor to perform titular functions since its inception. The ultimate executive decision making authority in the University has therefore been performed by the Chairman of the University Council. It is worth indicating that the UDS, unlike the other public universities in this volume, is yet to start operating a collegiate system.[31] The governance structure of the UDS is shown in Figure 7.1
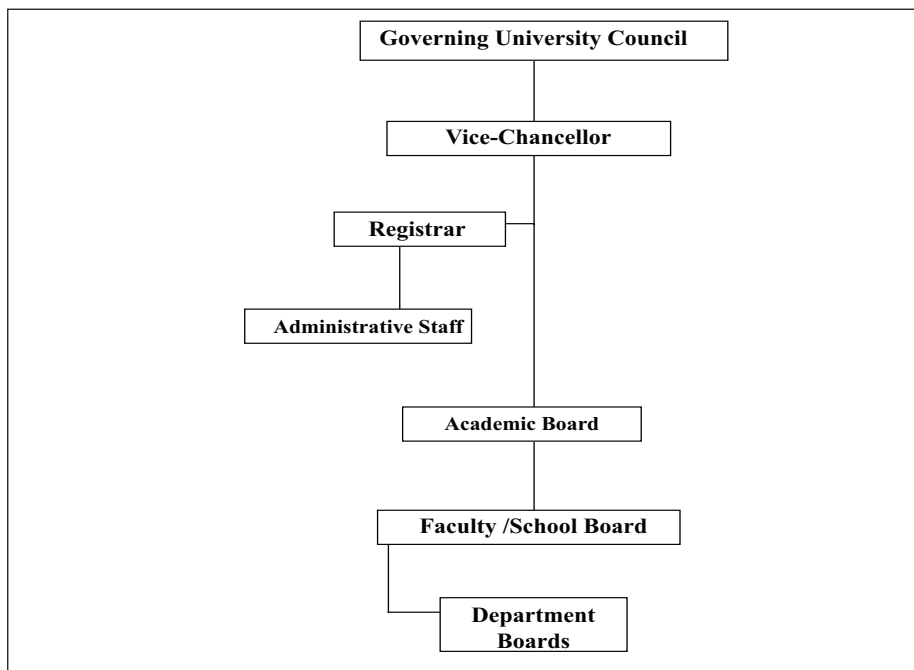
Figure 7.1: Governance Structure of UDS

The Governing University Council of UDS

The highest decision making body of the UDS is the University Council. The University Council has a Chairperson who presides over its meetings. In its peculiar case, where the University has never had a Chancellor, the Council's Chairperson has also been responsible for the traditional ceremonial duties of the University such as the award of degrees, diplomas and certificates.

Composition of the University Council

- Chairman (Appointed by Government)
- Three other Government Appointees
- Vice-Chancellor
- Representative of Convocation (Professorial)
- Representative of Convocation (Non-Professorial)
- Representative of National Council of Tertiary Education (NCTE)

- Representative of Conference of Heads of Assisted Secondary Schools (CHASS)
- Representative of University Teachers' Association of Ghana (UTAG)
- Representative of Teachers' and Education Workers Union (TEWU)
- Representative of Graduate Students Association of Ghana (GRASAG)
- Representative of Students Representative Council (SRC)
- Representative of Alumni

In attendance of the Council's meetings are the following office holders:

1.   Pro Vice-Chancellor
2.   Registrar (Secretary)
3.   Finance Officer
4.   Director of Works and Physical Development
5.   Recorder

The Academic Board of UDS

The Academic Board is the most important decision making body in as much as the academic programmes in the University are concerned. Like the other public universities, the composition of the Academic Board is broad but is largely a club for the academic staff. The composition of the Academic Board of the UDS as indicated in Statute 22 of the University is as follows:

a. The Vice-Chancellor;
b. The Pro-Vice-Chancellor;
c. The University Librarian;
d. The Deans of Faculties and Schools;
e. The Dean of Students;
f. The Dean of Graduate Studies;
g. Director of Center of Interdisciplinary Research;
h. Director of Community Relations;
i. Heads of Department and Units;
j. Professors and persons with professorial status;
k. One other member not below the rank of lecturer of each Faculty/School provided that any Faculty, which is not divided into departments and any Institute or School may, on approval of the Academic Board, be represented by at least two members of the Academic Staff elected by such staff;

In attendance:
    a. Registrar, who is the Secretary to the Academic Board.
    b. Finance Officer.
    c. Director of Works and Physical Development
    d. Director of University Health Services
    e. All retired and visiting persons of Professorial status
    f. Faculty Examination Officers

Powers and Functions of the Academic Board of the UDS

The Academic Board of the University derives its powers from the PNDC Law 279 and this is stipulated in the Statute 24 of the institution. The following powers and responsibilities of the Academic Board, as stated in Statute 24 are:

    a. To establish the educational and extension policy of the University and generally to regulate the programmes of instruction and the examinations held by the University;
    b. To authorise and promote research within the University and to require reports from the Faculties, Institutes, Schools concerned from time to time on research being done;
    c. To approve the appointment of Internal and External Examiners on the recommendations of the Boards of Faculties, Institutes and Schools concerned;
    d. To approve the examination results submitted by Faculties, Institutes and Schools;
    e. To suspend or remove Examiners for negligence or other sufficient cause during their terms of office and in the case of death, illness or resignation of an Examiner or in the case of his or her suspension or removal to appoint a substitute;
    f. To establish regulations (after receiving reports from the Board of Faculties, Institutes and Schools concerned relating to courses of study, degrees and other academic distinctions;
    g. To make reports and the representations to Council, either on its own initiative or on the request of the Council, on matters affecting the University;
    h. To make appointments of Senior Members;
    i. To make recommendations to the Council on the creation, combination, abolition, changes of or division of any Faculty, Institute, School, Centre or Department;

j. To recommend to Council the affiliation of other institutions to the University on such terms and conditions as it may think fit;

k. To approve, amend or refer back the yearly estimates and accounts of the University prepared by the Finance Committee;

l. To determine, subject to any conditions made by donors which are accepted by Council and after report from the Board of the College, Faculty, Institute or School concerned, the mode and conditions of competition for fellowships, scholarships, exhibitions, bursaries, medals and prizes, and to examine for and award the same or to delegate to the College, Faculty, Department, Centre, Institute or School concerned to examine for and award the same;

m. To make regulation for the admission of persons to courses approved by the University;

n. To make regulations for the discipline of junior members of the University;[32]

o. To propose to Council names of persons for honorary degrees and to express its views on other persons proposed for such degrees by Council;

p. To refer proposals on any matter to Convocation for consideration;

q. To exercise all such powers as or as may be conferred on the Academic Board by law or by the statutes subject to the provisions of the Law;

r. To make such reports and recommendations to the Council within the scope of policy approved by the Council and to take such an action, the Academic Board may deem necessary for the development, welfare and good governance of the entire University community;

s. To determine the length of each academic year and divide the year into such terms or divisions as it may deem appropriate.

There is a provision in the Statutes that the Academic Board may delegate any of its functions to a Standing Committee or Officer of the University with or without conditions.

It is evident from the range of powers at the disposal of the Academic Board that it has the ultimate responsibility in deciding the academic direction of the University. In this role, all academic issues that emanate from the lower levels of the governance structure must be approved or be validated by the Academic Board. It is for this reason that the composition of the Academic Board is made broad enough to foster representation from all the academic components. In this way, the Academic Board of the UDS is a prototype of what obtains in the other public universities in Ghana. Underneath the Academic Board are lower tiers of boards that reflect the other levels of leadership in the University. We now turn to

examine some of the lower level boards in the University that are relevant to our discussion.

Faculty/School Boards in UDS

The Faculty and School Boards are the umbrella bodies for departments, centres and units that are placed under them. The faculties in UDS coordinate departments that share commonality in academic disciplinary focus. The composition of Faculty and School Boards in UDS as stated in Statute 35 of the University is as follows:

1. The Dean of Faculty or School (Chairperson);
2. Vice Dean;
3. The Faculty Examination Officer;
4. Heads of Department and other academic units in the Faculty;
5. One representative of cognate Faculty;
6. The University Librarian or his or her representative who shall be a Senior Member;
7. Such other persons as may be determined by the Faculty Board subject to the approval of the College Board and the Academic Board.

Powers and Functions of the Faculty/School Boards

The Faculty and School Boards are given considerable powers and roles in the following areas:

a. To regulate within the general policy approved by the Academic Board, the teaching and study of subjects assigned the Faculty or School;
b. To ensure the provision of adequate instruction and facilities for research in programmes of the faculty or School;
c. To recommend to Examiners to the Academic Board for appointment;
d. To report to the Academic Board on regulations and syllabuses dealing with courses of study and other questions related to the work of the Faculty or School;
e. To deliberate and recommend to the Academic Board for approval all examination results of the Faculty or School;
f. To make recommendations to the Academic Board the award of degrees, diplomas, certificates, scholarships and prizes within the Faculty or School;

g. Subject to the approval by the Academic Board, to promote cooperation with other Faculties and Institutions within the University in matters relating to the academic work of the Faculty or School;

h. To deal with any matter referred or delegated to it by the Academic Board;

i. To discuss any matters relating to the Faculty.

Board of Graduate Studies in UDS

The UDS has a Board of Graduate Studies that is responsible for the coordination of graduate programmes. The membership of the Board of Graduate Studies is indicated in Statute 37 of the University as follows:

1. The Dean of School of Graduate Studies
2. Coordinators of Faculty Graduate Programmes
3. The Director of the Centre for Interdisciplinary Research
4. In attendance shall be a person not below the rank of Assistant Registrar who shall be Secretary

Functions of the UDS Board of Graduate Studies

As spelt out in Statute 38 of the University, the Graduate Board of the University is empowered to perform the following functions:

a. To approve on behalf of the Academic Board, candidates for higher degrees, supervisors, coursework, theses, topics, synopses based upon recommendations from the appropriate Faculty or School Boards;

b. To recommend the appointment of Internal and External Examiners in respect of written papers, dissertations or theses to the Academic Board based upon recommendations from Faculty or School Boards;

c. To give provisional approval to higher degree examination results upon recommendations from Faculty or School Boards;

d. To liaise with Deans in their various Faculties and Schools;

e. To request progress reports from supervisors at the end of each academic year;

f. To establish and maintain links with Graduate Schools in other universities or institutions and promote exchange of graduate students and staff engaged in graduate work between the University for Development Studies and other institutions.

Department Boards in UDS

The departments are the primary bodies in the University for organising academic programmes. The departments deliver courses for the programme(s) that they offer. The departments also ensure that contents of the courses and their modes of delivery meet the quality expectations.

The departments also provide students with academic guidance to enable them achieve their academic goals. In this respect, the departments exist not only for teaching but to also expose students to the relevant tools for social functionality, critical thinking and research. The conduct of examinations and the assessment of students lie with the departments.

The responsibility of managing departments is vested with Heads of Department. The Heads of Department have the responsibility of ensuring that academic staff carry out the duties of teaching, research and guidance. Department Boards, which are composed of all academic senior members, hold meetings that discuss issues that relate to examinations, assessment and approval of results.

The departments have the responsibility of reviewing the content of programmes as demanded by the Directorate of Academic Planning and Quality Assurance (DAPQA) of the University. In fact, the intrinsic quality issues that departments offer constitute the critical starting point of academic services upon which the reputation of the UDS actually depends.

The Directorate of Academic Planning and Quality Assurance (DAPQA) in UDS

An internal quality assurance mechanism in the UDS was started out of a stakeholders' workshop on 29 April 2008 that was held to institutionalise quality assurance in the UDS. The workshop led to the drafting of a policy document on quality assurance within the University, which led to the establishment of the Academic Quality Assurance Unit (AQAU). The AQUA was established with a Director and placed under the Office of the Vice-Chancellor. The UDS, in 2014, changed the name of this body to the Directorate of Academic Planning and Quality Assurance (DAPQA). The structure within, which the DAPQA works in the UDS, is shown in Figure 7.2
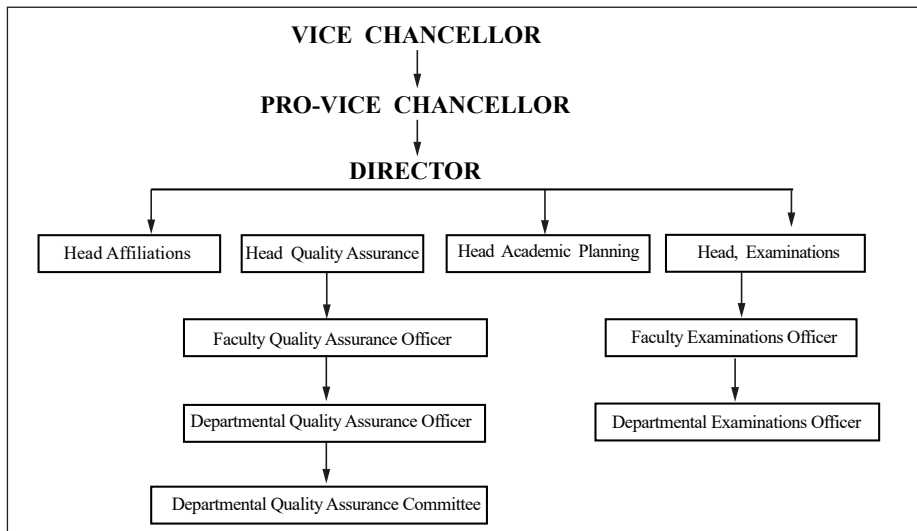
Figure 7.2: The Organisational Structure within which DAPQA works in UDS

The DAPQA in the UDS has the following aims:

1. To facilitate the achievement of academic excellence that would make UDS more competitive at the national, regional and international levels.
2. To promote high staff output, produce quality graduates; provide conducing teaching and learning environments for all the Faculties and to ensure efficient, transparent and accountable governance of the University.

The DAPQA is to perform the following functions:

a. Vetting of Examination results
b. Orientation of newly appointed Lecturers
c. Monitoring of beginning of lectures
d. Students' assessment of courses/lecturers
e. Vetting of programme proposals before submission to NCTE and NAB
f. Investigation of Appeals made by students for alleged involvement in Examination malpractices
g. Processing of applications for affiliation of other tertiary institutions to UDS, and
h. Any other duties assigned by the Vice-Chancellor

In carrying out of these responsibilities, Deans of Faculty and Schools provide vital intermediary roles. In the sphere of quality assurance the Deans in UDS perform the following roles:

1. Responsible for educational and administrative business of the Faculty and Departments
2. Management and delivery of teaching and learning in their Faculties.
3. Executing all policies of the Faculty and University for the programmes and courses within their scope, accountability for performance of individual teaching staff.
4. Responsible as the Chief Examiner of the Faculty.
5. Provide provisional results to students, as approved by the Faculty Board within first of the next trimester.
6. Forward to the Registrar before the first week of the next trimester results of the examination conducted in the previous trimester.

The Heads of Department, in their capacity as the overseers of the primary units of academic service delivery, have important roles to play in the chain of quality service provisioning. In the UDS, Heads of Department contribute in the following ways to the business of quality assurance:

a. Organise and superintend the teaching, research and service programmes of the Department
b. Maintain acceptable standards of teaching and other academic work
c. Provide for the examination of students
d. Liaise with the Dean of Faculty in matters affecting the Department.
e. Convene a meeting of members of the Department at least twice a trimester for the purpose of planning and evaluating the activities of the Department.
f. Be responsible for the general administration of the Department in respect of human, financial and material resources of the Department within the general framework of University policy.
g. Serve as the Chief Examiner of the Department by ensuring that
   i. Question papers are moderated and coordinated internally
   ii. Final moderated examination question papers are forwarded to the Dean in sealed envelopes not later than two weeks prior to the commencement of the examinations.
   iii. Examination materials for practical examination are secured before the examination.

The Faculty Examination Officer is an important player in the value chain for quality assurance in the University. The Faculty Examination Officer is assigned duties to:

The requirements of lectureship in universities in Ghana have been raised by the NCTE from a Master of Philosophy (MPhil) degree to Doctoral degree. However, as a young University, realising this has remained a huge challenge. The evidence, as depicted in Figure 7.3, shows that close to 62 per cent of the respondents have not met the minimum requirement of Doctoral degree for teaching. It is just about 38 per cent of the academic staff of the University that has this requirement.

