

IIEP research and studies programme

**The management of
teachers**

**Improving the deployment
of teachers: the Ghanaian
experience**

Daniel Asare Konadu



International Institute for Educational Planning

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Management of teachers

In many parts of the world, especially in countries facing structural adjustment policies and cuts in the education budget, planners and decision-makers are presently becoming more and more interested in containing the investment in the teaching staff, particularly in optimizing the deployment and utilization of the teaching force available.

In this perspective, decision-makers, planners and administrators have to address crucial questions such as:

- Are teachers equally distributed among the different areas and schools in the country? Many developing countries are, indeed, facing serious teacher shortages in the rural areas, while schools in the urban areas and administrative services are sometimes overstaffed with teachers.
- What kind of measures can help overcoming such imbalances?
- How can trained teachers who are presently overstaffing the offices of public administrations be redeployed?
- How can a better match be achieved between the requirements of a teaching post and the profile and motivation of the teaching staff available?
- What must be done to ensure that the *right people* are allocated or promoted to posts of higher levels of responsibility and remuneration?
- Which policies and structures of teacher remuneration and promotion can help improve the motivation and utilization of teachers?

Related to the issue of better teacher deployment and utilization are questions about the possible ways of enhancing teachers' actual presence on the job, how to make sure that the teachers deployed are provided with the necessary level of knowledge and skills required to do their job

properly; and about the modes of teaching (double shift; multiple grade; teaches servicing school clusters, etc.) to be set up in different specific contexts.

The general objective of the IIEP project is to analyze present problems, strategies and practices of teacher deployment and eventually to identify and help in defining and developing efficient policies and management tools in this area.

More specifically, the project aims to:

- identify – on the basis of several country monographs and case studies – relevant policies, strategies and instruments for addressing the major problems of teacher deployment and utilization;
- develop appropriate tools and indicators for the diagnosis and monitoring of teacher deployment and utilization;
- contribute to building up national capacities in the field of teachers deployment through the development of context-related teaching materials.

The policies and management systems used in the posting, transfer, promotion, utilization and redeployment of teachers will be given particular attention.

The present country monograph reports on the policies and teacher deployment in Ghana. It describes, in particular, the policy measures as well as the administrative structures and procedures which have been adopted since the late 1980s to address the shortage of trained teachers in the rural areas of the country; it also sketches out the impact of these reform measures and new initiatives that are being taken with a view to overcoming the remaining problems of equal regional distribution of the teaching force.

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List of Acronyms

GCE	General Certificate of Education
GES	Ghana Education Service
GNAT	Ghana National Association of Teachers
JSS	Junior Secondary Schools
MOE	Ministry of Education
MSLC	Middle School Leaving Certificate
NSP	National Service Personnel
NSS	National Service Secretariat
SSS	Senior Secondary Schools
TTC	Teacher Training Colleges
PDME	Planning Division of the Ministry of Education
PTA	Parent/Teachers Association

Introduction

One of the central issues in the field of teacher management is how to balance and improve the staffing of schools all over the country. In many countries, there is a serious lack of teachers in the rural areas whilst urban schools and education offices are overstaffed. Appropriate recruitment and deployment policies which can help address these problems are therefore urgently needed.

Information so far gathered on this issue seems to indicate that over the last few decades Ghana has taken significant steps towards meeting the demand for teachers in rural areas by hiring 'non-professional' graduates and/or young people and posting them to rural schools within the framework of the National Service Scheme; by posting newly trained teachers primarily to educationally disadvantaged areas and by transferring excess professional teachers from education offices back to the classroom. It is felt that, in various respects, the policy and practice of teacher deployment in Ghana could be enlightening for educational planners in many developing countries, however limited might be the scope for replicating the Ghanaian experience in other countries.

In this paper, we intend to present 'The Ghanaian Experience' in analysing in particular to what extent and how the policies and management of teacher deployment in this country have contributed to:

- addressing temporary shortages of trained teachers;
- reducing the 'urban-rural gap' in teacher provision;
- making better use of the teaching force available.

Part I will present an overview of the policies and procedures of teacher deployment in Ghana. After giving a brief overview of past experiences in this area, it will describe the policy measures and strategies adopted under the educational reform programme to ensure

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equitable distribution of teachers, as well as the organizational and administrative aspects of their implementation.

The impact of the reform measures on the staffing of Basic Education Schools, the ongoing problems of teacher deployment and the new initiatives that are being taken with a view to addressing them, will be analyzed in *Part II*.

The focus of this review shall be on basic education.

Part I

Policies and procedures of teacher
deployment – past experiences
and recent reforms

Chapter I

Present context and objectives

1. General background information

Ghana is an English-speaking West-African country, and is the size of Great Britain. It is surrounded by the Côte d'Ivoire to the west, Burkina Faso to the north, Togo to the east and by the Atlantic Ocean to the south. It has a population of about 15 million. It is primarily an agricultural country, although tourism is also becoming an important foreign-exchange earner.

At independence in 1957, the country had a relatively buoyant economy, by colonial standards, but the fall in the price of her major export commodities coupled with serious internal mismanagement of the economy led to a steady economic decline in the 1960s through the 1970s, assuming disaster dimensions during the 1982/83 drought that brought in its trail widespread bush fires and famine. An Economic Recovery Programme, launched in 1983 with financial assistance from the World Bank and other donor agencies, has enabled the country to arrest the downward economic trend and put the economy once again on the path to development.

On the political front the country has, since independence, been characterized by a swing of power between four civilian governments and three military regimes, with the military having been in power for an aggregate period of 20 years as against 16 years for civilian administration.

2. *The Ghanaian education system*

2.1. *Educational administration*

Before 1974, the Ministry of Education was the sole organ responsible for formal education in the public sector. Since 1974, however, there are two distinct bodies responsible for education delivery at the pre-tertiary level: the Ministry of Education (MOE), which is responsible for *policy formulation, planning, budgeting, monitoring and evaluation in matters of education* (the organizational chart of the MOE is attached as *Appendix I*), and the Ghana Education Service (GES), established in 1974, which is responsible for the *implementation* of national policies on education at the pre-tertiary level. The Ministry of Education is in charge of staff policy and planning while the Ghana Education Service is responsible for the day-to-day running of the teaching service.

Functions of the GES

The Decree that established the GES states the *functions* of the Service as follows to:

- (a) manage, supervise and inspect pre-university educational institutions;
- (b) register, supervise and inspect private schools;
- (c) provide teacher education, general education, special education (such as education of the handicapped), technical and business education;
- (d) arrange to register teachers;
- (e) encourage the development and publication of textbooks;
- (f) maintain professional standards and conduct of its members;
- (g) promote efficiency and the full development of talents among its members;
- (h) maintain a code of ethics and good conduct among its members;
- (i) draw up educational policies and programmes;
- (j) carry on such activities as are conducive or incidental to the attainment of its objectives under this Decree.

The institutional relationship between the MOE and the GES is illustrated in *Appendix II*.

In fact, the responsibility for almost all tasks linked with teacher deployment at basic education level – except the approval of inter-district transfers and overall control, rationalization and endorsement of teacher recruitment decisions (which are devolved to the Regional Directors) – lies with the District Directors of Education within the GES.

Another characteristic feature of the Ghanaian system is the existence of two parallel management systems within the public education system. Schools are managed by the GES either directly through the District Education Offices (district assembly schools) or indirectly through Church Educational Units which operate at regional level as sub-sets of the GES (church-managed schools). Church-managed schools – which enjoy the same status and operate under the same regulations as the schools managed directly by the GES – come under 15 Educational Units in the country, each of which is headed by a General Manager who is assisted by a maximum of 10 Regional Managers, depending on the geographical spread of the schools managed by the particular unit.

2.2 Structure of the education system

Until 1987, the education system in Ghana consisted of a 17-year pre-university education made up of a 6-year Primary, a 4-year Middle School and a 5 + 2 secondary education, followed by a 3-4 year university course.

In 1987, the Government of Ghana launched a major educational reform with financial assistance from the International Development Association (IDA), replacing the old '6+4+5' (+2) structure by a '6+3+3' structure.

Table 1 shows the old and new structures of general education in Ghana.

Table 1. Old and new structures of education in Ghana as at September 1987

Old structure		New structure	
Level	Duration	Level	Duration
Primary	6 years	Primary	6 years
Elementary (middle)	4 years	Basic junior secondary school	3 years
GCE 'O' Level	5 years	Senior secondary school	3 years
Secondary (GCE) Level	5 years	Senior school	3 years
University degree course	3 years	University degree course	4 years

2.3 *Objectives of the reform*

The main objectives of this structural reform were to:

- reduce the duration of pre-university education from 17 to 12 years so that the savings made could be ploughed back to expand access to education, particularly at the basic and secondary levels;
- improve pedagogic effectiveness and raise the quality and relevance of educational outcomes;
- make education cost effective through cost sharing and the elimination of wastage from the system;
- improve management and budgetary procedures within the Ministry of Education.

The change in the structure of education involved a gradual phasing out of the 4-year middle school and replacing it with a 3-year Junior Secondary School (JSS), with an entirely new curriculum which is less theoretical and more relevant to the socio-economic needs of the country.

The old 5 + 2 secondary school programme, which was also criticized for being too academic and theoretical, was to be replaced with a 3-year Senior Secondary School (SSS) offering a curriculum with a more practical base.