While the attainment of high academic qualification of teaching staff may be a good indicator of the capacity of staff, it is also important to look at the professional attainment of the teaching staff. Professional ranking of teaching staff is closely tied to amount of research that an individual lecturer carries out and the extent of publications in peer reviewed journals and books. Figure 7.4 provides us an overview of the professional ranking of UDS lecturing staff as shown in the field.
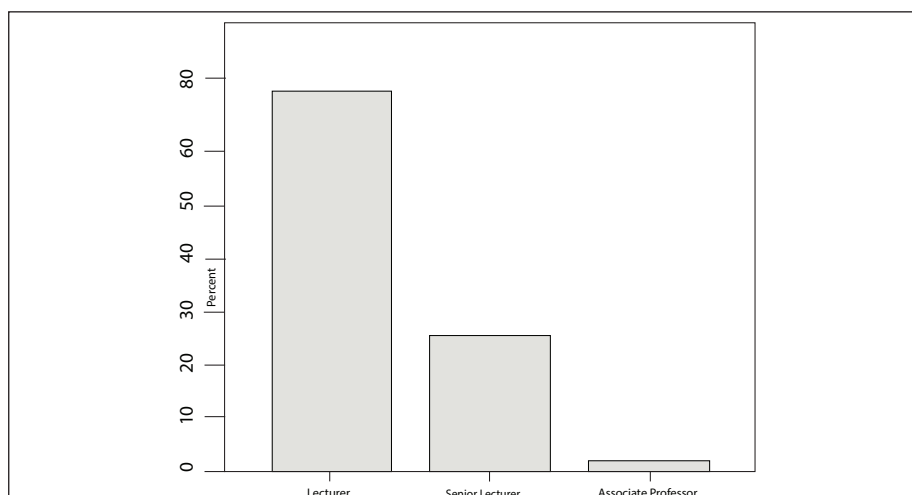
Figure 7.4: Professional Ranking of UDS Academic Staff

As shown in Figure 7.4 the UDS academic staff has 72.7 per cent classified as Lecturers. Senior Lecturers constitute 25.5 per cent and Associate Professors among the respondents consist only 1.8 per cent. This shows that most of the lecturers in the University have not developed adequate research capacity and/or published sufficiently to warrant promotion.

The length of teaching can be another source of capacity endowment for a lecturer in meeting the challenges of the classroom situation. Figure 7.5 indicates the length of teaching experience of lecturers.
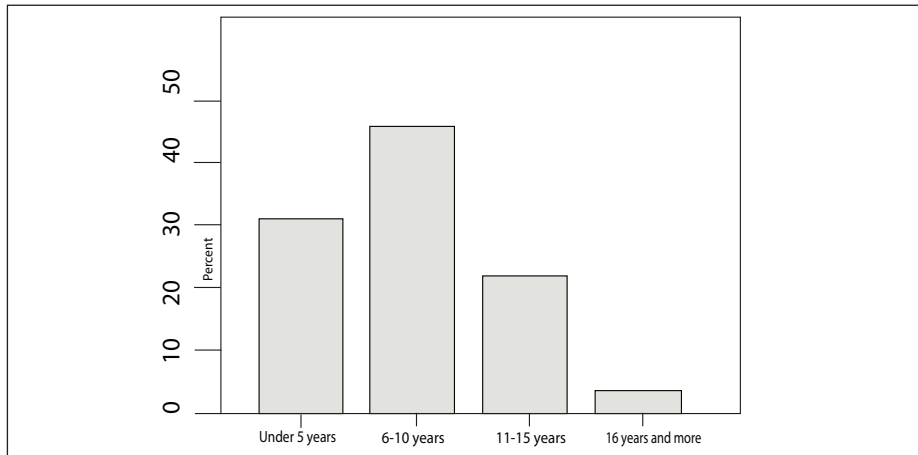
Figure 7.5: Length of Teaching of Academic Staff in UDS

As indicated in Figure 7.5 most of the lecturers fall within the range of 6-10 years of teaching and this cohort constitutes 46 per cent. Those who have been teaching for five years and/or less represent 31 per cent of the lecturers. Those who have taught for 11-15 years constitute 22 per cent, while those who have been around for more than 16 years are just two per cent.

It is noticed that the number of courses that lecturers handle per term have bearing on the research output. It is important to understand that the UDS is the only higher education institution that operates a trimester system in the country. The first two trimesters are devoted to classroom academic work, while the third trimester is done in the field for practical training.

An inquiry was made into the number of courses that lecturers teach in the first two trimesters of classroom work. In UDS, all lecturers are expected to take part in the third trimester field practical training programme as well. Figure 7.6 gives us information about the number of courses lecturers handle with regards to classroom work.
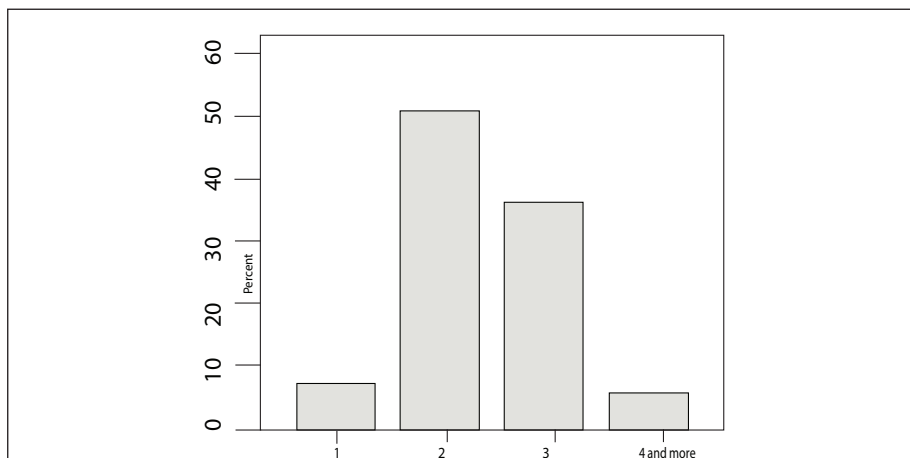
Figure 7.6: Number of Courses Taught per Trimester

The evidence from Figure 7.6 shows that while about 51 per cent of the lecturers teach two courses per trimester, 36 per cent of lecturers teach three courses per trimester. The outlier cases pertain to those who teach a single course (seven per cent) and those who teach four or more courses that constitute six percent.

Lecturers in public universities in Ghana are also confronted with the challenge of dealing with large class sizes, an issue we examined in UDS. Figure 7.7 shows the average size of core classes. Core courses are the focus because they are taken by all students who pursue a given programme.
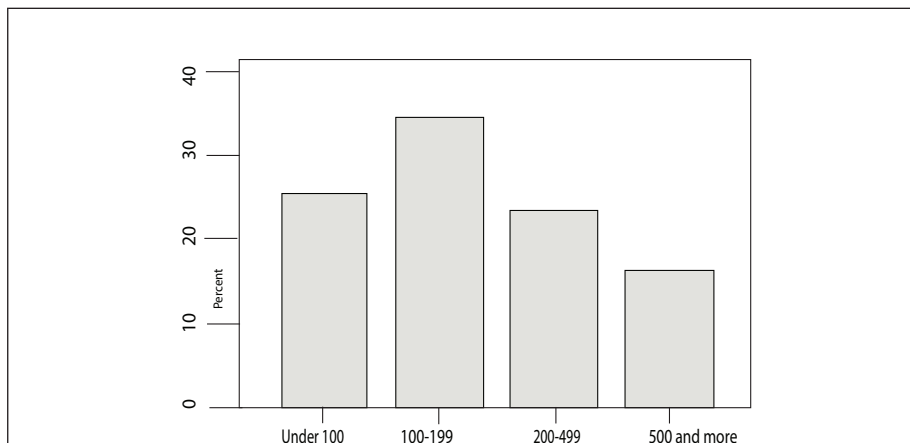
Figure 7.7: Average Size of Core Courses in UDS

It is shown in Figure 7.7 that the lecturers who handle core classes with student population of 100-199 constitute 35 per cent. While those who handle class sizes that are under 100 students constitute 26 per cent, those who teach classes that range between 200-499 students comprise 24 percent. Class sizes that exceed 500 students consist 16 per cent.

The responses from students as to whether their classrooms get overcrowded especially when they have core courses are shown in Table 7.1

Table 7.1: Whether Class Sizes Result into Overcrowding

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Yes	73	44.8	44.8	44.8
No	90	55.2	55.2	100.0
Total	**163**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is shown in Table 7.1 that 55.2 per cent of the students indicated that their classes do not get overcrowded. However, 44.8 per cent of the students checked 'yes' to indicate that their classes get overcrowded.

To find out about the extent to which the conditions in the classrooms interfere with interactive teaching, we posed a question regarding whether the class size of core courses affect interactive teaching and learning. It is acknowledged by experts that interactive teaching enhances knowledge impartation better than the banking approach. In a multimedia environment, interactive teaching processes are enhanced by the deployment of electronic media which creates the appropriate connectivity between teachers and students. As said, the desired impact of these techniques depends on a number of factors that include the appropriateness of class sizes. It is for this reason that we sought to find out from the students whether class sizes affect interactive teaching processes. This is shown in Table 7.2

Table 7.2: Whether Class Size of Core Courses Affects Interactive Teaching and Learning

	Frequency	Percent	Valid %	Cumulative Percent
Yes	76	46.6	46.6	46.6
No	61	37.4	37.4	84.0
Do not know	26	16.0	16.0	100.0
Total	**163**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

The indications from Table 7.2 is that while 46 per cent of the students checked 'yes' to suggest that class sizes of compulsory courses affect interactive teaching and learning, 37.4 per cent responded 'no' to suggest that there are no interferences in interactive teachings. We recorded 16 percent of the students with no idea regarding the issue being investigated.

Effects of Classroom Situations on Lecturers' Output in UDS

The conditions in the classroom without it being gainsaid can have various effects on teaching and research output of lecturers. In this section, we examine the various ways in which the outputs of lecturers are affected by classroom situations.

Time Spent on Marking and Processing of Examination Scripts

The time spent on marking examination papers and the processing of the results is largely influenced by the size of classes. While quality assurance requirements for the UDS are that examination results are released timeously, it is also expected that the lecturer conducts multiple continuous assessment tests in addition to the end-of-trimester examinations. The challenge of meeting four weeks of script marking deadlines becomes real. Table 7.3 provides an indication of the time UDS lecturers spend marking scripts and processing results.

Table 7.3: Duration of Making and Processing of Examination Results

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
1-2 weeks	10	18.2	18.2	18.2
3-4 weeks	23	41.8	41.8	60.0
5-6 weeks	19	34.5	34.5	94.5
6 weeks and more	3	5.5	5.5	100.0
Total	**55**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is shown in Table 7.3 that 41.8 per cent of the lecturers checked 3-4 weeks as the time they spend in marking of papers and processing examination results. While 34.5 per cent indicated spending 5-6 weeks as the time that they spend for the task, 18.2 per cent however did check 1-2 weeks. An outlier situation, where the time spent is more than six weeks comprises 5.5 per cent of the lecturers.

The implications of spending up to six weeks dealing with examination results can take various forms. One of such form is about the time available to the

lecturer to research so as to contribute to knowledge through publications. The outputs of research within academic community are best captured in peer review journals or books. Table 7.4 therefore seeks to provide insight into the number of publications credited to lecturers in UDS in peer review volumes.

Table 7.4: Number of Peer Review Publications Credited

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
0-2	19	34.5	34.5	34.5
3-5	16	29.1	29.1	63.6
6-10	12	21.8	21.8	85.5
11 and more	8	14.5	14.5	100.0
Total	**55**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is shown in Table 7.4 that 34.5 per cent of the lecturers have only 0-2 peer review publications. And those who have 3-5 of such publications constitute 29.1 per cent. Those who checked that they have 6-10 peer review publications comprise 21.8 per cent while 14.5 per cent of the lecturers indicated that they have 11 or more of peer reviewed publications.

While peer reviewed publications may be an end product of research effort that goes through rigorous assessment processes, we also sought to find out what other research efforts the lecturers in UDS make. The Vice-Chancellor's Annual Report routinely shows the research efforts and outputs of lecturers in various departments. The study sought to establish the average number of research papers that are written in a year. In Table 7.5 and Table 7.6, we respectively show the data on the 'Average Number of Research papers written per year' and 'Average Number of papers published in peer reviewed journals in a year.'

Table 7.5: Average Number of Research Papers Written per Year

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
0-1	23	41.8	41.8	41.8
2-4	20	36.4	36.4	78.2
5 and above	12	21.8	21.8	100.0
Total	**55**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

As captured in Table 7.5, 41.8 per cent of the lecturers indicated that on the average they write 0-1 paper a year. And those who checked that they write two-four papers, on the average, constitute 36.4 per cent. It is also shown that 21.8 per cent of the lecturers indicated that they write five papers or more per year.

In finding out the rate of success in publishing the papers that are written, the following results as depicted in Table 7.6 are indicative of the situation.

Table 7.6: Average Number of Papers Published in Peer Reviewed Journals in a year

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
0-1	38	69.1	69.1	69.1
2-4	13	23.6	23.6	92.7
5 and above	4	7.3	7.3	100.0
Total	**55**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

The evidence as shown in Table 7.6 is that 69.1 per cent of the lecturers fall within the average annual publication range of 0-1 paper. Those who are able to publish 2-4 papers constitute 23.6 per cent and a category consisting 7.3 per cent checked '5 and above' as the average number of papers published in year.

Some of the reasons given by the lecturers for impeding their ability to write and to publish adequately are captured in Box 7.1

Box 7.1: Suggested Reasons that inhibit Rate of Publication

1. The task of coordinating the Third Trimester Field Practical Programme takes away available time for me to engage in continuous thought process (Faculty TTFPP Coordinator).
2. Limited avenues for publication in local journals and the cost involved in publishing in external journals are prohibitive (Senior Lecturer).
3. Inadequate facilities for continuous laboratory experiments for a meaningful research output (Lecturer).

Administrative Responsibilities and Impact on Academic Work in UDS

Lecturers take up administrative responsibilities in various forms that take up part of their time, thereby impacting on their core classroom and research tasks. In this section, we examine how administrative responsibilities affect the academic output of those involved in such administrative duties.

The average number of hours that respective lecturers indicated that they spend on administrative duties per day is shown in Figure 7. 8
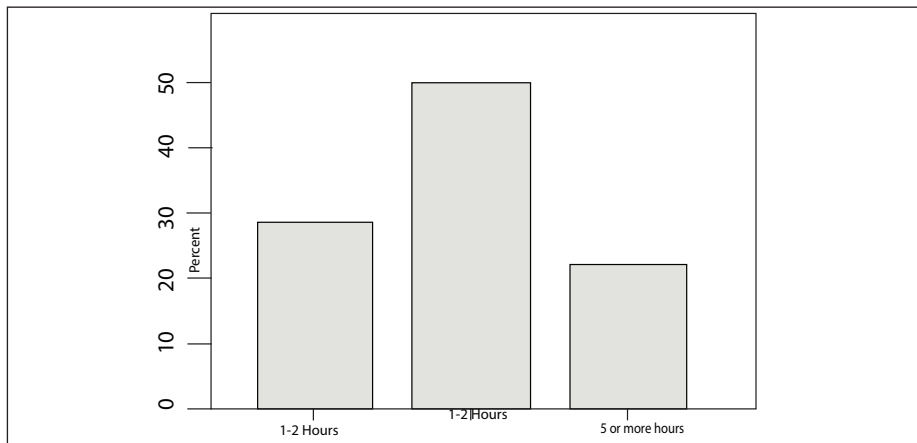
Figure 7.8: Number of Hours per Day Spent for Administrative Responsibility

It is shown in Figure 7.8 that 50 per cent of those who have administrative responsibilities spend 3-5 hours a day on such responsibilities. It is also indicated that 28 per cent of the lecturers who bear administrative responsibilities spend 1-2 hours a day. The category of lecturers who spend '6 hours and more' per day to carry out those tasks constitute 22 per cent.

Findings, as to whether the time spent on administrative responsibilities affects the academic output of such duty bearers in the University, are captured in Figure 7.9 below.
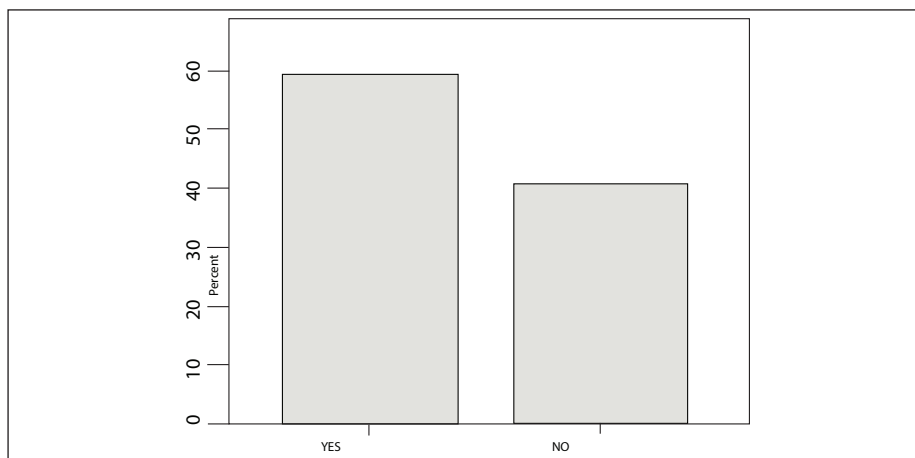
Figure 7.9: Effect of Responsibility on Teaching/Academic Outputs

Figure 7.9 shows that while 59 per cent of the respondents stated 'yes' to suggest that the administrative responsibilities affect their teaching and research output, 41per cent indicated otherwise.

The nature of the effects as mentioned by those who indicated that their administrative responsibilities affect their core academic output is captured in Box 7.2.