1.4 Teacher deployment – objectives and options

When launching its reform of the structure of the education system in 1987, the government was aware that in order to shorten the duration of and expand access to pre-university education; and to change the curriculum and improve pedagogic reform efficiency, at a time when 44 per cent of teachers in primary schools were untrained, considerable effort would be required not only in the supply of needed teaching and learning materials but also in the area of teacher supply and deployment.

In order to achieve the policy objectives set out under the education reform programme, the Ministry of Education, therefore, adopted an implementation strategy that comprised the following measures relating to teacher deployment and utilization:

- (i) Organizing a School Mapping and Location exercise with a view, among other things, to ascertaining the required teacher supply and deployment levels in schools throughout the country.
- (ii) Designing new guidelines for staffing of schools, postings and transfer of teachers, at basic education level.
- (iii) Identifying the subject background and academic levels of teachers for purposes of postings to appropriate levels of schooling.
- (iv) Organizing in-service training and orientation programmes for selected teachers before posting them to the new Junior Secondary Schools (JSS).
- (v) Eliminating gradually from the system all untrained teachers with Middle School Leaving Certificate (MSLC).
- (vi) Relying increasingly on national service personnel (since 1982 all Ghanaians between 18 and 40 years of age have to enrol in the National Service Scheme for two years) for the supply of teachers as a short-term solution to the problem of teacher shortages.
- (vii) Adopting a double-shift system that makes use of one set of teachers at the JSS level.

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- (viii) Transferring excess trained teachers from education offices back to the classroom.

In developing its recent efforts aimed at enhancing the provision of qualified teachers throughout the country, the government could draw on Ghana's significant experience in tackling problems of teacher shortage in the past. It is, therefore, of interest to take a brief look at the country's past experience in this field before considering the measures which have recently been taken to enhance the deployment of the teaching force available at primary and junior secondary levels.

Chapter II

Fluctuating shortages and unequal distribution of trained teachers in the sixties and seventies – problems, strategies, lessons

Like many other developing countries, Ghana has since independence been spending a considerable portion of her Gross Domestic Product on education as a major tool for its human resource development. Even before independence, it was the view of the local political leadership that primary education was the birthright of every Ghanaian child.

Accordingly, an Accelerated Development Plan for education had been launched in 1951 which involved a rapid expansion of access to primary (Grades 1-6) and middle (Grades 7-10) schools. Since the output of trained teachers from the existing teacher training colleges could not keep pace with the rate of expansion in primary school enrolment, the government had to resort to massive recruitment of untrained teachers; this policy was fostering the subsequently observed lowering of learning achievement levels in schools.

By 1965, 67 per cent of elementary school teachers were untrained. In a bid to reduce the number of untrained teachers in the system and improve the quality of teaching in schools, the government opened 35 new Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs) in 1965, thus bringing the number of initial TTCs to 80. The opening of these new colleges had a considerable impact on teacher supply. The proportion of trained teachers, which was 33 per cent in September 1965, rose to 53 per cent in September 1969 when the first batch of graduates from the 35 new TTCs joined the teaching force, and moved further up to 60 per cent in September 1970.¹

1. Ghana Ministry of Education Report. 1969/1971. p.45.

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Table 2. Percentage distribution of trained and untrained teachers in elementary schools form 1965 to 1970

Year	Trained	Untrained	Total
1965/1966	33	67	100
1967/1968	40	60	100
1969/1970	53	47	100
1970/1971	60	40	100

Source: Ghana: Ministry of Education report, 1969/1971, P. 45

Taking account of the rapid increase in the supply of trained teachers resulting from the establishment of 35 new TTCs in 1965 and, on the basis of the enrolment in TTCs in the late 1960s, it was projected that the proportion of certificated teachers would reach 65 per cent of the elementary school teaching force in September 1971; 73 per cent in 1972; 80 per cent in 1973; 85 per cent in 1974 and by 1975 all untrained teachers with Middle School Leaving Certificate would be eliminated from the system. Furthermore, new procedures for posting newly qualified teachers passing out from the training colleges were introduced in 1969 aimed at equalizing the provision of trained teachers between the regions. Regulations were also issued in 1969 to ensure that there was at least one trained teacher in every public primary and middle school.

Before 1969, the posting of fresh graduates from TTCs was not subject to any laid down policy aimed at equitable distribution of trained teachers. There were therefore great regional disparities in the deployment of trained teachers.

The application of the new postings procedure did result in considerable narrowing of regional disparities in the deployment of trained teachers: the trained teacher-pupil ratios which ranged from 1:53 for Volta Region to 1:90 for Brong Ahafo before 1969 all came within the

range of 1:49 and 1:60 after the introduction of the new procedure.² However, primary school enrolment, which stood at 1,016,457 in September 1968, decreased by 68,955 to 947,502 in September 1970, with the northern region, the most educationally disadvantaged, being hit hardest. Eighty-five primary schools in the region were closed down on grounds of low enrolment and primary enrolment dropped from 34,120 to 26,590 between 1968/69 and 1970/71.³

It was against this background that the Teacher Training Consolidation Scheme was introduced. The result of the scheme was that the number of training colleges, which stood at 80 in 1968/69 with an enrolment of 18,578, dropped to 38 by 1980/81 with an enrolment of 11,662 and that, contrary to the official projections indicating a "very real possibility of overproduction of teachers by the mid 1970s", by 1980, 46 per cent of teachers in primary schools still remained untrained. The gains recorded in both supply and distribution of trained teachers were, furthermore, eroded because of the mass exodus of trained teachers to other countries during the economic slump of the 1970s and early 1980s.

Government response to the critical teacher shortages took the form of:

- Recruitment of a large number of untrained teachers with Middle School Leaving Certificate (MSLC) to fill the vacancies created by the teachers who had vacated their posts.
- Introduction of the Modular System of teacher preparation which enabled an untrained teacher to do the first two years of initial TTC course through distance learning while still teaching. After successful completion of the two-year programme, the student-teacher would then go to campus for two more years to complete the course.
- Rapid reinstatement of 'returnee' teachers expelled from Nigeria.
- Deployment of national service personnel into schools.

2. Op. cit. p.29.

3. Op. cit. p.157.

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The massive recruitment of untrained teachers enabled the country to avoid a total collapse of the education system, but it resulted in a lowering of learning achievement levels.

The introduction of the modular system proved to be a failure because the students, who were expected to combine full-time teaching with distance learning, could not cope with this work-and-study arrangement, because the 'modular' students were those candidates who had failed to gain direct admission to TTC because of mediocre performance in the TTC entrance examinations.

The reinstatement of the 'returnee' teachers, coupled with the progressive retrenchment of the untrained teachers who "held the fort during the exodus", generated a heated moral debate, but it resulted in a gradual improvement in the quality of instruction. The deployment of national service personnel into schools in rural areas was fiercely resisted by parents and the urban middle class but with public information campaigns and the obvious determination of the personnel of the National Service Secretariat to rise to the challenge, the whole nation came to accept national service personnel as the best short-term solution to the problem of teacher shortages.

Chapter III

New policies and regulations concerning teacher deployment

Against the background of these past experiences and in the context of a general restructuring and rationalization of all sectors of Ghanaian society, the government launched in the 1980s a wide array of measures aimed at ensuring sustainable improvements in the provision and utilization of teachers. It must be noted that at the time the reforms were being planned, there existed a very rare enabling climate for radical changes in the education system and in Ghanaian society as a whole.

1. A climate for reform

A controversial Law, called PNDC Law 42, enacted on 30 December, 1982 with retroactive effect from 31 December, 1981 had directed:

“all persons and authorities exercising legislative, executive, administrative or judicial powers...

to pay attention

“to the reconstruction of the society in a revolutionary process directed against previous structures of injustice and exploitation”.

The same Law had dissolved the Ghana Education Service Council, the governing body of the GES, and transferred its functions to the Minister for Education.

Furthermore, several secondary school heads had been removed on charges of mismanagement of public funds and some directors of education, believed to be incompetent, had been fired.

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Even though the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) fought against PNDC Law 42 and the removal of top personnel of GES, the combined effect of the actions taken against the top hierarchy of the GES was to demonstrate the government's determination to remove all obstacles to change in education and provide political support and legal empowerment for the restructuring of the GES, whose Council was accused of "presiding over ineptitude".

It was against this background that in January 1987, the Ministry set up a National Planning Committee for the Implementation of School Reforms (NPCISR) comprising representatives of the Ministry of Education, Ghana Education Service (GES), Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT), Institute of Educational Planning and Administration and a few individuals chosen from the universities for their expertise and commitment to reform education, and the National Service Scheme (NSS).

In addition to a Project Management Unit (PMU) that was set up within the Ministry as a "Conditionality for credit effectiveness", the Ministry established in 1988 its own monitoring machinery with national service personnel who were sent to the districts to monitor the implementation of the reforms from the district, through circuit, to school level.

The attempt to restructure the GES with a view to strengthening the management and supervision of schools at the district and circuit levels involved:

- (i) Upgrading the 110 District Education Offices to directorate status.
- (ii) Selection and appointment of District Directors of Education.
- (iii) Selection and appointment of Circuit Supervisors with higher qualifications and experience to be in charge of supervision of schools at circuit level.

The upgrading of the district education offices was resisted by some top personnel in the GES, who saw in the upgrading exercise an attempt by the Ministry of Education to take away power from the GES Headquarters and regional offices and pass it down to the districts. As a result, the struggle to decentralize administrative authority in education, in line with the Local Government Law PNDC Law 207, lasted for three years before government approval was secured.

Meanwhile, the government had paved the way for enhanced teacher provision and deployment through a thorough school mapping exercise and the approval of new guidelines for the staffing of basic education schools.