Box 7.2: Nature of the Effects on those who have Administrative Responsibilities

1. The responsibility of dealing with individual student complaints and dealing with their leadership get so demanding that it interrupts my teaching schedules (Vice-Dean)
2. Unscheduled meetings often coincide with teaching time table (Head of Department)
3. The long hours spent dealing with students' residential matters is enervating (Senior Hall Tutor)

Commercialised Academic Programmes in UDS and Implications

The UDS has become an active participant in the marketplace of sandwich academic programmes. The commercialisation drive via sandwich programmes is emerging as an important source of Internal Generated Funds (IGFs) for the UDS.

It is for this reason that the UDS have rolled out about 25 accredited fee paying graduate sandwich programmes that mainly targets those already in employment. The sandwich programmes in UDS run from June to August. This is the period during which the regular students are engaged in Third Trimester Field Practical Program (TTFPP) in communities across the country. The commercial interest for both lecturers and the University converge in the running of the sandwich programmes, thereby creating a burgeoning interest in the programmes, as it is perceived to be economically rewarding. For the lecturers, it is important source for income add-on whilst the University managers view it as an important source of IGF.

It is for this reason that Faculties and Schools on the various campuses of the University seem to be competing with each other in rolling out sandwich programmes. The simultaneous running of the sandwich programmes and TTFPP for the regular students creates its own dynamics. Some of the lecturers actually shuttle between supervisory assignments in the field, and their teaching commitments for the sandwich programmes. The implication of physical and mental stress on the lecturers is bemoaned by a lecturer at Wa campus who stated that it is the 'financial factor that makes me to be part of the sandwich programme and field work at the same time and this does a lot of damage to my health.' If this is an indication of the stress during the vacation period, and given the fact that University resumes its formal academic year immediately the sandwich programmes end, then one can reasonably guess the toll on lecturers.

Capacity Building in UDS

As a relatively young public university, the UDS since its inception has pursued policies for building the capacity of staff for the purposes of enhancing the credentials of faculty. The support from government, especially through the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFund), became the major avenue for staff development programmes. The essence of accelerating staff development is captured in the Statutes of the University and the procedures for sponsorship spelt out. Academic staff who are yet to attain Doctoral degrees, therefore, anticipate that the University would provide those opportunities to pursue their desired academic goals. The implementation of the policy according to laid down rules and procedures is often a matter of concern for those who have such interests. To examine whether the procedures for staff development are being adhered to in UDS, the responses as captured in Figure 7.10 indicate the responses.
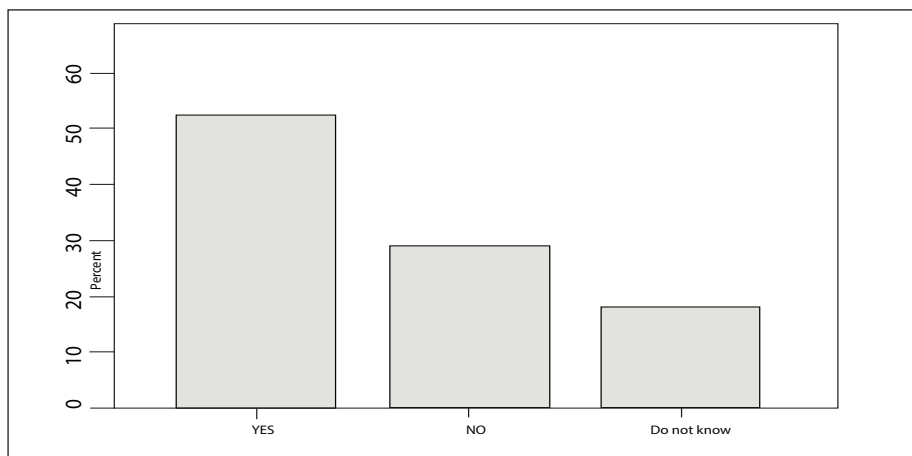
Figure 7.10: Whether Procedures are followed

It is seen from Figure 7.10 that about 53 per cent of the respondents checked that the procedures for staff development are being followed. However, 29 per cent of the respondents believe that the procedures are not being followed. There are also 18 per cent of the respondents who checked that they 'do not know.' Perhaps the last category of the respondents who 'do not know' could be staff for whom opportunities for further studies is no longer of consequence.

In-service Capacity Building Programmes in UDS

The Directorate of Academic Planning and Quality Assurance (DAPQA) of the UDS takes keen interest in ensuring that regular in-service training programmes, for both newly recruited staff and for those already on the job, are organised to meet identified needs. This is done to enhance quality academic service in the UDS, and to also provide the required capacities for leveraging the challenges of the academia. Since the major responsibilities of faculty have to do with teaching, research and dissemination of findings, we sought to find out how lecturers have benefited from in-service capacity building programme(s) attended. The findings are shown in Table 7.7

Table 7.7: Mode of Benefit from In-Service Capacity Building

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
Improved teaching and research skills	28	50.9	50.9	50.9
improved research skills only	16	29.1	29.1	80.0
improved teaching skills only	11	20.0	20.0	100.0
Total	**55**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

The evidence in Table 7.7 is that all the respondents indicated that they benefited in one form or the other from the in-service programmes they had ever attended. In this case, 50.9 per cent of the respondents did check that their benefit took the form of 'improved teaching and research skills.' However, 29.1 per cent of the lecturers indicated their benefit was in the form of 'improved research skills only.' And those who checked that their benefit was in the form of 'improved teaching skills only' constitute 20 per cent.

Prospects and Challenges of UDS

The UDS has developed its programmes and academic calendar to meet its mandate of blending academic with community knowledge in order to provide constructive interaction between the two for the total development of northern Ghana. The content of the programmes is therefore designed with a problem-solving focus to enable them contribute effectively to dealing with the development needs of communities. The students of the University, while engaging in the Third Trimester Field Practical training programme, assist rural communities to develop bottom-up solutions to the challenges that face them. It is for this reason that the UDS sees itself as the home for 'World-Class Pro-Poor scholarship.

The efforts to meet the demands of its mandate are however beset with challenges that tend to erode the effectiveness of the academic staff. The UDS *qua* a higher education institution is expected to be at the forefront of knowledge production and transmission, much the same way as it is the standard elsewhere. Nonetheless, the extension of the academic calendar of the institution to accommodate a trimester system has placed constraints on available time for staff to pay adequate attention to research and publications. The limitation on the available time is aggravated by the full engagement of the University in the sandwich programmes, which has become a competitive ground for IGFs mobilisation for the University and a source of accumulation for the participating lecturers.

Challenges of this sort if not problematised for solution would undermine the very developmental agenda of the institution. As research academic publications from lecturers in the UDS do not come forth, the resultant situation would be a recycling of knowledge that may not be relevant for local situations.

SECTION IV

Two Private Universities: Valley View University and Catholic University College of Ghana

8

Valley View University

From Missionary College to a Chartered University

The Valley View University (VVU) has the singular distinction of being the first chartered private university in Ghana. The institution has a vision of becoming '…a leading Centre of Excellence in Christian Education' (VVU 2014). The University, therefore, seeks in its mission statement to emphasise '…academic, spiritual, vocational and technological excellence in a context that prepares lives for service of God and humanity' (VVU 2014). The statements pertaining to the University's vision and mission provide some insights into its ecclesiastical origins; even as efforts are being made to wed the theological with secular education. The origins of the Valley View University can be traced to the setting up of the Adventist Missionary College at Bekwai-Ashanti in 1979. The Adventist Missionary College was founded by the West African Union Mission of Seventh-day Adventists, with the intent of training clerics for the Seventh-day Adventists mission. The Missionary College was relocated to Adentan near Accra in 1983, where it was housed in a rented premise.

The Adventist Missionary College was moved, yet again, from Adentan to its present site at Oyibi in 1989; and was renamed the Valley View College. With the liberalisation of the higher education system that allowed the operationalisation of private actors in the sector, the Valley View College, in 1995, became an affiliated institution to the Griggs University in Silver Springs, USA. The affiliation enabled the Valley View College to begin a four-year Bachelor's degree programme in Theology and Religious Studies. And in 1997, the institution was absorbed into the Adventist university system, which was operated by the West-Central Africa Division (WAD) of Seventh-day Adventist with their headquarters in Abidjan,

Ivory Coast. The Missionary College had since 1983 come under the Adventist Accrediting Association that evaluated and reviewed its programmes in Theology and Religious Studies.

The institution, likewise, worked for the accreditation of its programmes within Ghanaian higher education system. This was realised in 1997, when the National Accreditation Board (NAB) in Ghana granted the Valley View College an accreditation for its programmes. The institution continued as an affiliate College of the Griggs University in Silver Springs but with a binary accreditation status; as it had accreditation to both the Adventist Accrediting Association (AAA) and the National Accreditation Board in Ghana.

As conditions concerning infrastructure and human resource capacities improved, the managers of the Valley View College sought for a presidential charter that was to grant them full autonomy as an institution of higher education, capable of awarding its own degrees. After a demanding review of its programmes, the capacity of its human resources, institutional measures for quality assurance and infrastructure by the NCTE and the NAB, the Valley View College was granted presidential charter in January 2006. The change in status of the institution to a full-fledged autonomous university, with the ability to award its own degrees, diplomas and certificates, necessitated the change of name to Valley View University (VVU). This achievement was celebrated on 28 May 2006, when President John Agyekum Kufuor, officially commissioned the University as an autonomous university. These developments also went along with a change in its focus from being a private-not-for-profit to a private-for-profit institution. The academic services provided by the VVU were now to be guided by corporate ethos of sustainability and profitability. These were to reflect in the programmes that were mounted.

Academic Programmes in the VVU

The blending of the ecclesiastical training regime of the VVU to the secularised one necessitated a rebranding of the institution to reflect the dualism of its focus. This effort is captured abundantly in the 2014 Vice-Chancellor's message posted on the official website of the University. The Vice-Chancellor underscored a Hegelian balance between the spiritual and corporeal needs of the individual. The message spells out that the VVU 'subscribes to the philosophy of education that is all embracing; the harmonious development of the physical, mental and moral/spiritual faculties of a person' (Buor 2014). It is further emphasised, in the message, that '[W]e are of the strong view that academic excellence without moral/

spiritual excellence is tantamount to parochial training that does not position a person to be of service to God and humanity' (Buor 2014). The University has subsequently proclaimed an open admission policy to students of all backgrounds irrespective of creed. However, there appears to be a glass-ceiling to the apparent open-door policy of the VVU. This comes with the caveat that all students must accept the Christian principles and lifestyle which forms the foundation for the institution's operations.

To make the institution relevant to its emerging constituents, the VVUhas expanded its academic programmes through the establishment of a range of Faculties and Schools. The Faculties and Schools that are currently operational in the VVU are outlined with their strategic visions and missions.

Faculty of Science in VVU

The Faculty of Science hosts five departments in both basic and applied sciences. The departments are the Department of Computer Science; Department of Information Technology; Department of Nursing; Department of Mathematical Sciences and the Department of Bio-equipment. The mission of the Faculty is to 'serve as an international centre of excellence in the provision of high quality holistic education, and professional training in computer science; as well as in serving as a leading centre for cutting-edge advanced research and development work in current and emerging subject areas of Science' (VVU 2015). In addition, it is pointed out that the Faculty seeks to integrate faith and learning so as to equip its graduates with a positive intellectual, moral and professional influence in the practice of Science (VVU 2015).

School of Theology in VVU

The original Department of Theology and Religious Studies was reorganised into the School of Theological Missions in August 2010 (STM 2015). The purpose for setting up this School, and its antecedent, has been to use it to train Bible workers and Gospel ministers of the Seventh-day Adventist church in Ghana. And with the growth of churches and schools in the denomination, the need for the programmes that are offered in the School has arisen. Currently, there are three departments in the School, namely: Department of Theology; Department of Religious Studies and the Department of Religious Education; and they respectively pursue programmes in B.A Theological Studies, B.A Religion Studies and B. Ed Religion.

Faculty of Arts and Social Science in VVU

The Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences is established to prepare professionals who would provide leadership and exemplary educational and related services to individuals in a changing global society (FASS 2015). The philosophy that underpins the academic work in the Faculty is that through the departments, the content of programmes would be done within the framework of the Seventh-day Adventist faith. The philosophy is derived from the work of Ellen White (1952:13) that interrogates the general conception and the essence of 'education' as follows:

> Our ideas of education take too narrow and too low a range. There is need of a broader scope, a higher aim. True education means more than the perusal of a certain course of study. It means more than a preparation for the life that now is. It has to do with the whole being and with the whole period of existence possible to man. It is the harmonious development of the physical, the mental, and the spiritual powers. It prepares the student for the joy of service in this world and for the higher joy of wider service in the world to come.

Thus, the Faculty sees its role in VVU within the framework of celestial scholarship in the social sciences. Through this form of understanding of holistic education, the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences envisages to educate, train and prepare its students to become national developers, teachers, curriculum developers and educational administrators that would provide Christian service to society (FASS 2015). The departments that fall under this Faculty are:

a. Education
b. Economics
c. General Education

The School of Business in VVU

The School of Business in the Valley View University seeks to become a centre of excellence for business education. The School of Business sets out to produce critical thinking and ethically mature graduates with professional standards to serve God and humanity. Through this, the School of Business aims at producing future captains of industry that will be morally imbued to discharge their professional duties responsibly (SoB 2015). The Departments that are under the School are:

a. Management Studies
b. Accounting
c. Banking and Finance
d. Marketing

The VVU pursues market-oriented programmes on its main campus at Oyibi and in a host of satellite campuses in Kumasi, Techiman and Nyaniba Estates. Calculations for revenue generation are apparent in the kind of programmes and the spread that the University is undertaking across the country. And to ensure the integrity of its programmes, the VVU, just like the other institutions of higher education, has established a quality assurance unit that enables the institution to deal with matters of internal quality control.

Quality Assurance and Academic Planning Unit in VVU

The VVU, in line with what obtains in the other higher education institutions in Ghana, has set up the Quality Assurance and Academic Planning Unit (QAAPU) for the purpose of ensuring that the institution's programmes meet the standards of its accrediting bodies. The QAAPU engages with academic departments to ensure that the programmes that are rolled out by the University are relevant for national development. The responsibility of the QAAPU also extends to ensuring that the conditions in the lecture halls are conducive for effective teaching and learning. The QAAPU examines the teaching output of academic staff through monitoring, which allows students to assess their teachers. Students are usually allowed the space to assess their teachers mainly because they constitute the critical stakeholders that consume the academic services. The method for assessing lecturers is usually done through a well-spelt out criteria that are analysed by administering questionnaires. The findings thereupon provide the basis for feedbacks that are made available to lecturers to indicate students' assessment of their performance. The analysis of the data thereby provides the basis for planning and interventions to improve upon the situation.

The Heads of Department intermediate between the QAAPU and the respective lecturers in addressing identified shortfalls in service delivery. Under the auspices of the QAAPU, the University periodically organises in-service training programmes to sharpen pedagogical, administrative and leadership skills of staff. This is done by relying on resource persons from both within and outside the institution. Additionally, the QAAPU bears the responsibility of orienting newly recruited staff on their roles and how to deal with the potential challenges that they are likely to face. And in VVU, the QAAPU is responsible for providing capacity building to staff that assume headship responsibilities.

In a word, the QAAPU performs the functions of ensuring that it operationalises the vision of the University in its bid to produce holistic graduates of high scholarship that would be equal to the challenges of society. It is important to

understand though that the QAAPU is part of the general governance structure of the University; and hence the leverage it wields hinges on the space it is allowed to maneuver. The next section examines the general governance structure within VVU and the functions of the various institutions.

The Governance Structure of the VVU

The governance structure of the VVU mirrors the duality that is associated with the institution's origins and its strategic vision. The essence of the dualism is to provide a holistic training that transfuses Christian spiritual values into its students, even as the students pursue secularised scholarship. It is in this light that the governance structure of the University reflects a blend of ecclesiastical and secularistic features. The governance structure of the VVU is depicted in Figure 8.1.
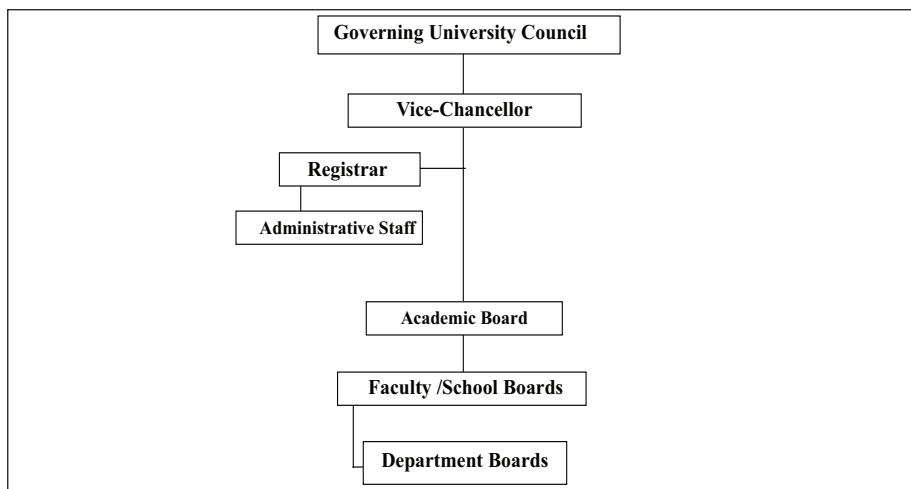
Figure 8.1: The Governance Structure of Valley View University

The University Council of the VVU

The highest policy and decision making body of the institution is the University Council. The sources of power for the Council and for the other bodies are derived from the University's Constitution and the Statutes (Valley View University, 2006). As enshrined in the Constitution, the composition of the Council is indicated not to be less than 17 and not more than 21 members. The membership of the University Council is constituted as follows:

a. The President, Secretary, Treasurer and Education Director of the West-Central Africa Division of the Seventh-day Adventist Church;

b. The President, Secretary, Treasurer and Education Director of the Ghana Union Conference of the Seventh-day Adventist Church;

c. The Vice-Chancellor of Valley View University

d. Two Conference/Mission Presidents within the Ghana Union Conference of the Seventh-day Adventist Church (to be rotated annually);

e. Two representatives of Senior Members : one professorial, one non- professorial

f. Two representatives of non-senior members: one senior staff, one junior staff;

g. President of Valley View University Alumni;

h. President of the Students' Representative Council (SRC)

i. Four (4) other members who are Adventists of good standing but not church employees appointed from the local community and from the Republic of Ghana at large and within the region served by the Valley View University; all of who, shall be professionals of high expertise in their various fields of endeavour;

j. The Pro-Vice Chancellor;

k. The Finance Officer;

l. The Internal Auditor and the University Lawyer shall be in attendance, but shall be non-voting members of Council;

m. The Registrar shall be secretary to the Council.