2. School mapping

Through the school mapping and locations exercise, the Ministry was able to identify:

- those overstaffed schools whose excess teachers should be posted to needy schools;
- those under-enrolled middle schools which could be merged into viable JSS without children having to travel more than five kilometres to attend school. The merger of schools resulted in the closing down of over 900 middle schools, whose teachers were re-posted to needy schools.

3. Guidelines for staffing, postings and transfers of teacher at basic education level

3.1 Staffing

The Planning Division (PBME) of the MOE determines the staffing requirements for pre-tertiary education whilst the Teacher Education Division of GES trains the teachers for the Manpower Division of GES to recruit, post, transfer and promote them. For a more effective and efficient implementation of the reforms, the following guidelines were issued for the staffing of basic education schools:

- There was to be no fresh recruitment of holders of MSLC to teach in schools.
- Untrained teachers with MSLC already in the system were to be eliminated from schools by September, 1995.
- While efforts were being made to increase the supply of professional teachers, holders of GCE 'O' level or GCE 'A' level Certificates were to be recruited to replace the MSLC holders.

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- Teachers posted to Junior Secondary Schools (JSS) should possess a minimum qualification of either the Post-Secondary Teachers Certificate 'A' or a GCE 'A' level Certificate.
- In addition to being on a minimum rank of Principal Superintendent, any professional teacher wishing to be Head of a JSS should possess a minimum academic qualification of three GCE 'O' level passes, including English and mathematics.
- At the JSS level, there would be subject teaching (teacher moving from class to class to teach the same subject) as against the same teacher teaching all subjects in one class. Therefore, in posting teachers to JSS note should be taken of their subject background and the selection of teachers was to be done in such a way that five teachers posted to a one-stream JSS would be able to teach all the 13 subjects on the JSS curriculum from JSS 1 to 3.
- Primary and JSS located on the same compound were to have only one headmaster/headmistress.

3.2 *Posting*

The procedure set up for posting newly trained teachers is as follows:

- (i) Each year, postings forms are sent to principals of TTCs in December for final year students to have them filled and returned to the Director of Teacher Education Division of GES by March the following year.
- (ii) The completed postings forms are then processed and sorted out into regions of the students' first choice.
- (iii) Regional directors of education submit to the Director, Teacher Education, the staff requirements for schools in their regions, indicating:
 - (a) vacancies in primary schools;
 - (b) vacancies in JSS;
 - (c) number of untrained teachers in basic education schools in their regions.

The request from the regions are considered alongside the staffing figures submitted by the Director (PBME) of the MOE.

(iv) A meeting of the National Postings Board is convened to:

- study the requests from the regions in relation to the statistics on staffing submitted by the Director PBME, as well as the number of final year students in the TTCs and their preferences as declared on the postings forms;

- approve the “Guidelines for the postings of newly-trained teachers” for that particular year;
- allocate the newly trained teachers according to the needs of each region.

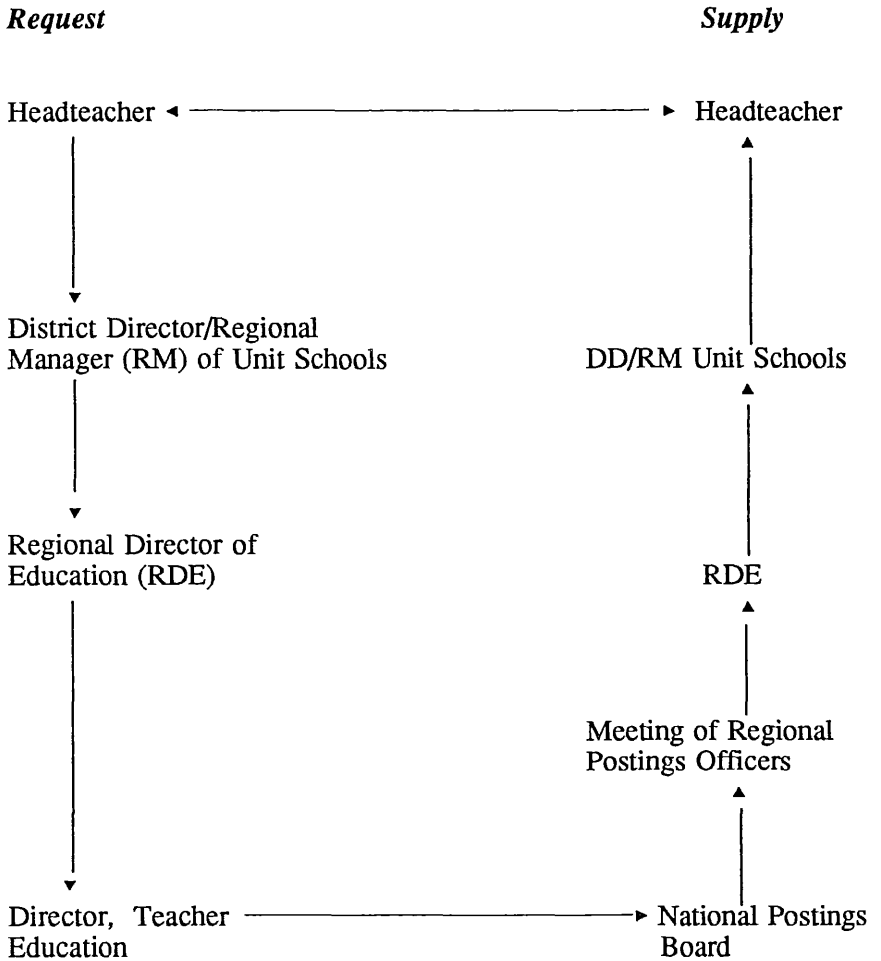
The National Postings Board is composed of representatives of the MOE, GES and National Service Scheme. After the National Postings Board has approved of the final postings, the regional postings officers are then invited to a meeting, briefed and given copies of the guidelines for postings in the regions. This briefing should be completed by the end of May. The postings of teachers to schools should be completed by 1 August.

Chart 1 shows the path for channelling requests for, and supply of, newly-trained teachers for basic education schools.

Even though the National Postings Board issues yearly Guidelines for Postings to suit the particular staffing problems of each year, there are some long-standing principles that guide the preparation of the yearly guidelines. These are:

- Teachers should, as much as possible, be posted to primary schools where they can teach in a Ghanaian language spoken or understood by the pupils in the locality since the medium of instruction in Primary 1 to 3 is the pupil’s mother tongue or the dominant Ghanaian language in the locality.
- Teachers, at all levels, should be posted to areas where their services are most needed.
- Due consideration should be given to teachers with genuine health problems.
- As far as possible, married female teachers whose marriages are supported by marriage certificates and/or certified by the Principal of the colleges should be posted to where their husbands are working.
- Owing to the danger that young unmarried teachers may be exposed to when posted to remote areas, special consideration should be given them during postings.
- No flimsy excuse for change of station should be entertained.
- It is not a common practice to post newly trained teachers to private institutions. Any such cases should be referred to the Director-General of GES.

Chart I. Channelling requests and supply of newly-trained teachers



3.3 *Transfers*

There are three types of transfers within the GES:

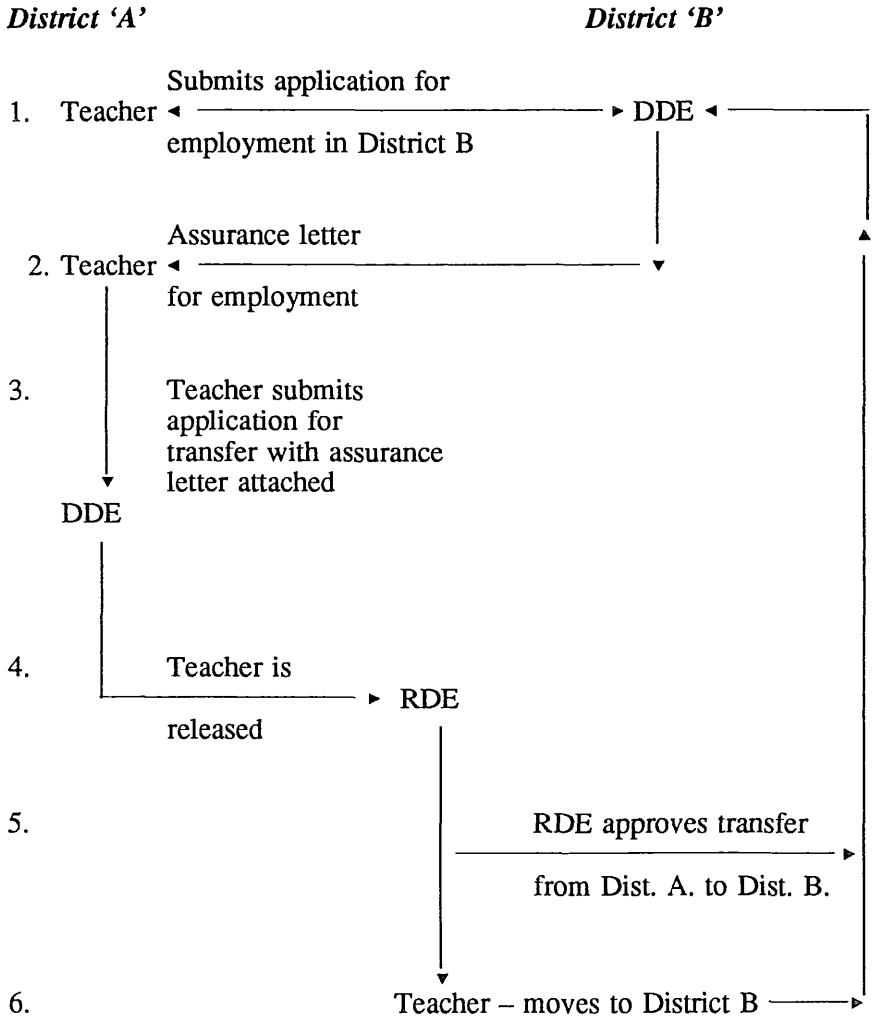
- (i) An officer being transferred to perform more challenging duties elsewhere either because of outstanding performance at his present post or because he has just been promoted and, as a result, has to move to another station.

For this type of transfer, the teacher being transferred is entitled to a Transfer Grant amounting to his one-month's gross salary, in addition to the cost of transportation to his new station.

- (ii) A teacher being transferred for misconduct or poor performance. This type of 'punitive' transfer does not attract any payment of transportation allowance or transfer grant.
- (iii) A teacher requesting a transfer, either for health or marital reasons, or because he has stayed at one station for too long and feels he needs a change. This transfer attracts transportation allowance and transfer grant only if the teacher has spent four years or more at his present station.

Chart 2 illustrates the procedure which a teacher at the basic education level who wishes to transfer from District A to District B has to follow to obtain approval for the transfer.

Chart 2. Transfer of teachers from District A to District B



3.4 Promotions and ranks

Promotions within the GES follow a 9-point ranking system with the rank of Teacher being lowest (point 1) and the rank of Director-General (point 9) being highest. The ranks, in ascending order, are:

- (1) Teacher.
- (2) Assistant Superintendent.
- (3) Superintendent.
- (4) Senior Superintendent.
- (5) Principal Superintendent.
- (6) Assistant Director.
- (7) Director.
- (8) Deputy Director-General.
- (9) Director-General.

There are different criteria for promotions, depending on the ranks involved:

- For promotions from the rank of teacher to the rank of assistant superintendent or from assistant superintendent to superintendent, the candidate can either attend 'prescribed' and 'promotion' courses, followed by work inspection in his fifth year on the relevant rank *or* pass a prescribed examination, followed by work inspection in the fourth year.
- A teacher with the rank of superintendent normally gets promoted to the rank of senior superintendent after serving three years at the superintendent rank, unless his work has been found to be very unsatisfactory.
- Promotions from the rank of senior superintendent upwards to the rank of director are by recommendations and interviews. In principle, teachers with the rank of senior superintendent and above qualify to attend interviews for promotion every three years, but, in practice, promotions at those levels are limited by the vacancies available.
For instance, the advertisement that appeared in 1993 for the post of Headquarters Director stated that applicants should have

served with the rank of assistant director for a minimum period of 15 years.

- Professional teachers without diploma or degree certificates enter the GES at the rank of teacher but the entry point for diplomats and graduates is at the rank of superintendent. It is worthy of note that there still are many principal superintendents and even assistant directors without GCE 'O' level passes.

3.5 Matching post requirements with the profile of teachers

The structural reform of the education system launched in 1987 brought about a growing need for qualified teachers, particularly those with the qualification for teaching in junior secondary schools.

In order to get the right teacher posted to the right level of basic education schools, the Ministry adopted the following procedure for identifying teachers with the requisite qualification for teaching at the JSS level.

- The Ministry requested the GES to submit particulars of all teachers in the districts. Out of the 82 educational districts existing in 1987, only 35 submitted the required information. The Ministry therefore had to fall back on the data of a school census conducted in 1986 to extract the names of all post-secondary teachers in the system, including those in district education offices.
- The list of post-secondary teachers, compiled from the 1986 census data was then published in the local press and the teachers concerned were invited to report at designated course centres for in-service training and orientation courses to be followed immediately by postings to JSS.
- For the first in-service training of teachers for the JSS, held from 25 May to 6 June 1987, participants were requested at the course centres to indicate on the course registration forms details of their GCE 'O' level subjects with their grades. This information was then used to group the teachers into three major subject clusters, and each teacher was trained to teach all the subjects in his/her subject cluster. The subject clusters were as follows:

- Cluster A* Mathematics, science, agricultural science, physical education.
- Cluster B* English, French, Ghanaian language, social studies, cultural studies.
- Cluster C* Life skills, vocational skills, technical drawings, technical skills.

- For the selection of suitable candidates for the post of headmaster/headmistress of JSS, district interviewing panels, chaired by the district directors of education, were set up to carry out the selection according to the new guidelines for Headship of Basic Education Schools and to send the names of successful candidates to the Ministry of Education in Accra, for approval. The lists of selected candidates were duly vetted and those whose academic qualifications were below the required level had their names struck off. The successful applicants were later invited for an in-service training and orientation course for heads of JSS. It was at the end of the orientation course that the selected heads of JSS were posted to their new stations.

One may conclude from this first part of the monograph that Ghana has made a tremendous effort – especially since the reform in 1987 – to adopt rules, procedures and administrative structures aimed at rationalizing and optimizing the provision, deployment and utilization of teachers.

Part II of the document will attempt to analyze how – with the help of the indicated regulatory devices and certain complementary policy measures – the country has actually been able to address its main teacher deployment problems, namely the management of the – hopefully temporary – shortages of qualified teaching staff, the geographical disparities in teacher provision and the deployment of staff to posts with special responsibilities (school head, etc.).

Part II

Improving provision and deployment of
qualified teachers: implementation
strategies, achievements, remaining problems

Chapter IV

The provision and deployment of qualified teachers

1. *Managing teacher shortages in certain subject areas*

1.1 *Evolution of problems*

As stated earlier in this volume, the in-service training courses were used as an opportunity to collect from the teachers vital data that were not available at GES Headquarters. What emerged, from the analysis of the data supplied on teacher characteristics at the course centres, was that whereas there appeared to be enough qualified teachers to handle the '*Cluster B*' subjects in the projected 4,500 JSS in the country, there were going to be significant shortages for the '*Cluster A*' and '*Cluster C*' subjects.

Out of the 10,885 teachers who attended the first in-service training of post-secondary teachers for the JSS programme, only 2,593 were qualified to handle the technical and vocational subjects (*Cluster C*), as against 3,381 for mathematics and the sciences (*Cluster A*) and 4,911 for languages and arts (*Cluster B*).⁴

The problem of teacher shortages in the JSS, particularly for the technical/vocational subjects, was later confirmed as one of the major problems facing the implementation of the reforms.

The reports of four monitoring teams commissioned by the Ministry of Education to visit 10 per cent of JSS in the country from 13 March to 4 April 1988, indicated that in the Greater Accra, Volta and Eastern

4. Ministry of Education. Report on the "First" in-service training of post-secondary teachers for the JSS". 27 May to 6 June 1987.

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Regions, "Many schools either did not have any 'Teacher C' at all or were making do with teachers who had only partial competence in some of the areas covered. Many Heads have made all kinds of arrangements, some questionable, to resolve the matter". The report on Central and Western Regions stated that "most of the schools visited do not have teachers for technical skills and technical drawing".

The report on Northern, Upper East and Upper West Regions also states: "Generally, it was discovered that there were problems in the handling of a lot of the subjects, particularly 'Cluster C' area. Teachers in this cluster could mostly not adequately handle all the subjects in the area. It is common to see a teacher who can teach Technical Skills but cannot handle Vocational and Life Skills and vice versa".⁵

A survey conducted in January 1989 to assess the impact of teacher shortages on curriculum coverage in the JSS, revealed that 48.4 per cent of the 4,710 JSS in the country were not teaching life skills because of lack of qualified teachers. Technical skills were not being taught in 43.7 per cent of the schools for similar reasons, while technical drawing was not being offered in 39.6 per cent of the schools for the same reason. It must be noted, however, that all these subjects were compulsory. *Table 3* shows the coverage of selected subject areas of the JSS curriculum as at January, 1989.

In a way, one could argue that the problem of getting qualified teachers in sufficient quantities to teach at the JSS level should, and in fact may have been anticipated for two main reasons:

- (i) There were not enough trained teachers with post-secondary qualifications to fully man the junior secondary schools.
- (ii) The former education system paid little attention to technical/vocational education and therefore there were very few people produced by the system who could competently teach the practical components of the JSS curriculum. For instance, out of the 38 initial teacher training colleges existing, there was only one that produced technical teachers at the time the reforms were launched.

5. NPCISR. Report on the "Monitoring of the implementation of the JSS programme". 1988.

Table 3. Coverage of selected subject areas in the JSS as at January 1989

Region	No. of JSS	Subject areas		
		Life skills	Technical skills	Technical drawing
Greater Accra	345	261	166	175
Eastern	785	406	474	431
Volta	625	289	306	468
Central	573	282	300	49
Western	554	206	253	408
Ashanti	817	496	520	507
Brong Ahafo	539	309	385	442
Northern	211	72	100	157
Upper East	132	55	88	115
Upper West	129	55	58	95
Total	4 710	2 431	2 650	2 847
Percentage coverage		% 51.6	% 56.3	% 60.4

2. *Adopted strategies*

2.1 *Recruitment of teachers for technical subjects*

In response to the findings of the 1988 JSS monitoring teams and the report of the January 1989 survey of the coverage of the JSS curriculum, the Ministry decided on a two-pronged approach to strengthen the teaching of technical subjects at the JSS level:

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- (i) Organizing in-service training courses for technical skills teachers, most of whom were untrained.
- (ii) Training sixth form leavers with GCE 'A' level passes in mathematics and sciences to teach technical drawing and technical skills in junior secondary schools.