The University Council is chaired by the President of the Ghana Union Conference of the Seventh-day Adventist Church and the Vice-Chairmanship is reserved for the President of the West Africa Union Mission. The Registrar is the Secretary to the Council.

Powers and Functions of the University Council of the VVU

The University Council is invested with a wide range of powers that enables it to function as the supreme decision making organ of the University. The powers bestowed on the Council are:

a. to exercise superintendence over the formulation of the policies with respect to the programmes, activities and operations of the University;

b. to ensure the operation of the University as a whole and all its departments severally are in harmony with general policies outlined in the constitution and to ensure that the objects of the University are realised;

c. to appoint, transfer, or dismiss administrative officers, faculty and staff members of the University and prescribe the duties, terms and conditions that shall apply to these appointments;

d. to determine various faculty ranks and staff positions which shall apply in the University and shall adopt the conditions for promotion within the ranks and positions;

e. to set the salary and wage rates for administrative and faculty staff and the support personnel;

f. to set the rates for tuition, board, room, fees and the policies governing financial aid and scholarship opportunities for students;

g. to require and adopt an annual operating budget for the University, which shall govern all financial activities and decisions in the operation of the University.

h. to approve the financial record system of the University and to require an audit of these accounts annually by independent auditors;

i. to receive, review and approve periodic financial statements of the University's operations;

j. to administer the immovable and movable property and funds of the University in a manner and for purposes which shall best promote the objects of the University;

k. to receive donations, endowments and grants on behalf of the University;

l. to signify the acts of the University by the use of the Common Seal;

m. to approve the composition of the major staff committees of the University;

n. to perform such other functions as may be conferred upon it by the VVU Constitution; and

o. to delegate any of its powers and functions provided by the VVU constitution to any person or body within the University to exercise.

Subject to the provisions of the VVU constitution, the Council is also empowered to make Statutes for the University; which shall spell out the laws; generally for the governance, control and administration of the University

Academic Board of the VVU

Whereas, the University Council is responsible for the formulation of broad policies and the decision making for the University, its power is rather limited in terms of academic services. As a higher education institution, the Academic Board takes

precedence over the other organs of the University, in respect of academic matters. It is in this sense that the Academic Board serves as the second highest body in the hierarchy of decision making. The Academic Board is constituted to represent the various constituents of the academic community; and its membership is as follows:

 i.   Vice Chancellor who is the Chairman
 ii.   Pro-Vice Chancellor
 iii.   Registrar (Secretary)
 iv.   University Librarian
 v.   Deans of Faculty
 vi.   Directors of Institute
 vii.   Professors
 viii. Heads of affiliated Colleges
 ix.   Senior Members of Council who are not members of the Academic Board in any other capacity
 x.   Two Senior members not below the rank of lecturer from each Faculty elected by the senior members of that Faculty
 xi.   All Heads of Academic Departments
 xii.   The University Chaplain

Functions and Powers of the Academic Board of VVU

The Academic Board is responsible for taking major academic decisions that concern the University and its affiliates. The functions of the Academic Board, as spelt out in the constitution of the VVU, are outlined below, and they include:

 i.   The organisation and control of teaching in the University;
 ii.   The control of admissions to the various courses of study;
 iii.   Determining the academic calendar;
 iv.   The promotion of research in the University;
 v.   The establishment, organisation and control of campuses, schools, faculties, departments, institutes and other teaching and research units of the University;
 vi.   The allocation of responsibility for different branches of learning;
 vii.   The organisation and control of courses of study at University and examinations held in relation to those courses, including the appointment, discipline and removal of both internal and external examiners;
 viii. The award of degrees, and such other qualifications as may be prescribed;

ix.   Making recommendations to Council with respect to award to any person of an honorary fellowship or honorary degree or the title of Professor Emeritus

x.   Establishing and granting fellowships, scholarships, prizes and similar awards that are within the control of the University;

xi.   Determining what descriptions of dress shall be academic dress for the purposes of the University and regulating the use of the academic dress; and

xii. Making recommendations for appointments and promotions of senior members to council.

Limitation on the Powers of the Academic Board of VVU

The Constitution places some limits on the powers of the Academic Board. The Academic Board is, for instance debarred from taking any decisions on the establishment of any new campus, faculty, department, school, institute or other teaching and research units of the University, or similar institutions at the University. Recommendations from the Academic Board to that effect can only be implemented upon the approval of the University Council. It is further stipulated that the Academic Board, without approval of the Council, cannot deprive any person of any degree, diploma or other award of the University which has been conferred on the grounds of dishonourable or scandalous conduct relating to mode of gaining admission into the University or obtaining that award. These are considered to be major decisions that only the Council conclude.

Faculty and School Boards in the VVU

The Faculty and School Boards play important roles in the University. In the governance structure of the VVU, the Faculty and School Boards intermediate between the Departments and the Academic Board. The Faculties and the Schools are headed by Deans; and each Faculty or School serves as the umbrella body that superintends a cognate of academic disciplines. Faculty and School Boards exist to administer matters in their respective spheres of governance. The Boards are composed of Deans, Heads of Department and Departmental representatives as well as representatives from other Faculties. An administrative officer serves as the recorder for the Board. The Boards do not only restrict themselves to students' academic concerns but also to their general well-being. Unresolved matters that emanate from Departments are brought to the Faculty and School Boards for resolution or transmitted further to the Academic Board for final determination. The Faculty and School Boards operate to actualise the strategic goals that are set.

Departmental Boards in VVU

The departments constitute the primary academic bodies within the University governance structure. They are the real domains for the delivery of academic service. By their nature, departments are specialised units in a given discipline. The departments are managed by the Heads of Department; and they are responsible for the assignment of courses. The Heads of Department also ensure that effective teaching and learning are carried out. While carrying out this responsibility, a Head of Department, in the University, would necessarily have to be team player to benefit from the synergy generated by his/her colleagues.

A Departmental Board consists of all the lecturers in the department. The major areas of concern for the Departmental Boards in the University include the following:

- Registration of students in the department;
- Conduct and assessment of examinations;
- The introduction of new courses;
- The incorporation of Christian ethics into the curricula;
- The review of programmes for the purposes accreditation; and
- The academic progression of lecturers.

Capacity of Academic Staff in the VVU

It is important to specify that the realisation of the strategic visions of the University largely depend on the calibre of staff at the disposal of the institution. In addressing the criteria that define the quality of staff, we take into consideration a number of factors; and these include academic qualification; experience and scholarly credentials.

Highest Academic Qualification of Academic Staff in VVU

The highest academic qualifications of lecturers covered in VVU are captured in Figure 8.2.
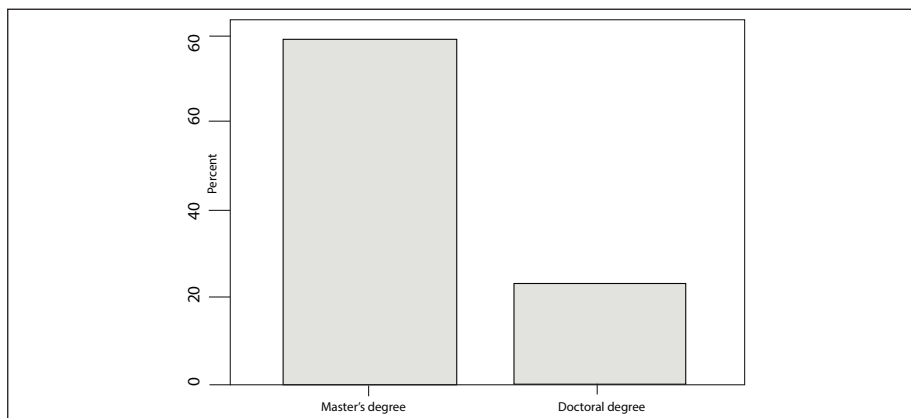
Figure 8.2: Highest Academic Qualification of Academic Staff in VVU

As indicated in Figure 8.2, most of the lecturers in the VVU are holders of Masters degree. The lecturers with Masters degree constitute 77 per cent of the academic staff, while doctoral degree holders form 23 per cent of the academic teaching staff. In this regard, it is obvious that the VVU has a catching up to do in building the capacity of their lecturers to acquire terminal degrees.

Professional Designation of Lecturers in VVU

Figure 8.3 depicts the professional ranking of academic teaching captured under the study at the Valley View University.
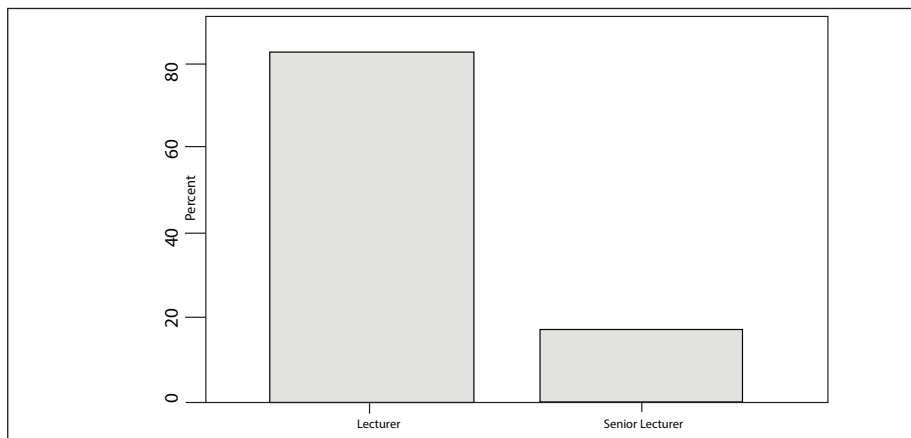
Figure 8.3: Professional Designations of Lecturers

As shown in Figure 8.3, about 84 per cent of the respondents are within the category of lecturers; with senior lecturers constituting 16 per cent. This shows a paucity of academics with high research and publication standing to warrant promotion to the higher level of the academic professional rank.

Length of Teaching of Academic Staff in the VVU

The capacity and output of lecturers have close relationship to the experience lecturers gather over the years. Figure 8.4 provides us with the length of time lecturers in the University have been teaching at the higher education level.
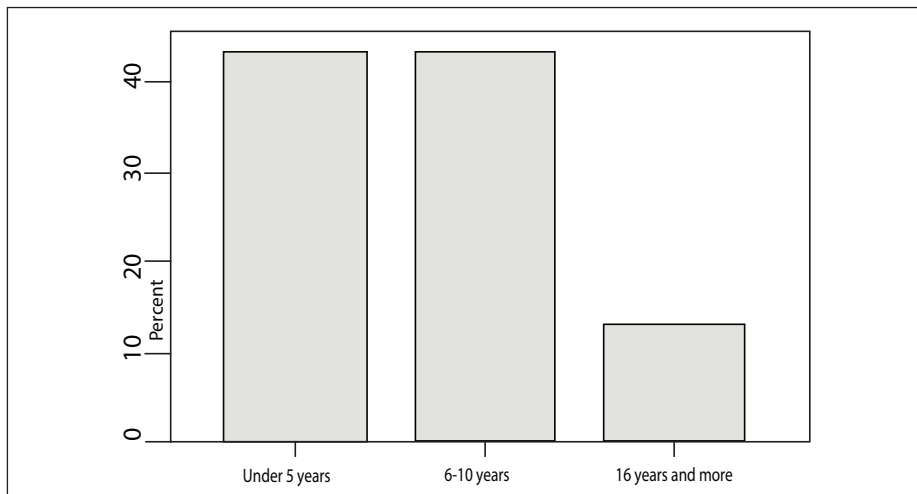
Figure 8.4: Length of Teaching

It is shown in Figure 8.4 that about 43 per cent of the lecturers have been teaching for a period of 0-5 years and those that had been teaching for 6-10 years constitute 44 per cent of the teaching staff. Perhaps, it is this situation that accounts for the prevalence of the high percent of the teaching staff still being within the rank of lecturers.

The teaching load of the lecturers was also of interest; as it has implications on the quality of teaching and research services that are provided. Figure 8.5 gives us an idea of the teaching load.
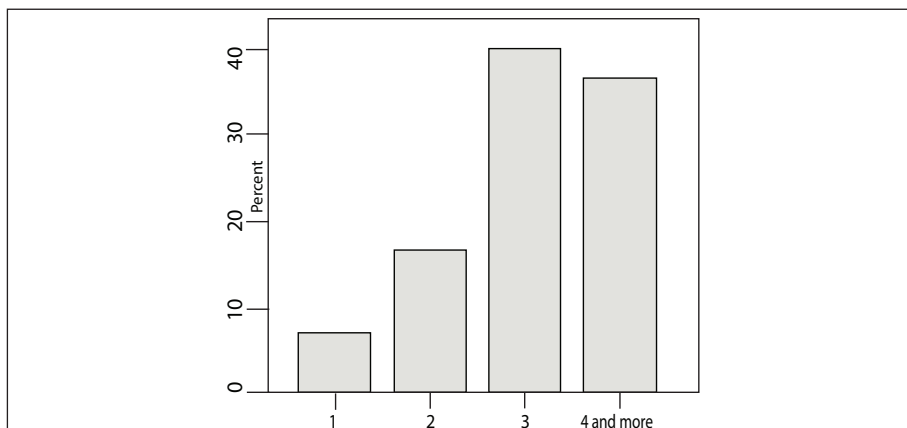
Figure 8.5: Number of Courses Taught Per Semester

Figure 8.5 shows that 40 per cent of lecturers teach three courses per semester and 37 per cent teach 4 and/more courses per semester. Those who teach two courses constitute 17 per cent and only a few, six per cent, handle only a single course per semester.

The average class size of core courses in VVU is illustrated in Figure8.6 below.
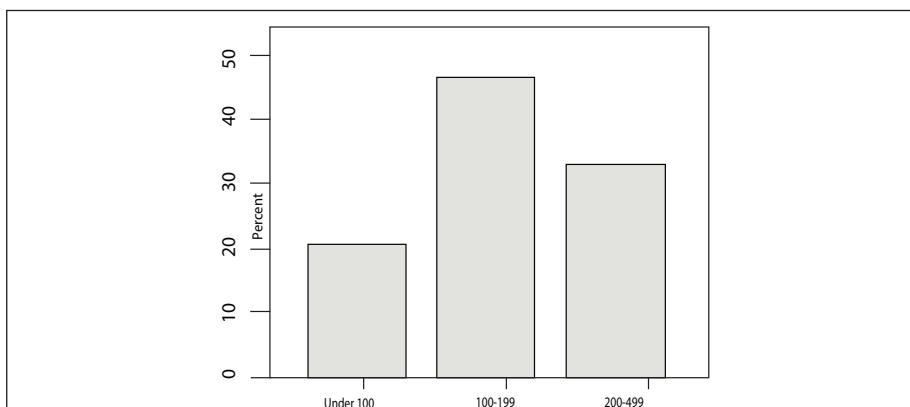
Figure 8.6: Average Size of Core Courses in VVU

As shown in Figure 8.6, class sizes of 100-199 of students constitute 47 per cent. While class sizes of 200-499 students consist of 33 pe rcent, those classes that are less than 100 constitute 20 per cent.

Effects of Classroom Situations on Lecturers' Output in VVU

Classroom situations impact on the outputs of lecturers in a number of ways. In this section, we examine some of the critical factors that affect the quality of teaching, research and publications. The factors examined here include: time spent on marking of examination scripts; the number of research papers written, and publication rate per year. These cases are examined in turns.

Time Spent on Marking Examination Scripts in VVU

Time spent on marking and processing examination scripts are influenced by such factors as the number of students being handled. The weight of student numbers do manifest on the length of time that lecturers spend on marking. Table 8.1 provides an indication of the length of time lecturers in VVU spend in marking and processing results.

Table 8.1: Duration for Marking and Processing of Examination Results

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
1-2 weeks	3	10.0	10.0	10.0
3-4 weeks	14	46.7	46.7	56.7
5-6 weeks	9	30.0	30.0	86.7
6 weeks and more	4	13.3	13.3	100.0
Total	**30**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

From Table 8.1, some 46.7 per cent of the lecturers spend 3-4 weeks in marking and processing of examination results. This is followed by 30.6 per cent of the lecturers that spend 5-6 weeks for the same task. It is also indicated that a significant group of lecturers that constitute 17.9 per cent spend 5-6 weeks in carrying out the task of marking and processing of examination results.

The effects on lecturers having to spend lengthy periods on teaching and assessing students are varied. But one of the obvious effects has to do with research output. Table 8.2 shows the number of peer review publications that are to the credit of lecturers in VVU.

Table 8.2: Number of Peer Review Publications to Credit

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
0-2	13	43.3	43.3	43.3
3-5	10	33.3	33.3	76.7
6-10	5	16.7	16.7	93.3
11 and more	2	6.7	6.7	100.0
Total	**30**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is shown in Table 8.2 that 43.3 per cent of the respondents have to their credit 0-2 peer reviewed publications. Also indicative in Table 8.2 is that 33.3 percent of the lecturers have 3-5 publications that have been peer reviewed. And those who have more than six peer reviewed publications constitute 23.4 per cent of the lecturers.

Effort by VVU lecturers to put research work into papers and the number of papers that are successfully published in peer reviewed journals/books per year in illustrated in Table 8.3 and Table 8.4 respectively.

Table 8.3: Average Research Papers Written by Lecturers per Year in VVU

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per centage
0-1	22	73.3	73.3	73.3
2-4	8	26.7	26.7	100.0
Total	**30**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is clear from Table 8.3 that on the average, 73.3 per cent of the lecturers write 0-1 paper per year. And those who checked for 2-4 papers constitute 26.7 per cent.

Table 8.4: Average Number of Papers Published in Peer Reviewed Journals in a Year

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
0-1	26	86.7	86.7	86.7
2-4	4	13.3	13.3	100.0
Total	**30**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

The case as shown in Table 8.4 is that on the average, 86.7 per cent of the respondents publish 0-1 paper in peer reviewed journals. Those who publish between 2-4 papers constitute 13.3 per cent. What this means in effect is that publication rates are low, as many are unable to make any publications. The suggested reasons for such low levels of publication are captured in Box 8.1

Box 8.1: Factors that Inhibit Research and Publications in VVU

1. I have many teaching periods in a week and I get tired at the end of the day (Lecturer)
2. I get occupied throughout the year teaching regular and sandwich students during the holidays (Lecturer)
3. Due to my involvement in Development Studies Practicum during the long vacation, I am unable to concentrate on writing and finishing papers for publication (Lecturer)

Capacity Building in Valley View University

The VVU has recognised the need to promote staff development programmes and as such it has encouraged its staffs to undertake further studies if such opportunities emerge. While encouraging staffs to undertake further academic studies, the VVU has also seen the need to regularly undertake internal in-service capacity building programmes. The QAAPU is a key player in organising in-service training programmes in the University. The role of the QAAPU in internal training activities is to ensure that the culture of quality assurance permeates the operations of the VVU. The QAAPU, for instance, provides orientations for the newly recruited staff to enable them come to terms with the expectations and the challenges that they would encounter in a higher education environment. These orientations expose teaching staff to pedagogical and research challenges that exist in the field of work.

Aside from the orientations that are given to the new staff, the QAAPU, from time to time, organises skills development workshops for staff to meet identified needs especially in pedagogy, research and publication. In such cases, resource persons from within and outside the VVU are utilised as facilitators. The extent to which such efforts benefited the respondents is indicated in Table 8.5.

Table 8.5: Modes of Benefit from Capacity Building Programs

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
Improved teaching and research skills	18	60.0	60.0	60.0
Improved research skills only	5	16.7	16.7	76.7
Improved teaching skills only	4	13.3	13.3	90.0
No benefit in particular	3	10.0	10.0	100.0
Total	**30**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

Table 8.5 shows that 60 per cent of the respondents checked that they benefited in the form of 'improved teaching and research skills.' The response from 16.7 per cent of the lecturers indicated that the capacity building efforts had benefited them in the form of 'improved research skills only.' Those who said their benefit was in the form of 'improved teaching skills only' constitute 13.3 per cent. And 10 per cent of the lecturers did indicate that they had had 'no benefit in particular.'

Prospects and Challenges of VVU

The VVU is an important player in the higher education landscape in Ghana. The VVU in its current format seeks to become a leading centre of excellence in Christian education. It has placed emphasis on the training of human resources in a context that prepares the graduates for the service of God and humanity. The VVU as the premier chartered private university carries the weight of proving that private providers of higher education are capable of delivering on quality.

The VVU has developed a number of academic programmes meant to meet their set goals of producing committed graduates for the service of God and humanity. As a private university, the routes to achieving the goals are principally through the managerial governance system. The VVU has therefore spread its operations to a number of campuses so as to bring university education closer to the consumers and to reap the needed funds. The evidence is that lecturers are tasked with many teaching responsibilities for both the regular and the sandwich sessions. The capacity of the lecturers to meet these tasks is rather circumscribed. The capacity constraints are made more pronounced given the relatively short teaching experiences of the lecturers and their low researched publication profiles.

The VVU has recognised the need to build capacities through workshops and the institutionalisation of internal quality assurance mechanisms. It is expected that in the medium term, the VVU will find the needed balance between the commercial imperatives of the institution and the required space for the lecturers to engage in activities that will also make them become effective contributors to knowledge.

SECTION IV

Two Private Universities: Valley View University
and Catholic University College of Ghana

certificate of incorporation by the NCTE. With some success chalked with fundraising and with the issuance of the incorporation certificate, Cardinal Peter Appiah-Turkson, who was then the president of the Ghana Catholic Bishops' Conference, made public the decision of starting the institution on 15 January 2002. In December 2002, the NAB also granted the Catholic University College an accreditation to run four-year undergraduate programmes. This, consequently, paved the way to admit students; for the Catholic University College to officially open for academic activities. Fifty pioneering students reported at the Pastoral Centre of the Sunyani Catholic Diocese on 3 March 2003 to start academic programmes in the University College. The motto of the Catholic institution typically captured in Latin *Scientiae Ac Sapientas Lumen Splendeat*, which translates to 'May the Light of Knowledge and Wisdom Shine Forth' was to suggest a new path for higher education training and scholarship in which knowledge would be of service to society.

The beginnings of the Catholic University College, just as it was with the other universities covered in this volume, was very meagre in terms of infrastructure (CUCG 2006). Bishop Kwadwo Owusu, who was then in charge of the Sunyani Diocese, offered a temporary site for the commencement of academic activities at the Diocesan Pastoral Centre in Sunyani. The structures available at the site were a six-classroom block for lectures, an Assembly Hall, and a mini canteen for catering and other services. There were two other blocks that were used to house the academic and administrative staff; library, computer laboratory and chaplaincy. The staffing situation was similarly scanty in 2003; the institution began with 15 academic and 14 administrative and supporting staff. With this humble beginning, the second batch of 32 students was admitted on 3 November 2003. The official commissioning of the institution was delayed till 13 November 2003; when the second batch of students had actually reported (CUCG 2006).

The constraints of limited infrastructure became evident as it was difficult to expand students' intake into the inadequate space that the Sunyani Pastoral Diocesan Centre provided. And for a private funded higher education institution, small student numbers was bound to have a telling effect on the economic viability of the university project. But the Catholic Church was committed to carrying through the plan. Subsequently, structures at the permanent site at Fiapre began springing up after the official foundation stone was laid on 25 April 2007 by Cardinal Ivan Diaz (CUCG 2006). The construction of the structures was carried out expeditiously, to make it possible for academic work to begin at the site at beginning of the 2008/2009 academic year. This helped to ease infrastructural constraints and enabled the institution to expand its intake to about 4,500, in the 2013/14 academic year. This

has also helped the institution to mount a wider range of programmes than was previously the case and winched up the Catholic University College's visibility to become an auspicious player in the country's higher education space. The corporate plan of the CUCG captures its vision as being …

> To create a Unique University that can make a distinctive contribution to national development as an institution of academic and technical excellence whose products are endowed with real practical ability, a moral vision of life and profound religious motivation for service in all spheres of life' (CUCG 2014).

This vision envisages to holistically transform the students of the CUCG by integrating academic work with moral values, for effective service to humanity. The mission statement of the corporate plan seeks to consummate the vision by indicating that the institution seeks to '… promote academic excellence, moral or ethical values as well as the integral personal development of … students and their commitment to service' (CUCG 2014).

This, thus, brings in a close semblance between what the two private universities aim at accomplishing. For these faith-based universities, the *lacuna* to deal with in the higher education system in Ghana has to do with moral turpitude, which the imperatives of Christian religious values must tackle. The responsibility of the CUCG is to fill this gap by marrying academic work with Catholic-based moral/ ethical values, so as to overcome the inadequacies of brazen secular education. A number of programmes aimed at objectifying a total training schedule of students, for the benefit of society at large, are thus run by the institution (CUCG 2014).

The Driving Philosophy and Objectives of the CUCG

The philosophy that drives the CUCG is that education is integral to human growth and societal development. The University College at Fiapre, like other acclaimed Catholic universities worldwide, is to provide complete education through qualitative, innovative, practical and holistic training. This is to be realised through a mission that seeks to uplift not only students' academic capacity but to also infuse students with a high sense of moral or ethical values, as they are considered to be essential to their personal development.

In line with the stated vision and mission of the Catholic University College, a number of objectives have been outlined to guide the delivery of services. These are to:

a) inculcate high moral standards and impart gospel values to the students in their integral formation in the course of the University education;

b) support the development efforts of the country through emphasis on science and technology (and in particular, Information Technology) and ensure that the University remain relevant and forward looking;

c) promote cultural values and ideals through relevant courses and research and in this way contribute to social solidarity, cohesion and advance enculturation;

d) help the individual to realise his/her potential;

e) produce a new type of students:

iv. capable of adapting to the changing work environment;

v. with skills, technical literacy and competence in computers, numeracy etc.;

vi. very knowledgeable of the current trends in local and international affairs; and capable of making positive contribution to his/her society.

The philosophy and objectives as outlined are mostly achievable through the services provided by the academic units. In the case of the CUCG, the basic academic units currently, are the Faculties. This is an apparent lean corporate management policy aimed at de-layering of the institutional governance structures for the sake of reducing operational cost. The Faculties, therefore, roll out programmes that are specific to their specialised fields. The programmes that the University College runs are captured in the next section.

Faculties and Programmes in the CUCG

The CUCG is an affiliated institution of the University of Ghana. However, the University College now has programme affiliations to a number of institutions such as University of Cape Coast, Boston College in the U.S, Catholic University of America (US) and Saint Mary's University (Canada) for the running of their programmes. It is worth mentioning that all the mentoring institutions outside Ghana are Catholic founded institutions of higher education. As indicated, the academic programmes in the University College are mainly conducted at the Faculty level. This is unlike the situation in the other universities that are covered in this study, where the departments are the primary units of academic teaching service. The CUCG now has five Faculties, and a School.

The CUCG started with three Faculties in 2003. The pioneering faculties are: the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration; the Faculty of Religious Studies and the Faculty of Information Communication Sciences and Technology. In the 2007/2008 academic year, two faculties, the Faculty of Public Health and the Faculty of Education, were added. The School of Research and Graduate

Studies was set up in 2010 as the latest complement of the academic units. The undergraduate degree programmes, which the Catholic University College started, led to the award of BSc. Computer Science; BSc. Economics and Business Administration; and BA Religious Studies (CUCG 2006).

The Faculty of Information and Communication Sciences and Technology (ICST)

The Faculty of Information and Communication Sciences and Technology (ICST) started as one of the pioneering faculties of the CUCG. The ICST Faculty aims at training graduates that will become a corps of dedicated, innovative researchers and engineers for the competitive job market. By the quality of training that is provided, graduates of the Faculty are expected to be comfortable working in such areas as Computer Engineering, Software Development, Business Information Systems and Network Engineering among others. In designing the ICST programmes, due consideration is given to the content, relevance and innovativeness; such that a strong foundation in technical skills for solutions in industry and business can be realised. The ICST Faculty provides avenues to students to graduate with the following degrees: (1) BSc (Computer Science); (2) BSc (Actuarial Science); (3) BSc (Mathematics with Finance); and (4) BSc (Mathematics with Economics).

Faculty of Economics and Business Administration

The Faculty offers students the possibility of obtaining a Bachelor of Science (BSc) degree in Economics and Business Administration. The programmes of study provided by the Faculty aim at equipping students with analytical capacity required for understanding economic issues and entrepreneurial skills. These are the necessary tools for meeting the challenges of business administration and management in the competitive global environment. Specifically, the programme seeks to train graduates that will have the capacity and versatility to meet the needs and requirements of commerce and industry for the country's economic development agenda. By the ethical requirements of the University College, the Faculty is positioned to nourish its graduates with values that will make them contribute positively to society. The Faculty offers four major options, namely: Economics option; Accounting option; Management option; and Banking and Finance option.

Faculty of Religious Studies

The rationale for establishing the Faculty of Religious Studies is linked to the Catholic antecedence of the Augustinian Friars of 1471, whereby religious education was seen as necessary for societal development. Since then, it has been seen that religious education has become a tool for liberating the minds of citizens from siege mentality. As the CUCG aims at providing holistic training with a high level of ethical/moral value transfusion into its graduates for effective national development, the programmes mounted by the Faculty of Religious Studies are meant to perform this undertaking. The role of the Faculty of Religious Studies is subsequently to play the role for a search for knowledge and understanding of how religion affects and improves the quality of lives of individuals and society at large. This is to be achieved through comparative study of the Holy Books of the World religions and the Judeo-Christian traditions, in particular. It is envisaged that through an inclusive anthropological study of religions, an understanding will be established for inter-religious appreciation and dialogue. The following are, therefore, the objectives of the Faculty:

  i.   The programme educates people who engage themselves with other religions for mutual understanding, tolerance as well as peaceful coexistence in secular democratic nation;
  ii. To prepare and graduate them to appreciate interreligious dialogue;
  iii. To prepare them to appreciate lasting values in general which are relevant for the modern African quest for nation building;
  iv. To reinforce the appreciation of the urgency of the Church's constant call for inculturation of the Christian faith in Africa.

The Faculty of Religious Studies runs its undergraduate programme in collaboration with the Faculty of Education which enables students of Religious Studies to do a B.A. degree in Religious Studies with a bias in Education. There is also an option that enables Religious Studies to do a concurrent programme B.A in Religious Studies and a Diploma in Education.

Faculty of Education

The Faculty of Education was established on the philosophy of strengthening the teaching profession in Ghana. This is done by offering students who wish to become teachers and educationists with a foundation in both the principles of teaching and learning. And in accordance with Catholic education philosophy, the objectives set for the programme are the following:

1. To provide students with the value based courses that seeks to nourish a love for learning and commitment to excellence;

2. To provide opportunity for practicing teachers and school administrators to upgrade their skills and qualifications;

3. To train student teachers in the Arts, Sciences and Social Sciences and prepare them for higher academic pursuits as teachers in Senior High Schools and other professional areas;

The Faculty of Education runs tracks of undergraduate programmes that lead to award of the following degrees:

a. B.Ed (Arts)

b. B.Ed (Mathematics)

c. B.Ed (Computer Science)

d. B.Ed (Accounting)

e. B.Ed (Geography)

This indicates that the Faculty of Education partners the other Faculties to train students in the various disciplines to become teachers in their chosen areas of specialisation.

Currently the Faculty of Education has moved a step further by introducing Graduate Diploma programmes to train non-professional graduate teachers to become professionally competent.

Faculty of Public Health and Allied Sciences (PHAS)

The Faculty of Public Health and Allied Sciences (PHAS) was established in the 2007/2008 academic year after going through an accreditation process with the NAB. The Faculty has programmes designed to produce health professionals that are to be recognised for their dedicated service and competence. The role of PHAS is seen to be essential to the mission of the Catholic Church of bringing health to the sick. To meet the healthcare needs of the country, the PHAS has adapted a comprehensive approach to the programmes they offer such that they can provide vital needs like health education and health facility management. In this respect, the PHAS has adopted an interdisciplinary approach to equip students with a holistic understanding for delivering quality and a cost-effective healthcare service.

The PHAS offers a four-year programme that leads to a Bachelor of Science degree in Public Health. Students have the opportunity to specialise in one of the following areas:

a. BSc Public Health (Health Management Option);

b. BSc (Public Health (Health Informatics Option); and

c. BSc Public Health (Health Education Option).

School of Research and Graduate Studies (SRGS)

In line with Schedule D of the Statutes of the CUCG, the School of Research and Graduate Studies came into being in 2010 to cater for the University College's need of running graduate programmes. The School is to perform other ancillary roles that would enhance the CUCG's research pedestal. The SRGS serves as the admission office for all graduate students and thereby keeps their records. The SRGS takes the principal responsibility of coordinating all graduate programmes and research activities in the University. The SRGS, by its nature, is thus divided into two sections, namely: Graduate Studies and the Centre of Applied Research Consultancy and Community Outreach (CARCCO).