It was argued that given the rudimentary nature of the technical skills syllabus it should be possible to train a GCE 'A' level holder with mathematics and science background to teach at least technical drawing. Accordingly, a three-week intensive in-service training course was organized in August 1988 for untrained technical skills teachers and mathematics teachers in JSS.

The course on the teaching of technical subjects registered a high rate of attendance by both technical and mathematics teachers. Even the latter left the course centres quite confident of their ability to handle competently at least technical drawing. Similar courses were subsequently organized on the teaching of life skills and vocational skills to improve teacher competence in those subject areas.

2.2 Minimizing the impact of teacher shortages: the shift system

There is evidence that the Ministry of Education did anticipate the teacher shortages and that some measures were taken to mitigate the impact of them. In anticipation of teacher shortages in the JSS, the Ministry introduced a new double-shift system into the JSS which demanded that the same set of teachers should teach both the morning and afternoon shifts and get paid a shift allowance amounting to 60 per cent of the teacher's gross salary. This was unlike the shift system at the primary school level, which operated with two sets of teachers.

According to the policy paper on the shift system operating in the JSS:

“The policy of having one set of teachers teaching two sets of classes in shift schools is designed to enable more pupils to benefit from the services of qualified teachers while efforts are being made to reduce the percentage of untrained teachers in the system.

“The Shift System is a ‘Third World’ solution to the problem of inadequate facilities and resources in the face of increasing demand

for education. The abandonment of the system would mean throwing a large number of children out of school".⁶

Even though the rationale behind the introduction of the double-shift system into the JSS was largely appreciated, by educational administrators, the position of the teachers was that the system was too demanding since it involved teachers teaching 48 periods and above per week.

It was discovered later on that many of the teachers who accepted the heavy workload did so because of the 60 per cent shift allowance, but they did very little teaching during the afternoon shift because they were too tired. Some schools with average enrolment that did not qualify to run double shifts began running them anyway, with the hope that the teachers would be paid the 60 per cent shift allowance.

Another problem that made the shift system unpopular was the chronic delays in the payment of allowances. After two years of implementation, it became clear that the double shift with one set of teachers was dysfunctional and therefore had to be cancelled. The only category of teachers allowed to continue teaching both the morning and afternoon shifts for an allowance were the teachers of technical skills, who were very difficult to come by.

2.3 National service personnel to the rescue

The National Service Scheme was instituted by Decree in 1973, to offer the youth of the country the opportunity to serve the nation wherever their services are needed; hence, sensibilizing them to the problems facing the country, particularly in the rural areas. If in future they assume leadership positions in society, they will then appreciate better the realities of the Ghanaian situation.

During the first decade of its existence the National Service Scheme concentrated its operations on fresh graduates from universities, who had to do one year of compulsory national service before they could be offered employment.

6. Ministry of Education. "Pertinent issues needing clarification at basic education level". October 1990.

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In 1982, the service period was increased to two years, and what was originally meant exclusively for university graduates became an obligation for able-bodied persons aged between 18 and 40 years. Since 1984, therefore, products of the polytechnics and sixth form institutions must do the first year of their national service immediately after leaving school and return to complete the service after graduating from the universities.

Since the inception of the National Service Scheme, the Ghana Education Service has been the biggest employer of service personnel, with 70 per cent of all national service postings being directed to classrooms. This has been so because whereas there appears to be unemployment in many sectors of the economy, there have always been many vacancies in the teaching field because school leavers looking for jobs are not attracted by a profession which would take most of them away from the comfort of urban life and send them to rural areas where there is no electricity, no potable water, no decent accommodation and where the general working environment is poor.

Furthermore, since the National Service Secretariat (NSS) operates as a statutory body under the Ministry of Education and the Director of the Scheme was also a member of the NPCISR, it was not difficult to get the Board of Directors of the Scheme to agree to send NSP to the rescue of Ghana education service as a sister organization in distress.

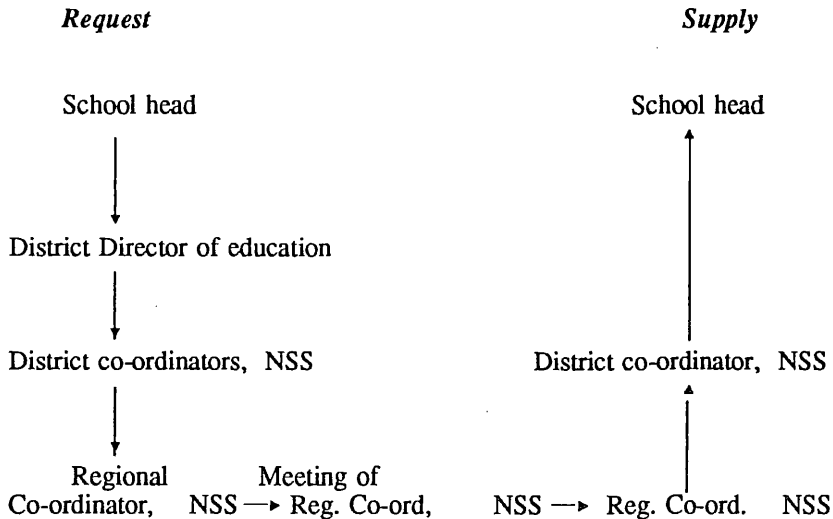
The seriousness that both the MOE and the NSS attach to the role being played by service personnel in the implementation of the school reforms was demonstrated through the publication of a 'Training manual for national service personnel posted to teach'. The appreciation of the role played by NSP in teaching is further demonstrated by the fact that whereas untrained teachers with Middle School Leaving Certificate have been consistently excluded from attending in-service training courses organized as part of the Reform Programme, because they have been earmarked for elimination from the system, NSP teaching in schools have always been invited to attend in-service training courses alongside the trained teachers.

The practice of posting national service personnel has been that at the end of each academic year district directors of education are expected to submit to their respective national service district co-ordinators a list of schools with vacancies in their districts. In the case of vacancies in JSS, the directors of education are requested to indicate the subject areas

for which teachers are needed so that the NSS district co-ordinators can at the appropriate time arrange direct postings to schools according to the needs of each institution. The district co-ordinators of NSS then pass on the requests to their regional co-ordinators, who meet and agree on how many NSP should be allocated to each region. After this has been done, the regional co-ordinators make block allocations to their respective district co-ordinators, according to the requests received from the districts. It is at the level of the district co-ordinators of NSS that actual postings are made to schools.

Chart 3 shows the institutional path for channelling requests for, and supply of, non-graduate NSP for teaching at basic education level:

Chart 3. Channelling requests and supply of non-graduate National Service Secretariat (NSS)



The greatest single problem that has bedeviled the operations of the National Service Scheme since its establishment has been the chronic delays in the payment of allowances to service personnel. These delays are often blamed on the district officials who fail to submit to headquar-

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ters on time the returns on payments made for previous months. Sometimes, allowances are delayed for three months and service personnel are forced to live on charity or borrowing, a situation which damages the social image of the NSP. Those who cannot face the embarrassment of borrowing avoid starvation by leaving their stations to collect money from parents or relatives and this sometimes takes days or even weeks.

In spite of this rather serious problem, the role played by the NSS in the supply of teachers to basic education schools has been extremely important. It may be appreciated more fully when the figures involved in the annual postings of NSP to schools are compared with the figures for the annual postings of newly trained teachers to schools.

For the 1990/91 academic year, the GES posted 4,727 newly trained teachers, as against 11,566 non-graduate national service postings to basic education schools. Even in 1991/92, when the GES recorded the highest output ever from the TTCs, the number of NSP deployed to schools that year was still higher: 13,164 NSP, against 9,183 newly trained teachers. In 1992/93, 10,440 NSP were deployed into schools, as against 1,671 newly trained teachers posted.⁷

Because of the serious shortage of teachers for technical and vocational subjects and, to a lesser extent, science and mathematics, NSP with a technical, science or mathematics background who request an extension of service period are granted permission to do the two-year service at a stretch instead of doing one year before going to university, and the other year after graduation.

There is another category of NSP who, after their normal service period of two years, expressed the desire to become full-time employees of the GES, but could not be absorbed by GES because of a ban on the employment of untrained teachers. As at November 1991, there were 532 such NSP who had served with the GES for more than two years. Out of the 532 NSP who had overstayed their period of service, 416 had served for three years, 99 for four years, 14 for five years, and 3 for six to eight years.⁸

7. National Service Secretariat and GES Teacher Education Division.

8. National Service Secretariat.

2.4 *Reforming teacher education*

In line with the reforms that were taking place at basic education level, changes were introduced into teacher education to enable the TTCs to train the right calibre of teachers for basic education schools.

To upgrade the academic level of the basic education teacher, the four-year post middle course in initial TTCs has been phased out, with the last batch of the post middle student-teachers passing out in July 1991. Entry requirements to initial TTCs have been raised to the possession of three GCE 'O' level passes, including credits in English and mathematics, and the curriculum has been revised and upgraded.

To meet teacher requirements for the system of subject teaching operating at the JSS level, the TTCs have been regrouped into two. In addition to the common core subjects offered to all students, Group I TT colleges offer training with a bias towards science, mathematics, and technical skills, whilst Group II TT colleges offer training with a bias for social studies, languages, vocational and life skills.