The Graduate Studies section has the responsibility to initiate, implement and review University wide policies on graduate programmes that are approved by the Governing Board. The SRGS has a comprehensive superintendence over all graduate programmes and this is done through the approval of candidature, supervisors, coursework, thesis topic titles and synopses based on recommendations from Faculty Boards. In addition, the School takes charge of recommending the appointment of Internal and External Examiners in respect of written papers, dissertations or theses to the Senate.

Quality Assurance in CUCG

The mentoring institution, the University of Ghana, has the primary responsibility of guaranteeing quality in the services that the CUCG delivers. The CUCG also has programme affiliations to the University of Cape Coast, Boston College in the United States, and Saint Mary's University in Canada. These institutions have obligations to ensure quality in the programmes they superintend in the CUCG. However, like all the other higher education institutions in Ghana, the CUCG has taken steps to strengthen its internal mechanisms for quality assurance. Unlike the other universities that are covered, the CUCG has not assigned that responsibility of quality assurance to an autonomous body. Rather, the responsibility of quality assurance, since April 2010, has been assigned to the School of Research and Graduate Studies (SRGS). With this obligation, the SRGS has collaborated with a Senate sub-committee to review existing University instruments for evaluating and monitoring of staff and students.

The Governance Structure of the CUCG

The governance structure of the CUCG appears to combine ecclesiastical notions of leadership with contemporary secularised notions of corporate governance of higher education institutions in Ghana. In the scheme of things, there exists a higher tilt towards the former than the latter as there is a high dependence on the Catholic clergy and the laity in the governance structure. There is also evidence of small-sizing of the governance bodies. The lean size of its governance structures is apparently done to cut cost in a young, private funded higher education institution.

The governance structure of the CUCG is shown in Figure 9.1
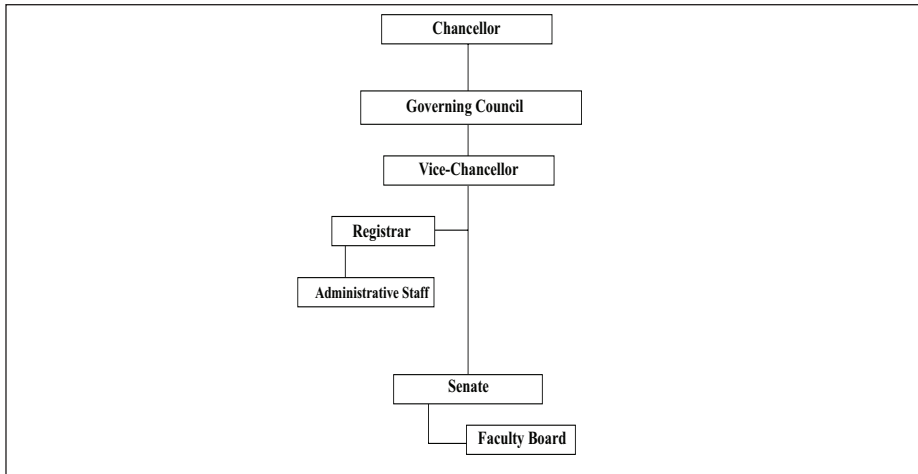
Figure 9.1: The Governance Structure of the Catholic University of Ghana

The Chancellor of the Catholic University College

The Chancellor of the Catholic University College of Ghana is Cardinal Peter Appiah-Turkson. This position is largely a ceremonial one. The position of the Chancellor takes precedence over all other positions in the institution. The Chancellor is responsible for promoting the image of the Catholic University College of Ghana. And as part of his ceremonial duties, the Chancellor is responsible for the award of degrees, diplomas and certificates to students who have successfully completed their programmes. In the absence of the Chancellor, the Chairman of the Governing Council deputises for him.

The Chancellor is kept informed of the activities of the institution through publications and minutes of the Governing Council and the Senate. This enables him to be abreast with the developments within the institution. The Chancellor brings moral authority into the governance system and the leadership structure of the institution.

The Governing Council of the CUCG

The Governing Council of the Catholic University of Ghana (CUCG) is the highest decision making body of the institution. The Governing Council is empowered by the Constitution and the statutes of the CUCG to take policy decisions for effective administration of the institution. Consequently, the Governing Council takes decisions on financial management as in such areas as students' fees, staffing, emoluments and the general working conditions within the institution. The Governing Council has the power to ascertain the assets and liabilities of the University College and thereby make decisions on the financial status of the institution as a corporate entity.

The Governing Council is chaired by the Archbishop of Tamale, the Most Rev. Philip Naameh. Again, we find the leadership at this level being entrusted mainly to the high clergy. This is an apparent push to Catholic's definition of leadership qualities as was captured in Augustinian thought. The membership of the Governing Council consists exclusively of Catholics. In fact out of the 14 members of the Governing Council, six are priests of the senior ranks and the rest are Catholic lay members, who nonetheless are distinguished academics and professionals. The Governing Council is thus designed to keep a balance between the institution's ecclesiastic objectives on one hand and the critical secular scholarship required for the running of higher education, on the other hand.

The Office of the Vice-Chancellor

The Vice-Chancellor of the Catholic University College of Ghana is the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of the institution. In this capacity the Vice-Chancellor is both the academic and administrative head of the institution, as well as its chief disciplinarian. He provides information about state of the institution to the Governing Council for policy decisions to be made.

As the Chief Executive Officer, the Vice-Chancellor is mandated to provide strategic direction on the growth and development of the institution. The Vice-Chancellor chairs the Senate (Academic Board) and all other committees of which he is a member. Aside from supervisory roles of academic affairs within the institution, the Office of the Vice-Chancellor in CUCG coordinates activities of all administrative

and financial issues of the institution. The Vice-Chancellor is expected to periodically address the Convocation of senior members about the state of the CUCG.

The Senate of the Catholic University College

The Senate of the Catholic University College is its Academic Board equivalent. The Senate is the second most important decision making body in the CUCG. In fact within the scope of academic programmes run in the institution, the Senate holds sway over all other bodies within the University. Matters relating to programmes and quality assurance are finally determined by the Senate. The Senate considers all academic matters that are referred to it by the Faculty and School Boards. The Senate is also responsible for the approval of examination results that are forwarded to it by the Faculties.

Faculty and School Boards

The Faculties in the Catholic University College are its basic teaching. The Faculties and Schools are headed by Deans and they take up the responsibility of assigning teaching duties. The Deans monitor their staff to ensure quality service is delivered. In addition to academic responsibilities, Deans are administrative heads of their respective faculties and they are in turn responsible to the Vice-Chancellor.

Each Faculty has a Board that is chaired by the Dean; and is assisted by the Vice Dean. The membership of the Faculty Board consists of all academic members of the Faculty. As the primary academic units in the CUCG, the Faculty Boards are responsible for taking decisions on relevant academic and administrative matters for the running of their faculties. In this respect, the Faculty Board examines the content of programmes and recommends same for Senate approval.

Faculties are also responsible for examining students and processing their results. As noted, the results are ultimately approved by Senate.

Capacity of Lecturers and Classroom Situation in CUCG

The capacity issues in the institution were examined by looking at a number of criteria. These include academic qualification; the experience of staff and the scholarly credentials of academic staff.

Highest Academic Qualification of Lecturers in CUCG

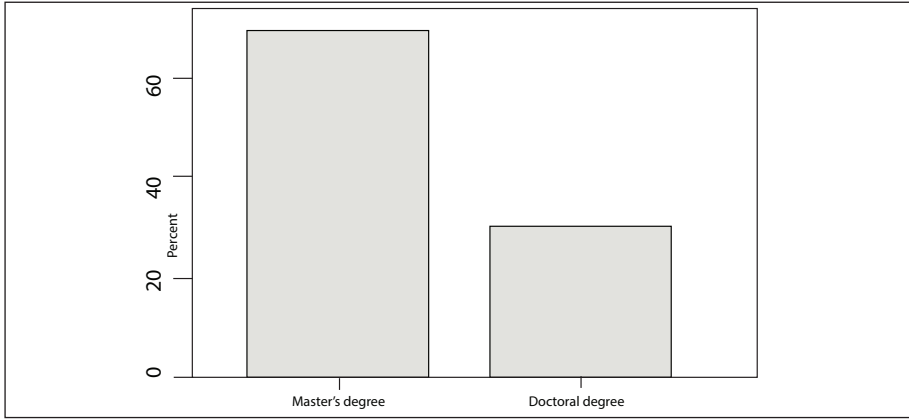In the CUCG the highest academic qualifications of the respondent lecturers are shown in Figure 9.2

Figure 9.2: Highest Academic Qualifications of Lecturers in CUCG

It is shown in Figure 9.2 that about 70 per cent of the lecturers in CUCG have Master's degree as their highest academic qualification. It is also indicated that 30 per cent of the lecturers have a Doctoral degree as the highest academic qualification.

While the level of academic qualifications is important, it does not by itself provide the total picture about the capacity of a lecturer. In academia, professional ranking of academic staff is important. This is important because promotions are mostly determined by research output through peer reviewed publications. The professional ranking of lecturers in the CUCG is shown in Figure 9.3
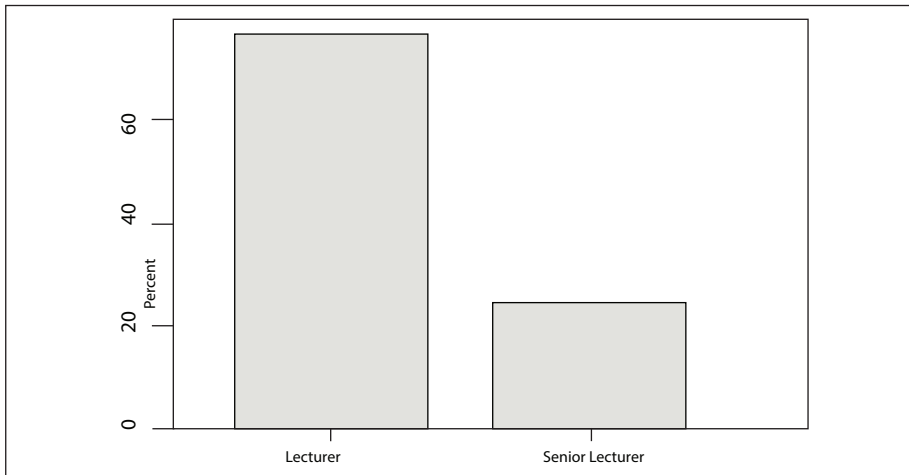

Figure 9.3: Professional Ranking of Lecturers in CUCG

It is shown in Figure 9.4 that while 76 per cent of the teaching staff are within the category of Lecturers, 26 per cent checked senior lecturer as their professional ranking. What this means is that the majority of the teaching staff have not yet endeared themselves to meet the demands for promotion to the next level of the academic rank.

One other factor that was considered to be vital to the building of capacity of lecturers was the length of teaching. It is understood that the length of teaching provides the experience that makes lecturers to adapt easily to the challenges of the classroom situation. The experience at the disposal of lecturers in CUCG is depicted in Figure 9.4
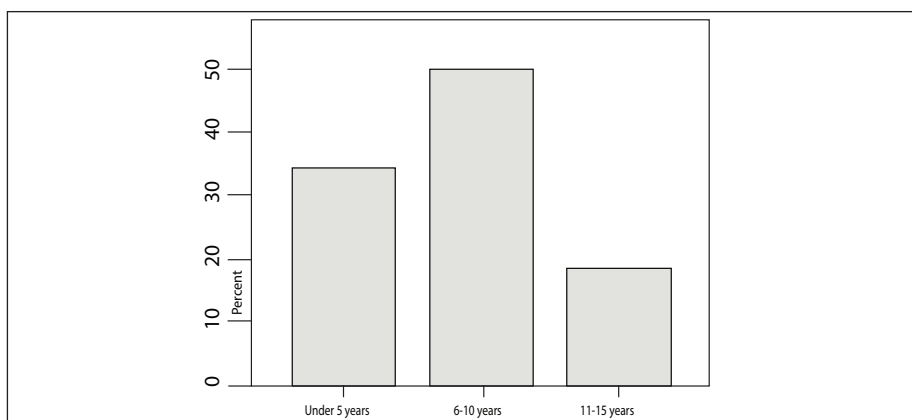
Figure 9.4: Length of Teaching of Lecturers in CUCG

As shown in Figure 9.4, while 49 per cent of the lecturers indicated that they had been teaching for 6-10 years, 33 per cent checked they had been on the job for five years or less. This shows that 81 per cent of the teaching staff had been around for not more than 10 years. This situation is explained by the fact that the CUCG is a young university. Those who had taught for 11-15 years constitute 18 per cent.

Teaching load of lecturers is a factor that can affect the efficiency and quality service delivery. The weight of teaching load on lecturers in CUCG as indicated by the respondents is shown in Figure 9.5 in terms of number of courses taught per semester.
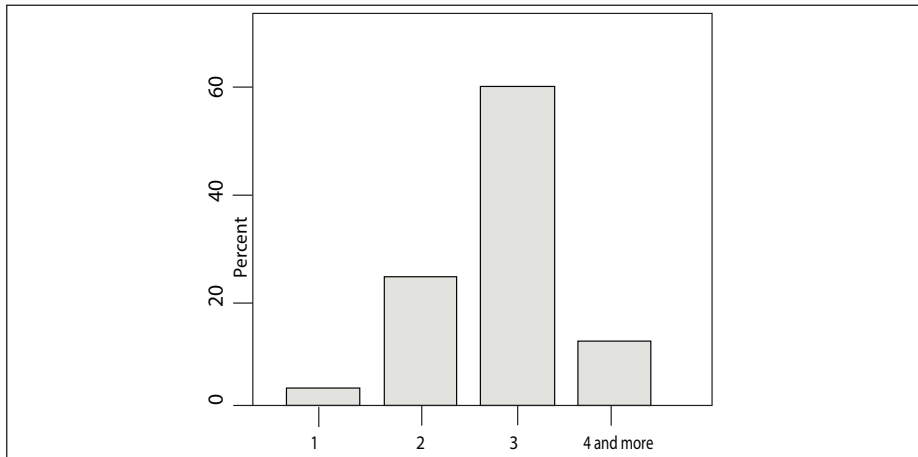
Figure 9.5: Number of Courses per Semester

It is shown that those who teach three courses per semester constitute 61 per cent. Lecturers who indicate that they teach two courses per semester constitute 24 per cent. The outlier cases are respectively those teach 4 and/more courses (12 per cent) and those who handle one course (three per cent).
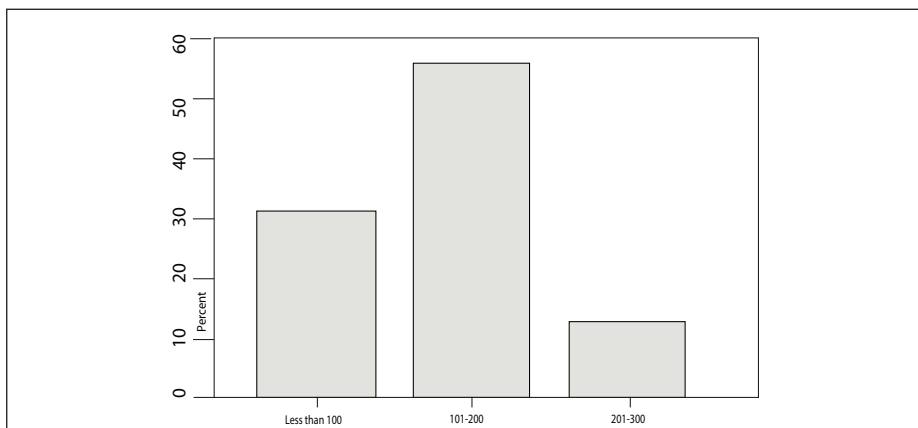
Figure 9.6: Number of Students for Compulsory Courses

The class sizes of compulsory courses, as indicated by students, are that most of them attend classes that are populated by 101-200 students, which represent 56 per cent. However, 31 per cent of the students indicated that their class sizes are 'less than 100.' Those who have compulsory courses with class sizes of 201-300 constitute 13 per cent.

Effects of Classroom Situation on Lecturers' Output in CUCG

The effort in this section is to examine the effects of classroom situations on lecturers' output. Our focus in the Table 9.1 is on the duration it takes lecturers to mark and process examination scripts.

Table 9.1: Duration of Marking and Processing of Examination Results

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
1-2 weeks	9	27.3	27.3	27.3
3-4 weeks	17	51.5	51.5	78.8
5-6 weeks	7	21.2	21.2	100.0
Total	33	100.0	100.0	

The evidence as shown in Table 9.1is that 51.5 per cent of the lecturers indicated that they spend 3-4 weeks in marking and processing of results. However, 27.3 per cent of the lecturers checked they spend 1-2 weeks for the same task. There are also cases where longer periods are used. As seen in Table 9.1, 21.2 per cent of the lecturers spend 5-6 weeks marking and processing exam results. The relative short period for marking and processing of results in CUCG is mainly due to small size of classes.

Peer Review Publications to Credit in CUCG

An important factor in the academic life of a lecturer is the pedigree he/she achieves through publications in peer review journals. Such is the importance attached to this factor that it forms the basis for professional progression. The Table 9.2 captures the number of peer reviewed publications that are credited to the respondents.

Table 9.2: Number of Peer Reviewed Publications Credited

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
0-2	13	39.4	39.4	39.4
3-5	15	45.5	45.5	84.8
6-10	5	15.2	15.2	100.0
Total	**33**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

It is depicted in Table 9.2 that 45.5 per cent of the lecturers indicated 3-5 publications to their credit in peer reviewed journals. It is also shown that 39.4 per cent of the lecturers fall within the cohort that have 0-2 publications. Those who checked that they published 6-10 paper constitute 15.2 per cent.

The success rate of papers published in peer review journals in shown in Table 9.3 and Table 9.4 respectively shows the efforts.

Table 9.3: Average Number of Research Papers Written Per Year

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
0-1	11	33.3	33.3	33.3
2-4	18	54.5	54.5	87.9
5 and above	4	12.1	12.1	100.0
Total	**33**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

Table 9.3 shows that 54.5 per cent of the respondents indicate that they write 2-4 papers per year. Those who write 0-1 paper constitute 33.3 per cent while those who put in the effort to write '5 and above' papers comprise 12.1 per cent. The rate at which the papers written get published is captured in Table 9.4

Table 9.4: Average Number of Papers Published in Peer Reviewed Journals in a Year

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid %	Cumulative Per cent
0-1	22	66.7	66.7	66.7
2-4	9	27.3	27.3	93.9
5 and above	2	6.1	6.1	100.0
Total	**33**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

The evidence as captured in Table 9.4 is that on the average, 66.7 per cent of the lecturers publish 0-1 paper a year. While those who are successful with 2-4 papers on the average per year constitute 27.3 per cent, it is only 6.1 per cent of the lecturers that checked they are successful with '5 and above' papers a year in peer review journals. It is obvious that the efforts made in writing papers are not marched with the ability of having the papers published. The reasons adduced by some lecturers for this state of affairs are found in Box 9.1

Box 9.1: Factors that Inhibit Research and Publication in CUCG

> 1. It appears I lack the experience to successfully compete with others to have my papers published (Lecturer)
> 2. The cost of having the papers published is an inhibiting factor that should be considered (Lecturer)
> 3. Workload for teaching during the normal academic session and during the holidays takes most of the time at my disposal (Lecturer)

Capacity Building of Staffs in UCCG

The CUCG pursues staff development policies to boost the academic and professional capacities of staff. To enhance the academic profiles of its staff, the CUCG allows or encourages lecturers to enrol in programmes that enable them to achieve terminal degrees. To facilitate this process, the CUCG has, for instance, worked out scholarship arrangement with the Jacob-Christian-Adam Foundation in Germany for staff development in programmes offered locally in Ghanaian universities.

The CUCG has also recognised the need for on-the-job capacity building programmes by organising workshops for staff. The institution also provides avenues for staff to attend conferences and workshops that are organised elsewhere for building research and pedagogical skills. This is to create grounds for both young and old faculty to continually sharpen research skills and know-how for efficient academic service delivery.

Prospects and Challenges of CUCG

The CUCG has envisaged in their strategic plan to promote academic excellence that goes with a moral and ethical values system. It is believed that this will make their graduates adequately committed to the services that they will deliver

to society. The dual emphasis on academic excellence and moral uprightness is an effort aimed at dealing with the ills of society; even as people acquire higher education. With the management of the CUCG largely in the hands of the clergy and the Catholic faithful, and with the pivotal role of the Faculty of Religious Studies, the prospect for delivering on this niche may not be too difficult.

The challenge of delivering on the other leg of the mission that is the realisation of academic excellence may, however, call for hard work. This is because the capacity of teaching staff, as evinced in our discussion, would take a while to be elevated to competitive levels. The faculty is inexperienced and the related challenges that emanate from that sort of situation will remain an immediate to medium term difficulty. It is, however, worth noting that the authorities have recognised this fact and have thus put in place measures to remedy the situation. It is hoped that with the support of the mentoring universities, the CUCG will transcend the capacity challenges among its staff to enable them become a major player in the higher education landscape in Ghana.

SECTION V

Public and Private Universities
in Comparative Perspective

10

The Public and Private Universities in Perspective

Introduction

The chapter provides us some key governance issues as they relate to the universities covered in the study. It examines similarities and dissimilarities as they deal with the mandates and objectives of the institutions; and also with the vexed matter of public to private goods syndrome within the higher education landscape in Ghana.

Mandates and Missions

The public universities in Ghana have been established with definite mandates to meet various development needs of the country. The epochal contexts within which specific public universities were established largely determined the couching of their mandates. For the public universities, their respective mandates are spelt out in the laws (Ordinances, Acts of Parliament or Decrees) that established them. The mandates are indicated to give direction to the specific roles each of the public universities is to play in the country's development agenda. The pathways for the realisation of the mandates of the public universities are normally reflected in the content and the principles of their respective statutes; and in recent times, this is also evident in their respective strategic plans. The founding of the public universities actually spans the colonial to the postcolonial periods. This, therefore, put us in a position to situate the respective mandates within the framework of how the demands of the period influenced the framing of the content of the laws.

Even though the setting up of the private universities has not been based on any specific Acts of Parliament or Decrees, the objectives for joining the ranks of higher education are usually captured in the specific institutional constitutions, statutes and strategic plans that are purposed to address the voids they seek to remediate. It is important to reiterate that the private universities in Ghana are products of the late 20th century and the early 21st century neoliberal environment, which is palpably different from the state-centric environment in which the first public universities – University of Ghana, KNUST and the UCC – were, established (Gasu 2011a). The temporal differentials somewhat presented a new scope of global circumstances, which demanded the posing of a different set of questions pertaining to the expected roles of higher education and how that was to be realised. We will now turn to an analysis of the governance systems of the respective universities, as has been determined by the mandates the institutions had been assigned.

The Public Universities and their Mandates

The four public universities were set up with mandates to meet specified national development needs. Between the founding of University of Ghana, in 1948, and that of the University for Development Studies, in 1992, Ghana as a country had stepped through several development challenges that required institutional responses for human resources development. The various universities were established on the conviction that their specialised fields of focus would serve as channels for a holistic human capital building for the tasks of national development.

The University of Ghana, when it was established as an affiliated institution under the University of London, was intended to address the paucity of human resources in the administrative set up of the colonial state that was on the threshold of independence. The focus, therefore, was to train administrators with a liberal philosophy that was modelled along the traditions of metropolitan Britain. In the Colonial Ordinance that established the University College of the Gold Coast (University of Ghana), it was simply put that the institution was set up for the 'purpose of providing for and promoting university education, learning and research.' However, the content of the programmes and the inculturation within the institution, at the time, became a problematic issue for the nationalist government, under Kwame Nkrumah, that came to power in 1951. This subsequently called for the interrogation of the extrinsic relevance of the contents of the courses that were rolled out in the University to the Ghanaian and African situation. The polemics that emerged regarding the extrinsic value

of the programmes of the institution became a protracted issue, till they were supposed to be resolved in 1961; under Act 79 that weaned the institution off the University of London mentorship.

Thence, a vigorous effort at indigenising the critical academic and administrative staff went along with refocusing the content of programmes that reflected the African situation became a major concern (Adesina 2006; Agbodeka 1998). As a higher education institution in a newly independent African country, premium was placed on enhancing the contribution of the University towards teaching, research and dissemination of knowledge that met the aspirations of both nation building and the unity of the continent. As enshrined in the University of Ghana (1961) Act 79, the mandate was not only to deal with the Ghanaian situation but to reflect the pioneering and the frontal decolonisation role of Kwame Nkrumah's pan-African agenda.

Similar, scenarios did also play out in the KNUST. The Colonial Ordinance of 6 October 1951, which set up the Kumasi College of Technology (the antecedence of Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology), charged the institution with a mandate to train graduates for the scientific and technological development of the country. But the nationalist government under Nkrumah, again, found the mandate too broad to address the specific concerns of the Ghanaian and African situation. And with a similar institutional mentorship arrangement as that of the University of Ghana, which placed both institutions under the University of London, the umbrage that was exhibited towards the content and relevance of the courses to the Africa situation became the portion of the University in Kumasi to bear, as well. Consequently, a similar approach was adopted in dealing with the concerns of the government towards making the institution relevant to the Ghanaian and African development situation. Again, the promotion of the academic and research activities of the University toward the continent's unification was made a critical factor in the new legislation that underpinned the mandate of the institution, namely Parliamentary Act 80 of 1961. An accelerated indigenisation policy for the critical academic and administrative staff of the two chartered universities was rolled out for the purpose of actualising the significance of the programmes to the local situation.

While a conscious effort was made to enhance the local content of the programmes, the governance structure and the received culture remained largely unaffected. The governance structures and the accompanying culture were defended as the bastion for academic quality assurance. The leverage which institutional autonomy provided and the latitude that academic freedom guaranteed were to be ensured in order not to diminish the status of higher education as the citadel

of academic excellence. However, in the emerging situation it was sensed that the zealousness of the nationalist government to reshape the universities was creating an eccentric path for governmental interference and scenarios for governmental tele-guiding of the internal workings in the University of Ghana and the KNUST. As this situation conflicted with the traditional liberal notions of academic quality assurance in higher education governance, divisions in opinion regarding the scale of governmental involvement in the corporate governance of the public universities emerged. The dividing line was mainly between those who defended the status quo of minimalism in governmental direction of the universities, and the advocates of state extensionist view as postulated by the nationalists.

The argument from those who adopted the posture of state extensionism was that the stultifying effects of colonialism and the circumstances in the newly independent states like Ghana were such that the intellectual and research outputs of the higher education institutions should feed directly into the national development agenda. The universities in Ghana, as were conceived in the newly independent African states like Nigeria, Tanzania and Kenya, among others, were to be essentially developmental universities, with intellectual outputs that connect with the programmes of the state (Mamdani 2008; Adesina 2006). This was typified by the examples of universities of Dar es Salaam and of Ibadan. Parallelism in the efforts of the state and higher education was to be discouraged; as they were construed as wastage of scarce public resources. Given this plausible argument, whether the public universities could effectively execute their respective tasks within the framework of intrusive governmental control, remained a nagging issue.

At the centre of the ensuing debates were the traditional liberal notions of higher education autonomy and the cultural correlate of academic freedom. These were the tenets upon which the colonial higher education projects were built and the culture that legitimated their existence. But the waning of liberal democratic culture in the national political system and the rise of political monolithism in the immediate postcolonial period only created doubts about the real intents of the government. The intrusive role of the Interim University Councils gave credence to the notion that given the chance the universities were to become sheer propaganda tools of the government. Such governance approach belied the postulate of the nationalists that they seek to enhance the extrinsic value of institutions of higher education in the country. It must be said, though, that the mistrust that had existed, among the principal stakeholders, about the appropriate role of the state in the governance system for the existing two universities was ideologically driven.

The eagerness of the nationalist government of Kwame Nkrumah to reshape the universities to fit into the immediate developmental needs of the country and

the African unification agenda brought his government into endless altercations with the advocates of the liberal mission of these institutions. As pointed out in chapter 4, the Colonial Governor had restrained Nkrumah from pulling the University College of the Gold Coast (University of Ghana) out of the mentorship arrangement with the University of London. The attainment of independence, in 1957, created an opportunity for Nkrumah's government to become more assertive in redefining the mandate of the two existing universities, especially as the halting influence of the Colonial Governors were removed upon the attainment of republican status in 1960.

The first real opportunity for setting up of a higher education institution that was to capture the essentials of the Ghanaian situation was through the establishment of the University of Cape Coast, in 1962. The University of Cape Coast was established with the basic objective of training teachers in the sciences and general arts. The institution was to fill the obvious gap that had existed in churning out professional teachers for second cycle schools. The schools at the secondary level play a critical intermediary role in linking basic schools to the universities. The understanding of the government, at the time, was that the efforts at enhancing the capacity of human resources through university education would be thwarted if the pedagogical skills for knowledge transmission at the secondary level were inefficient.

Whereas the recognition for the training of teachers for secondary schools was the pivotal issue for the establishment of the University of Cape Coast, it was also a matter of concern that that objective would be lost if the institution was left to clone professionals that were alienated from their Ghanaian cultural roots. The scepticism of the government about the mission of the colonial higher education projects in the country was still alive. In line with the existing ongoing domestication processes, the University was placed under the tutelage of the University of Ghana. This was the case, notwithstanding the fact that protestations from within and without the University of Cape Coast that the institution would best be served if it was placed under the University of London (Agbodeka, 1998). Doing so would have been a negation of the very anti-colonial stance that the government had taken in respect to the governance of the universities. Not even a change in government after the military putsch, which dislodged Nkrumah's government in February 1966, did affect the *status quo*. As had been pointed out in chapter 6 of this volume, it was not until 1971 that full autonomy was eventually granted the University of Cape Coast.

Even though it was the government's expectation that the governance structure of the UCC should be different from those of the earlier universities, that effort

failed largely because there was no indigenous higher education system to serve as a model aside from what had been inherited from the colonial projects. Thus, even though the UCC did not come under direct mentorship of the metropolitan universities, its tutelage under University of Ghana turned out to produce enculturation of the very institutional values that were thought to be the universal foundations for higher education. It is in this sense that we find similarity in the governance structure of the first three public universities and the cultures in which their operations are legitimated.

Nonetheless, the 30 years' time lapse between the establishment of the University of Cape Coast in 1962 and the University for Development Studies in 1992 was significant in many ways. Firstly, the initial governmental suspicions that the universities were instruments for mental re-colonization had substantially reduced. The futility of corporate governance redesign for the University of Cape Coast was also very much in evidence. And by 1992 the socioeconomic arrangement that placed the state at the centre of the public space had substantially waned, as a result of the global neoliberal wave. The country's population was also fatigued by the unmitigated autocratic control that had pitted the state against higher education in the existing power matrix. In a word, Ghana was on the verge of returning to another liberal democratic experiment that has coincidentally worked quite well since.

The biting effects of economic failure and the commercialisation of social products in the emerging market economy brought to the fore the issue of uneven spread of the benefits and costs of the economic policies pursued in the interregnum. As the distribution of the benefits and costs tendentiously mimicked the colonial spatial development pattern, especially to the disadvantage of northern Ghana, the UDS was set up with the aim of contributing towards the bridging of the north-south development gap in Ghana. The legal framework of the University as was framed in the PNDCL 279 lucidly spells out this mandate with such a passion that makes it appear that the institution was regional in nature. The conviction of the state-managers regarding its adherence to the mission was so strong that the University from the very onset was established as a chartered institution of higher education. This was the first time that a public university in Ghana started without it being placed under any direct mentorship arrangement with any existing university. Clearly, this stance was born out of the belief that placing it under an existing university would contaminate its mission, towards what was perceived as the inadequacies of the existing public universities. The American Land Grant University philosophy upon which the UDS was set up, as pointed out in chapter 7, in theory provided the institution the latitude to shift to the

American corporate governance system. However, the governance structure of the UDS follows the traditional British system. This has been the case largely because the members of the Task Force that was assigned the responsibility of putting together the framework for the establishment of the University were drawn from the existing universities they could only offer what they were familiar with.

As had been alluded, the UDS came into being in the era when the power contest between the state and higher education had taken new dimension. The experiences of the past have produced a learning curve that somehow settled that paranoiac relationship that had existed between state managers and the universities. It was realised that the interest of the government could still be served if higher education was given space to engage in a dialogical relationship with government on matters of mutual interest. It is in this sense that under the 1992 constitution, the Head of State was removed from assuming the position of Chancellor of public universities. This is not to suggest that governments have absolutely ceded their influence on the workings within the universities. The intercessory roles that the NCTE, the NAB and Vice Chancellors Ghana (VCG) played have helped in reducing the tensions between state managers and the universities. The roles of these bodies are to ensure that the public universities do not pursue objectives that are not inconsistent with those of the state.

Having indicated that, it is also important to recollect that the 1990s marked the transition from the antecedent situation of full state-sponsorship of higher education to the phenomena of fee paying arrangements as it is today. For the public universities specifically, that meant the adoption of new governance cultures and leadership capacities for the corporatisation of higher education. In practice it meant the transfusion of the ethics of commercialisation of the products that the universities offer. The Psacharopoulos' calculus of the rates of return for higher education that is said to convey private benefits and for which the individual consumer must pay for, had come into effect in Ghana through the fee payment recommendations of the URC.

The dialectical clash of ideas that became inevitable between the consumers of higher education products on the one hand and the providers of such services on the other hand, created instability for the leadership of university education in Ghana; especially as students through the National Union of Ghana Students (NUGS) resisted the imposition of fees. The instability that emerged was quite crippling on the leadership of the public universities as the integrity of academic calendars could not be guaranteed. However, this transition phase was short-lived as it dawned on all the stakeholders that the *status quo ante* could not hold in the face of global trends. The payment of fees has thence become part of corporatised

effort for fund mobilisation in the public universities, with many programmes being offered on purely commercial lines. As public universities adopted this line of mobilisation of funds, concerns have been raised about its implications for quality service delivery. Some of the reasons adduced by lecturers that engage in sandwich, parallel and weekend programmes point to the fact that research and publication tends to be sacrificed for economic gains from these moonlighting activities. These are problems the leadership of these institutions must deal with as they aspire for their institutions to be visible in the knowledge economy.