It was expected that with the restructuring of the course programme in TTCs, the acute shortage of teachers experienced in subject areas like technical, vocational and life skills, during the initial stages of the reforms, would be permanently overcome, provided that adequate attention would be paid to the issue of attracting more candidates into the TTCs to meet the increasing demand for trained teachers. The problem was that 38 TTCs in the country had over the years remained severely under-enrolled and no serious effort had been made to improve the situation. Some foreign consultants who had been brought into the country to assist in planning the implementation strategies for the reforms recommended that some of the TTCs should be closed down and the students transferred to other TTCs to make teacher education cost-effective. This recommendation was however not accepted. Rather, the NPCISR launched in 1989 a vigorous enrolment campaign that took the form of career guidance lectures in secondary schools, posters, radio announcements, space advertisements in national newspapers and promotional advertisements in the form of jingles on the radio.

However, the measure that attracted most candidates to the teaching profession was the increase of allowances for trainee teachers in 1991. The combined effect of the enrolment drive and the increase of the

allowance for trainee teachers was a dramatic increase in admissions to TTCs from 2,170 in 1989 to 6,492 in 1992.⁹

2.5 *Posting qualified staff at the head of junior secondary schools*

By insisting that a teacher must of necessity possess GCE 'O' level passes as minimum academic qualification for teaching in a JSS or assuming the enviable position of head of JSS, the planners of the reforms had excluded from participating in the JSS programme the four-year Certificate 'A' teachers without GCE 'O' level passes who constituted the majority of professional teachers at the beginning of the reforms. These senior-ranking teachers without GCE 'O' level passes felt very peeved when they saw their junior officers being appointed to be head of JSS by virtue of their higher academic qualifications, whilst they, the experienced seniors, were being moved down from the middle schools to primary schools. This category of teachers perceived the reforms as an exercise that had come to humiliate them and therefore adopted negative attitudes to the reforms. These teachers referred to the JSS (Junior Secondary School) as 'Juniors Sack Seniors'!

The affected teachers addressed several protest letters to the Ministry, the government and to the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT). But the planners stood firm. They argued that education is a knowledge industry in which the headmaster is not only an administrator but also an academic head who should be as knowledgeable as his teachers, if not more. Therefore, if the ordinary teacher in the JSS is expected to possess GCE 'O' level passes in addition to his professional qualification, then the head of the JSS must also have GCE 'O' level passes. "Education must not be treated as if it were the Army where officers salute ranks!" retorted one irate education official.

A positive by-product of the application of the new guidelines for staffing basic education schools is that teachers have now realized the value of higher academic qualifications and many teachers are currently attending GNAT-sponsored GCE 'O' level evening classes for teachers in 'study circles' throughout the country.

9. GES Teacher Education Division.

2.6 Transfer of excess trained teachers from education offices back to the classroom

In response to persistent reports on teacher shortages in schools across the country, at a time when all available statistics indicated that there were enough teachers in the system to man all basic education schools in the country, the GES decided in 1992 to streamline the staffing of education offices and get all excess trained teachers working in education offices sent back to the classroom.

In a new 'District Education Office Organization Chart' issued in August 1992, as part of the restructuring of the GES, the staff establishment for a district education office was fixed at 50, made up of 21 non-teaching personnel and 29 professional teachers. According to the directive on the restructuring exercise:

"All teaching personnel currently at post in the District Education Offices whose services shall no more be needed as a result of the restructuring exercise should be posted to the classroom".¹⁰

The deadline for the completion of the exercise was 30 September, 1992. A survey, conducted after the above deadline in five districts, randomly selected from three different regions of the country, to determine the level of compliance with the directive on the transfer of redundant professional teachers from office to classroom, indicated that out of a total number of 390 trained teachers working in the five surveyed districts before the restructuring exercise, 135 or 34.6 per cent were sent back to the classroom in compliance with the directive whilst 45 or 11.5 per cent were transferred to other places.

Table 4 gives details of the redeployment of excess professional teachers from education offices to the classroom in five selected districts.

10. GES Circular on "District education office organization chart". August 1992.

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Table 4. The restructuring of the District Education Office and the transfer of excess professional teachers from Education Offices to the classroom

	No. of teachers in office before restructuring	No. of teachers in office after restructuring	No. of teachers sent to classrooms in same district	No. of teachers transferred to other places
Kwahu South	55	31	24	-
East Akim	75	43	10	22
Greater Accra	132	31	94	7
Akwapim South	35	32	1	2
Kumasi metrop.	93	73	6	14
Total (absolute figure)	390	210	135	45
Total (%)	100	53.9	34.6	11.5

Asked to comment on the impact of the restructuring exercise on productivity in the district education offices, the respondents in all the five districts were unanimous in saying that the exercise had enhanced efficiency in the offices, while it had also improved the staffing situation in schools. In one district, the Director of Education was happy to confirm that the transfer of excess trained teachers from the office to the classroom had resulted in a considerable improvement in the district's performance in the 1993 Basic Education Certificate examinations.

Chapter V

Managing regional disparities in teacher deployment

1. Recent evolution

Due to the combined effect of the phasing out of untrained teachers with Middle School Leaving Certificate (MSLC) and the considerable increase of the enrolment in TTCs, the proportion of trained teachers in primary schools rose from 55.8 per cent in 1986/87 to 73.8 per cent in 1991/1992. The corresponding increase at the JSS level was from 64.6 per cent in 1986/87 to 71.9 per cent in 1991/92. Considerable progress has been made all over the country, as can be seen from *Table 5*.

Table 5 shows the distribution of trained teachers as a percentage of the total number of teachers in primary and JSS by region. It can also be seen from the *Table*: that the overall increase in the proportion of trained teachers has been greater for primary schools than for the JSS, and that disparities in the distribution of trained teachers have been shrinking to a greater extent in the former. Yet, there are still significant differences in the trained teacher supply levels from region to region. For instance, 90.81 per cent of primary school teachers in the Greater Accra region are trained, as against 55.67 per cent in the Western Region. This indicates that there is still room for improvement in the deployment of teachers in the country. The problem is that many teachers posted to difficult areas often manage to have their postings reversed through:

- (i) Securing a medical certificate stating that the teacher suffers from a chronic ailment such as stomach ulcer, asthma, hypertension, etc., and therefore he has to be near his doctor who usually practices in an urban centre.
- (ii) In the case of female teachers, through securing a marriage certificate which entitles her to be posted to where the husband lives.
- (iii) Patronage and influence peddling.

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Table 5. Distribution of trained teachers as per cent of total number of teachers in public primary and junior secondary schools, per region

Region	1988/1989		1989/1990		1990/1991		1991/1992	
	Pri- mary	JSS	Pri- mary	JSS	Pri- mary	JSS	Pri- mary	JSS
Greater Accra	88.01	89.49	90.89	77.75	91.67	81.67	90.81	82.03
Eastern	66.47	74.78	68.29	69.46	69.42	80.24	76.77	75.19
Volta	67.99	74.90	73.81	73.18	77.35	87.05	85.19	81.65
Central	58.05	73.51	70.25	61.60	67.82	70.22	74.39	71.43
Western	41.71	61.74	52.30	56.16	49.81	76.59	55.67	42.49
Ashanti	67.14	74.60	70.60	66.94	71.60	70.34	75.53	75.67
Brong Ahafo	48.22	67.78	52.95	58.27	54.23	74.56	64.42	66.03
Northern	40.56	66.20	44.95	55.10	41.53	73.66	65.67	61.31
Upper East	37.68	59.01	74.66	47.87	72.55	63.23	78.59	51.49
Upper West	70.28	68.96	82.15	54.07	78.08	68.06	84.01	58.07
National	60.3	71.8	66.4	64.9	66.1	75.9	73.8	71.9

Source: PBME, Ministry of Education

As can be seen from *Table 6*, there are considerable disparities in the deployment of the untrained teachers (with Middle School Leaving Certificate) and the location of junior secondary schools manned by one teacher only (i.e. which do not have the staff required for implementing the curriculum).

One of the central questions that arise is: should there be 134 JSS each manned by one teacher (in 1990) and why should there be schools without any teachers at all, as was the case in certain districts, whereas pupil/teacher ratios in primary and junior secondary schools are rather low in comparison with those observed in other developing countries?

Table 6. MSLC pupil teachers in basic schools and junior secondary schools manned by one teacher, 1990

No.	Region	MSLC pupil teacher	Junior secondary schools manned by one teacher	No. of junior secondary schools in the region
1	Upper West	150	18	156
2	Upper East	279	4	156
3	Volta	1 803	28	631
4	Accra	463	4	371
5	Ashanti	2 300	36	839
6	Eastern	3 000	11	814
7	Northern	2 025	-	226
8	Central	1 500	27	617
9	Brong Ahafo	3 500	1	561
10	Western	2 200	5	574
	Total	17 220	134	4 945

Source: GES Teacher Education Division

Table 7 indicates that between 1988 and 1992 there was on average one teacher for every 27 pupils at the primary school level, whilst the ratio was one teacher for every 18 pupils at the JSS level. It also shows the evolution of regional disparities regarding the pupil/teacher ratio.