Private Universities' Mandates

The de-monopolisation of establishing higher education has created the space for private operators with Smithian market instinct to take advantage of the situation to set up institutions for the large unabsorbed qualified school leavers. The VVU and the CUCG are just two examples of a large number of private universities currently operating in Ghana. These two universities were established by two Christian religious organisations. It is clear from the strategic missions of the two universities that they have the objective of remedying the moral turpitude that they perceive exists among Ghanaian youth, even as they achieve higher education. Both institutions seem to carry prelatic messages to the lecture halls; which is to suggest that academic scholarship without religious ethics was degeneracy. In the governance system of both universities, therefore, we find an admixture of religious concerns and the secular scholastic demands for higher education.

The missions of the two institutions are consequently replete with moral/ethical objectives they seek to realise. It is clearly indicated by the two faith-based universities that humankind can only be of good service to society if they are driven towards the realisation of Augustinian vision. The role of their respective Departments of Religious Studies programmes is instrumental in their quest to offer a new dimension to higher education scholarship. While the institutions were established to enhance the moral standards of their graduates, the apparent contradiction in their stance is that the commoditisation of their services indeed debars access to the poor, who may need that moral rectification as well. The challenge the leadership of the private universities face is how to cut cost through extensive teaching tasks of lecturers and yet expect the same overused staff to engage in robust research and publication activities. That balance, it appears, has not been found yet as the publication profiles of the lecturers have shown in the respective chapters above.

From Public to Private Goods Syndrome

It is discussed quite extensively that higher education in Ghana, and the rest of Africa, were established at the time when graduates of the universities were considered to be of high social and economic benefit to the society (Ochwa-Echell 2013). The state, therefore, took social responsibility of creating and providing higher education services as public goods for all that qualified (Mamdani 2006). The responsibility the state assumed in paying the costs for training the human resources was, therefore, construed as the avenue for state control of the internal workings of the universities.

As indicated, the ability of the state to bear the responsibilities of the universities in Ghana began to diminish as the economy slumped in the 1970s. The ramifications of the ill-performing economy were far reaching; the political system became unstable and with a restive population. The loss of the state's fiscal capacity to continue ensuring higher education as a public good laid the basis for students' riotousness and interruptions in academic calendars up to the 1990s. The leaders of the universities hardly had an antidote to the riotous students that sought to undo the imperative of redefining higher education a private good through institutionalisation of fee payments.

The resistance to commercialisation of academic programmes in public universities could not be carried for too long, as the global reality is one that has come to largely accept private good conception of higher education. The stoppage of the students' riots could only be done through the repressiveness of the state; and not through the ability of the university leadership to resolve the matters themselves with the students.

With the corporatisation of the public universities, the governance systems between public and private institutions have become blurred. This has sparked a turf war between the public and private universities in the marketplace for sandwich and parallel programmes. The consequences of such accumulation drives are well shown in the mediocre scholarly publications across board. Yet both the public and private universities have isomorphic visions of becoming world class higher education institutions. The leadership in both the public and private institutions has not demonstrated adequately that they make their respective institutions active participants in the knowledge economy.

11

Conclusion and Recommendations

The transformations that have occurred on the higher education landscape have thrown up many challenges for leadership in higher education. As has been pointed out, higher education governance in Ghana reflects the general trend in Africa, which is a movement away from collegial system to managerialism. Prior to the 1990s, however, higher education governance was mainly based on the understanding that it was the state's responsibility to provide, almost exclusively, for the funding of higher education. Once the state delivered on its responsibilities, it allowed the universities to focus on a collegial governance system without the need for commercialising academic services. The understanding was that higher education was a public good that provides positive social returns for national development. The philosophical roots of this conception was in the colonial higher education project itself that saw universities as imperatives to addressing human resource deficits in the colonies that were on the threshold of independence. The Asquith Commission which was set up by the British colonial office to examine the case for the establishment of higher education in the overseas territories posited that these institutions were required for the training of indigenous populations for skills acquisition. This position was also corroborated by the Elliot Commission that focused on higher education specifically in Africa.

The need to uphold high quality in the universities that were subsequently established was emphasised, so as to produce globally competitive graduates. And in line with the existing understanding of higher education governance, the state took up the responsibility of funding of higher education, just as it was with all public projects. While state funding was the orthodoxy, the undergirding philosophy for higher education governance was essentially liberal in nature. It was expected that state apparatus should have minimal control over the universities, as they should

have the autonomy to determine programmes and their contents. It was also expected in the same frame that the academia should have the freedom to research into themes of their interest and to disseminate findings without recourse. And to uphold these tenets the universities were placed under the tutelage of metropolitan institutions for protracted periods for the sake of enculturation by the indigenous academic community. This was done as expatriates constituted the critical corps of the academic and administrative staff in the local universities. With the attainment of internal independence in 1951, Ghanaian leaders began to question the relevance of programme contents to the local conditions and thereby began to push for African Studies to bring graduates to appreciate African culture and historiography.

The demands for indigenisation of academic programmes and the staff of the universities became quite vociferous in the immediate post-independence period leading to state intrusion into the governance system of the universities. A combination of nationalist posturing and a political drive towards monolithism brought Nkrumah's government into conflict with leadership in higher education, which ended up splitting the front of even the indigenous academic community. Notwithstanding the bitter state-university relations that emerged, there was tenacity of the state to keep to its part of the social contract by providing funding for the universities. This provided the ambience for maintaining the collegial governance system.

The tenacity of the state managers to provide funding began to wobble in the 1970s as the frailty of a raw material dependent economy was revealed. As non-oil commodities found their prices plummeting, crude oil prices witnessed stupendous rise, which produced disastrous consequences for Africa. Ghana was symptomatically a failed state, in the circumstances, as the state could hardly meet any of its social responsibilities. The bailout solutions that were sought from the World Bank and the IMF were provided with unfamiliar conditionalities that were summarised in the form of retrenchment of the state and the promotion of the market. The protests that heralded the promotion of the market logic could not reverse the situation as it was obvious that Africa could not swim against the global neoliberal wave. The economic rationalisation that cropped up redefined the social responsibility of the state, thus impacting higher education governance. With the retrenchment of the state, the monopolistic control it had over the sphere of higher education crumbled in consequence. The higher education landscape was liberalised for private sector participation, and thus paving way for commercialisation of academic services to clients. The higher education leadership was thence confronted with finding ways to market their products to attract buyers.

For the private sector providers, the marketplace for higher education is largely a profit making one and as much the basic rules of the marketplace, namely: cost minimisation and revenue maximisation became the order. The public universities were to conform to the dictates of public sector reforms by adopting the new public management systems that mimics corporate governance. In practice, both the public and private sector providers of higher education behaved the same way in attracting their clientele.

The implications of these new forms of conception of higher education and its concomitant governance system triggered debates within the academia about quality service delivery. Institutionalised quality assurance units at various tiers of higher education governance are part of the responses to dealing with quality assurance. But the role of faculty as producers of knowledge in the competitive global society remains an issue, as the commercialisation drive places burden on the lecturer regarding available time.

The Ghanaian situation, as examined in this study, identifies the trajectory and the exigencies of six higher education institutions in the country. This constitutes a mix of four public universities and two private ones. The evidence is that governance structures in the universities very much reflects the British colonial legacy. For the public universities, the state interference that hitherto characterised their operations seems to have gone down considerable as the various stakeholders now understand their respective roles. The Governing Councils of the public universities continue to have government nominees, even as the Councils expanded to represent students and various workers' organisations. The troubling conditions that previously interrupted academic calendars, it appears', are now transcended; as matters related to fee payments are becoming accepted by students.

The Governing Councils in the private universities are thinner in terms of membership numbers. And in the two universities covered in this volume, membership of the Church is an apparent precondition for membership of the Council. The Councils of these two faith-based universities, in all respects, are congregations of the priestly, as the main objective of the two institutions is to make a difference in the moral standing of their graduates in the public space. However, the Councils in the two private universities are also confronted with devising the appropriate means of boosting funding, as they necessarily have to sustain their operations via aggressive participation and accumulation in the marketplace.

The implications of commercialisation of academic programmes, in Ghana, have resulted in a veritable turf war among institutions of higher education as they operate sandwich and parallel programmes to augment revenues from regular

programmes. Our study has revealed that the general academic and professional capacities among teaching staff fall short of what is stipulated by the NCTE for universities. The pressures for having to teach continually have repercussions on time availability for research and publications. While the strategic plans of all the universities are high-sounding about what they seek to achieve, it does seem that the existing capacities are inadequate to match up with the ambitions.

To deal with the challenges of inadequate capacity, the universities have instituted staff development programmes for deserving staffs to upgrade their academic laurels, so as to boost efficiency in the classroom and in research. Also in place is in-service capacity building activities that focus on addressing identified shortfalls within the establishment. These capacity building efforts are meant to enhance quality service delivery.

Notwithstanding these efforts, the worrying issue that has been identified in the study is the low research and publication output rates among faculty. This situation seems to uphold the fears of the critics of commercialisation drive that higher education is regressing into scenarios of 'teaching only' institutions. This does not portend well for Ghana as universities are supposed to be the centres of knowledge production and dissemination. It must be said that the lecturers themselves acknowledge this challenge and have offered some recommendations that are part of those enumerated below:

Recommendations

To deal with the capacity challenges that are identified, the following recommen-dations are made:

State Commitment to the Public Universities

In Ghana, the state continues to show a keen interest in the governance of the public universities. The state continues to deliver infrastructural projects like lecture halls and libraries. The state also caters for the remuneration of the workers of public universities. But recurrent expenditures are borne by the universities, which are normally derived from the IGFs. To be able to bear the cost of recurrent expenditures on sustainable basis, the public universities are compelled to pursue commercialisation agenda. As has been shown, this approach ends up constraining faculty's ability to engage in activities that would boost the intrinsic value of the public universities. The research and publication profiles of faculty are generally low as energy and time is spent on teaching assignments that provide additional income to the lecturers.

In view of this, it is recommended that the state's support for the public universities should go beyond salary payments and construction of lecture halls. The state should devote part of the proceeds of the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFund) to meet the recurrent expenditures of the public universities.

Strengthening of State Supervisory Roles

The supervisory role of the state is channelled through a network of institutions like the Ministry of Education, the NCTE and the NAB. A critical examination of the mandate of the NCTE shows that it is mainly customised for the needs of public higher education institutions and not the private ones. But the role of the private providers of higher education cannot be ignored, and the specific roles the NCTE should play in their governance systems deserve looking into. It is thus recommended that the Parliament Act 454 (1993) that established the NCTE should be reviewed to enable it exercise a more effective supervisory role over private universities.

It is also recommended that a state support system for private institutions should be institutionalised. The institutionalisation of the state support system for the private universities would assist in staff development of the private institutions, as currently the private universities are not attractive to highly qualified personnel. The scholarship window that GETFund provides public universities should, as well, be extended to the private sector institutions.

Support for Research

To effectively utilise the knowledge that is available to faculty for national development, support for research activities must be given priority attention. The current situation, in which lecturers are occupied with teaching as a source of income supplement is unhealthy. To accelerate national development, it is recommended that all stakeholders – faculty, government, alumni and industry – should take particular interest in establishing a National Research Fund. The Fund, which should be established by an Act of Parliament, should be managed by an autonomous body. Access to the funds should be on competitive basis and its beneficiaries should use the period of implementation as their sabbatical leaves. This would enable researchers to deliver to meet national development needs. It is important to add that such opportunities should also be available to private higher education and research institutions

Support for Scholarly Journals

One persistent complaint that was adduced for the low publication rate among faculty was the inadequacy of local scholarly journals. It was also added that fees charged for publishing in foreign journals were unaffordable. These factors therefore act as a snag for accessibility. As publications help in the dissemination of research findings and in contributing to knowledge, it is recommended that a critical view be taken by all stakeholders regarding the funding for journals. The challenge that academic journals face is that they have only a small constituency of readership due to the abstruse nature of their content. For this reason, journal commercialisation drives in Africa is limited. And in view of this, it is suggested that all universities devote part of their IGFs to serve as seed money for journals in their respective universities. Innovative approaches for fund mobilisation for academic journals from industry and alumni can also be done to sustain journals.

It is expected that if these recommendations are carried through, then the universities in Ghana will become more supportive to the national development effort. This would also help Ghanaian universities to contribute more effectively to the global knowledge production enterprise.

Notes

1. The terms 'higher education' and 'university' are used in this work interchangeably.
2. See the critique of Ramphele's on her position about how higher education governance should go in the contemporary times.
3. See many contributions in the Journal of Higher Education in Africa (JHEIA) and the publications of Association of African Universities (AAU) on the subject matter. See also the publications of the World Bank and the UNESCO on higher education in Africa.
4. The private universities operate as profit making institutions.
5. See many contributions in the Journal of Higher Education in Africa (JHEIA) and the publications of Association of African Universities (AAU) on the subject matter. See also the publications of the World Bank and the UNESCO on higher education in Africa.
6. The Asquith and Elliot Commissions were the responses to the long standing demands from the nationalist leaders for the establishment of universities. From the last quarter of the 19th century to the beginning of the 20th century, nationalist leaders like Horton Blyden, Joseph Ephraim Casely Hayford were forerunners in advocating for the establishment of universities in British colonial West Africa.
7. These university colleges were often referred to as Asquith university colleges
8. The leading role of the state in the running of higher education was in fact what prevailed in European countries in the period under review and as such did not expect much deviation of African universities from that as the European systems formed the basis of the African institutions of higher education.
9. A failing state refers to a state system in which its institutional weakness undermines effective public service delivery, which is the raison d'être of a modern polity.
10. These took the form of demonstrations against the removal of subsidies on basic food items like bread and fuel.
11. CAMES is an acronym in French for Conseil Africain et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Supérieur.
12. The member countries of the CAMES are: Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Chad, Central Africa Republic, Congo, Gabon, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Madagascar, Mali, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal and Togo.

13. The NABPTEX is a statutory national regulator body for regulating professional and technician examination in Ghana. Among other things, it oversees educational curriculum and programs of polytechnics and other tertiary institutions that run Higher National Diploma (HND) programs.

14. For the list of accredited public universities in Ghana see: http://www.nab.gov.gh/index.php?option=com_content&view=category&layout=blog&id=56&Itemid=184 accessed on 17 October 2014.

15. For the list of accredited chartered private universities in Ghana see: http://www.nab.gov.gh/index.php?option=com_content&view=category&layout=blog&id=59&Itemid=196 accessed 17 October 2014.

16. See University of Ghana (2014) http://www.ug.edu.gh/index1.php?linkid=243&sublinkid= 68 Accessed 14 February 2014

17. Excerpts of Vice-Chancellor's Address in 1965

18. See Agbodeka, F, 1998; 126, A History of University of Ghana (1948-1998)

19. Kofi Busia became an active political actor in the military government that overthrew Nkrumah's government and he subsequently became the Prime Minister in the period 1969-1972.

20. Hilla Limann was the President of the Third Republic of Ghana. His Peoples' Nationalist Party (PNP) government was in power from September 1979 to December 1981.

21. The criteria for election as a Chancellor are spelt out in Statute of 3 of the University of Ghana. The eligibility criteria as indicated in Statute 3 are as follows: (a) must be a citizen of Ghana; (b) must have distinguish themselves in the world of letters, science, business and public office; (c) in the opinion of the Board of Nominators are fit and proper persons to be Chancellor.

22. Asantehene refers to the King of the Asante Kingdom. The capital of the Asante Kingdom is Kumasi.

23. The Department of Commerce began the School of Administration and now the School of Business of the University of Ghana.

24. The collegiate system was adopted after the promulgation of the revised University Statutes in October 2004.

25. See Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology website Retrieved on 4 October 2014 from http://www.knust.edu.gh/academics/colleges

26. The gender specificity of the Chancellor is not in doubt as the King of the Asante Kingdom (Asantehene) has been the Chancellor since Chancellorship had been taken away from the Head of State, in 1993.

27. See University of Cape Coast (2012) http://ucc.edu.gh/apqa/sites/ucc.edu.gh.apqa/files/dapqa_strate.gic_plan.pdf accessed 23 February 2014

28. Polytechnics and Teachers' Training Colleges at this point in time were not considered as tertiary institutions.

29. The efforts by Nkrumah's government in developing agricultural projects in the Damongo area in the Northern Region failed to yield results.

30. Nyankpala is about 21 kilometers from the Tamale metropolis. In 1992 it was part of the Tamale local government administration.
31. The UDS is also reviewing its governance structure to adopt the collegiate system. Its Statutes are also undergoing revision to reflect the drive towards the collegiate system.
32. Junior members refer to students in the University.
33. Sunyani is the capital of the Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana. Brong Ahafo is in the middle ecological transition zone of the country.

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