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Table 7. Evolution of pupil teacher ratios in primary and junior secondary schools (JSS), 1988/1992

Region	1988/1989		1989/1990		1990/1991		1991/1992	
	Pri- mary	JSS	Pri- mary	JSS	Pri- mary	JSS	Pri- mary	JSS
Greater Accra	38.13	23.20	38.83	22.54	39.27	22.70	36.63	23.59
Eastern	23.21	16.01	25.40	18.02	25.65	17.11	24.00	15.83
Volta	24.25	16.67	26.02	17.73	26.87	20.43	26.27	20.01
Central	27.73	16.79	28.10	17.27	31.00	16.72	28.98	17.31
Western	26.51	17.07	26.48	15.21	27.58	19.70	37.65	16.02
Ashanti	28.43	19.48	29.34	19.85	29.81	17.31	28.43	18.49
Brong Ahafo	23.03	18.05	23.14	17.11	25.67	19.31	24.04	16.51
Northern	18.05	14.36	22.82	14.11	26.51	20.05	24.14	17.12
Upper East	20.17	11.64	26.39	10.24	32.99	15.21	31.33	13.17
Upper West	24.76	12.34	26.06	12.84	32.57	15.37	27.62	13.11
National	26.1	17.60	27.09	17.72	28.70	18.54	27.19	19.73

Source: GES Planning unit

2. *Adopted strategies*

2.1 *Implementing a new school map*

A school mapping exercise conducted in 1986 showed that there was a need to merge a large number of basic education schools, while attempting to avoid disrupted education for children by reason of the long distances they would have to travel daily to attend school. However, for fear of provoking Church-State confrontation through the enforcement of the policy of merging non-viable schools, many primary schools with low enrolments have been left to continue to operate, in close proximity with each other, because they are managed by different religious denominations which are all hostile to the idea of merger.

As an alternative solution to the problem of under-utilization of trained manpower in schools, the authorities have adopted the policy of merging classes with low enrolment. This policy may be acceptable to the churches but it definitely has its own problems for the teacher, who may have to merge up to three classes.

The failure of the restructuring of the management of education to deal with the issue of two parallel management systems in public education has also left unresolved the issue of inequitable distribution of trained teachers between district assembly schools (which receive the newly-trained teachers) on one hand and church-managed schools on the other hand.

2.2 *Measures aimed at improving the provision of qualified teachers to rural schools*

Monitoring

To enable the National Planning Committee to know the number of untrained teachers with MSLC to be replaced, or how many vacancies had to be filled, the Director for Teacher Education requested in 1990 that all regional directors of education submit:

- A list of untrained teachers with MSLC in their regions.
- A list of JSS being manned by one teacher.

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The first information was to enable the Director for Teacher Education to allocate an adequate number of four-year Certificate 'A' teachers to each region on the basis of returns from the regions, while the second information was to help the allocation of three-year post-secondary teachers to the regions to fill vacancies in the JSS.¹¹

Guidelines

Because of its high concentration of untrained teachers with MSLC, the Afram Plains of the Kwahu North District, a very difficult and remote area in the Eastern Region of Ghana, has been the subject of special attention by the National Postings Board. The area has many island schools that are accessible to the outside world only by small canoes.

In the 'Guidelines concerning the allocation and postings of newly-trained teachers from initial teacher training colleges' issued in 1992 and 1993 respectively, the Postings Board directed that "all teachers allocated to the Eastern Region must be posted to the Afram Plains".

Yet, the priority given to the replacement of untrained teachers, as against filling vacancies, has created a situation whereby the proportion of untrained teachers in primary schools has fallen from 50.4 per cent in 1982/1983 to 26.2 per cent in 1991/1992, whilst there are still several basic education schools without teachers.

For instance, according to a newspaper report that appeared in the 'Ghanaian Times' of 1 June, 1993:

"Gushiegu Karaga District in the Northern Region is hit by an acute shortage of teachers affecting effective teaching in the area. Mr Alhassan Yakubu, Acting District Chief Executive, disclosing this to newsmen here said 14 primary schools in the area had no teachers at all while 40 others had a teacher each handling about six classes".

Disparities in the provision of qualified or particularly experienced teachers obviously continue to exist not only among the regions but also among various schools located in the same region. In some instances

11. GES Teacher Education Division

'unit schools' (i.e. church-managed schools) have been found particularly well provided with competent teaching staff; this phenomenon can at least partly be explained by the fact that the regional managers of unit schools live in the regional capitals with the regional postings officers and get to know of the postings results earlier and therefore lobby for the best teachers for their schools, even before the district directors, who are of a higher rank, get to hear of the postings. The district directors perceive their role in postings as being to ensure equity in staff deployment but this role is often frustrated by the regional managers because of the proximity advantage they have over the district directors.

2.3 The remote area incentive package

As part of the 'Equity Improvement Programme' (EIP), which is a component of PREP, a 'Remote Area Incentive Package' for primary school heads and teachers was launched on a pilot basis in 1991. The pilot project involved the free supply of six motor-bikes and 24 bicycles to six primary school headteachers and 24 teachers, respectively, in six primary schools located in some of the most remote and difficult areas of the country. The items were for the schools and were meant to serve as incentives to attract qualified teachers to the beneficiary schools, and retain them there.

An assessment of the sustainability of the pilot project indicated that maintenance and fuel costs could pose a problem in keeping up the supply of motor-bikes as incentives. Accordingly, motor-bikes were dropped from the 1993 package for 25 schools, which consisted of 100 bicycles.

2.4 The housing pilot project

This pilot project, also a component of the EIP, was launched in 1992 and was designed to provide decent accommodation for headteachers of primary schools in difficult areas. It was expected that this would attract and retain qualified teachers in rural schools.

The project has so far provided a two-bedroom-and-hall accommodation for each of 15 primary school headteachers serving in difficult areas. In 1993, 25 four-unit houses were planned for 100 teachers in 25 schools.

*The provision and deployment of qualified teachers:
the Ghanaian experience*

It is too early to measure the impact of the two pilot projects on teacher deployment to rural schools in Ghana. It is, however, known that lack of accommodation has been a major factor responsible for teachers' refusal to accept postings to schools in rural areas.¹²

2.5 *The primary school development project*

This project, launched in October 1993, is a US \$73.3 million project that is supported by the World Bank with a credit of US \$65.1 million. The overall goal of the project is to increase enrolments and learning achievements in primary schools throughout the country. The project concentrates on 1,983 of the most deprived schools and combines the implementation of key policy and management changes with investments in physical infrastructure. Some of the specific objectives of the project are:

- increasing the official teaching hours from four to five hours a day;
- ensuring that the district directors of education do not arrange any functions or activities for school teachers during official teaching hours;
- constructing 10,977 classrooms in the 1,983 project schools;
- constructing in the 1,983 project schools, 1,983 two-bedroom houses for headteachers who will be selected with the involvement of local communities so that the selected headteachers will be answerable to the local community leaders as well as to the District Director of Education.¹³

2.6 *Headteacher's house*

Judging from past experience of teacher shortages in rural schools and the reasons for teachers' reluctance to accept working in rural areas, the educational authorities in Ghana are convinced that the only way

12. The Projects Management Unit, MOE.

13. Ibid.

schools in deprived areas can attract qualified and motivated teachers to apply for headteachers' posts is to provide such schools with simple, cheap but comfortable headteachers' accommodation.

Accordingly, whereas all government employees pay up to 18 per cent of their salaries to live in government bungalows, headteachers who will occupy these 1,983 houses will pay only 2 per cent of their salaries, and the monies will be deposited into a special account in the district and used solely for minor maintenance works on the headteachers' houses.

In return for the privilege of almost free accommodation, the headteacher, prior to moving into his new house, will sign an agreement with Parent/Teachers Association and the District Director of Education in which he will make an undertaking that he will hold all PTA and teacher meetings, sports and extra curricular activities outside official teaching hours; that he will supervise the attendance and performance of his teachers; that he will interact frequently with parents and community leaders, etc.

Even though the Primary school development project has not yet fully taken off, the Headteacher's house component of the project has aroused a lot of excitement and high expectations from various sections of the society.

For the GNAT, the project is the first of its kind in the country that has taken care of the interests not only of the learner but also of the teacher as the real agent of change. For the primary school headteachers, the project will uplift the image of primary school teachers and repair the damaged morale of those experienced staff who had to accept that newly-trained teachers with higher formal qualifications than their own were given priority access to the posts of Junior Secondary School Head.

Chapter VI

Summary and concluding remarks

Since the launching of the educational reform in 1987, considerable improvements have been made in the supply and deployment of teachers in Ghana. Quantitative achievements are to a large extent due to the increased output of the country's teacher training colleges and the posting of national service personnel to teach in basic education schools. Considerable efforts have also been invested to deploy teachers to those posts where they are most needed and where they can do their best, particularly through:

- (i) the progressive replacement of unqualified teachers (the so-called Middle School Leaving Certificate teachers) by qualified staff;
- (ii) the appointment, through interviews, of substantive heads for basic education schools and the workshops run for them on school management;
- (iii) the in-service training and orientation programmes organized for all categories of teachers except the untrained teachers with MSLC;
- (iv) special incentives for teachers serving in rural areas.

As noted in part II of the present monograph, the objective of optimal teacher deployment and utilization is still far from being accomplished in Ghana: significant disparities in the quantity and the quality of teachers provided continue to exist and more efficient teacher utilization is hampered by low pupil/teacher ratios, teacher absenteeism and misuse of instructional time.

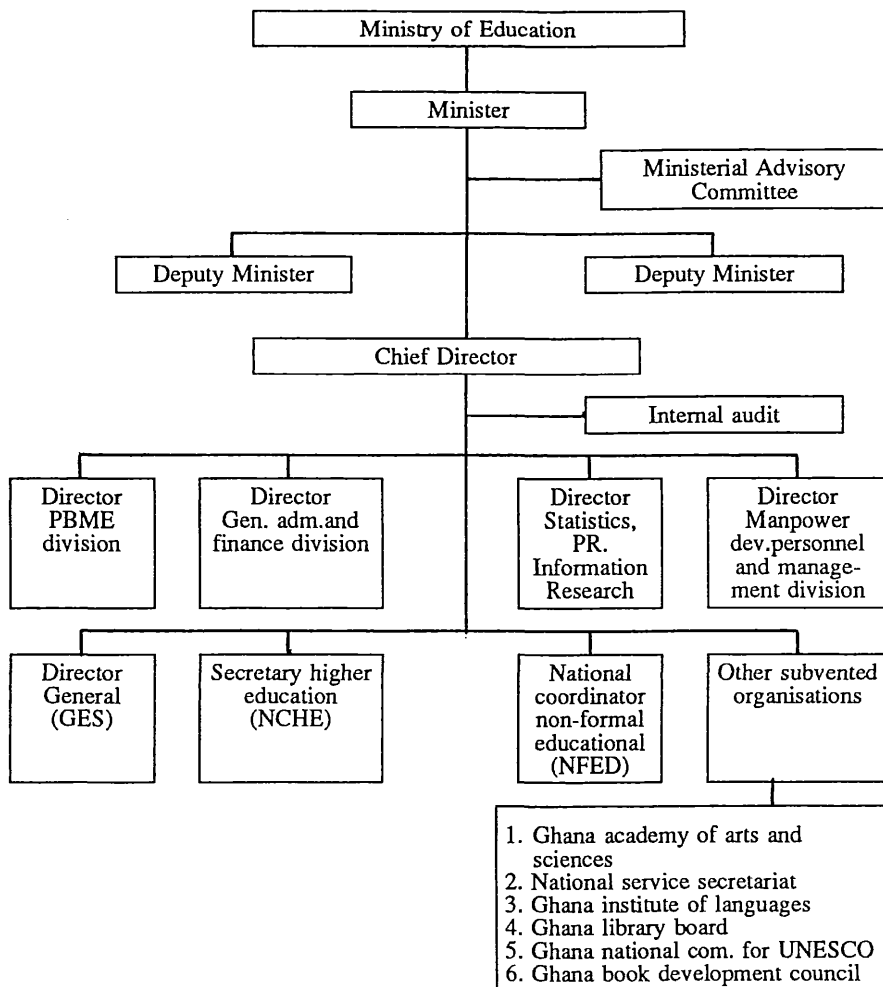
One of the possible solutions to the latter problem may reside in the increasing involvement of local communities in the management and supervision of schools.

In spite of the limitations mentioned, the Ghanaian experience shows that, provided the necessary enabling political and social climate is given, it is possible to improve the staffing in schools in developing countries by various measures, including the transfer of excess professional teachers from education offices back to the classroom; the mobilization of the youth for teaching through national service schemes and a variety of special incentives. Close monitoring and evaluation will be necessary, to assess the implementation and actual impact of these measures.

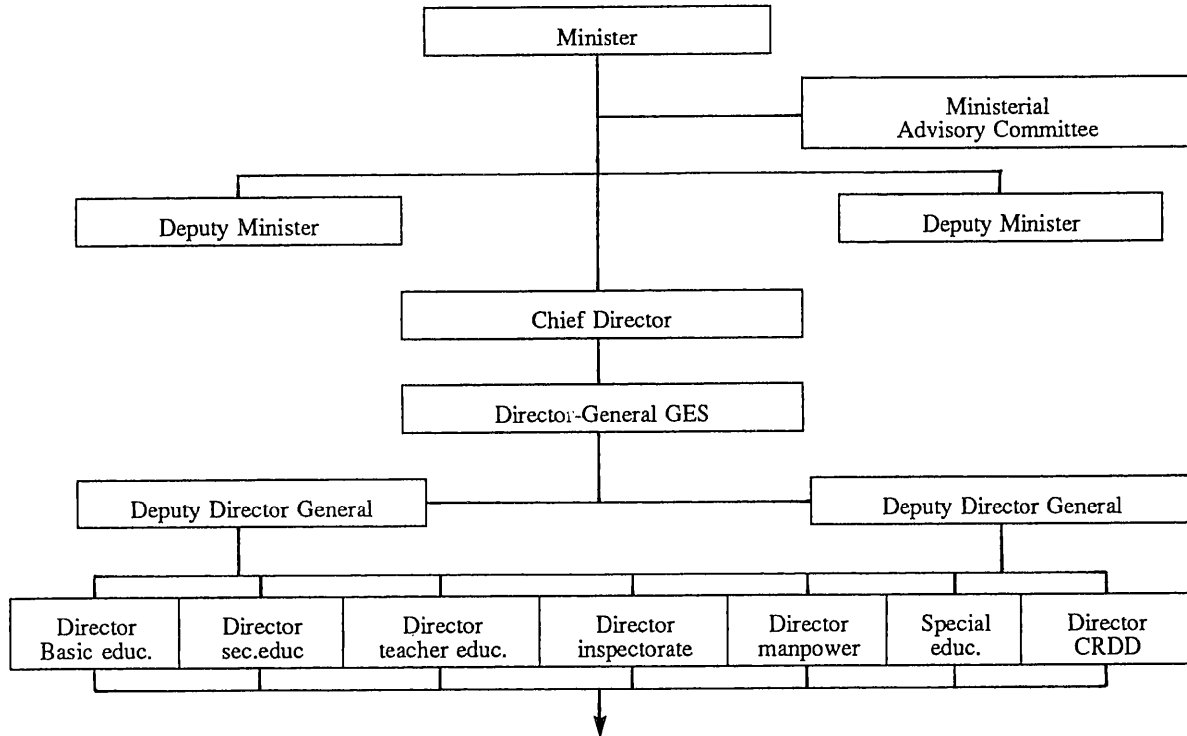
Appendices

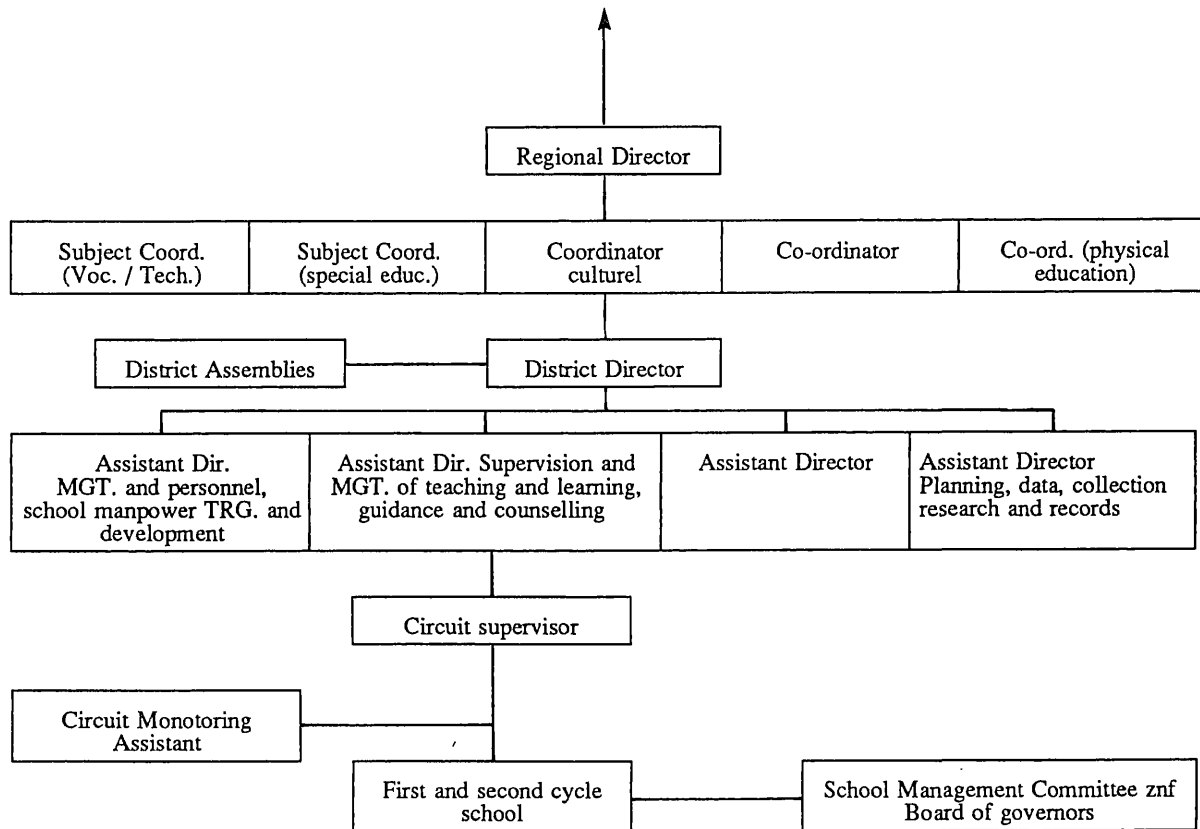
Appendix I

Organigram of Ministry of Education



Appendix II
 Institutional relationship between the Ministry of Education
 and Ghana Education Service





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The book

Improving the staffing of schools all over the country and addressing in particular the lack of qualified teachers in the rural areas constitutes a central issue of teacher management in many developing countries. Over the last few decades, Ghana has taken significant steps towards meeting this challenge. The present monograph reports on the Ghanaian experience in analysing in particular how the policies and administration of teacher deployment have contributed to reducing temporary shortages and the 'urban-rural gap' in the provision of teachers.

The author

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