

## SECTION III

### Four Public Universities and Leadership Challenges



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## 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.’<sup>16</sup> 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 20<sup>th</sup> 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 Mfantipim 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.'<sup>17</sup> 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.<sup>18</sup>

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 19<sup>th</sup> 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 micromangement of the institution gained grounds. The critical concerns that were raised included the dwindling of institutional autonomy and academic freedom (Hagan 1994). A quagmire 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.<sup>19</sup> 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 (Sawyer 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.<sup>20</sup> 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 Figure 4.1 as follows:

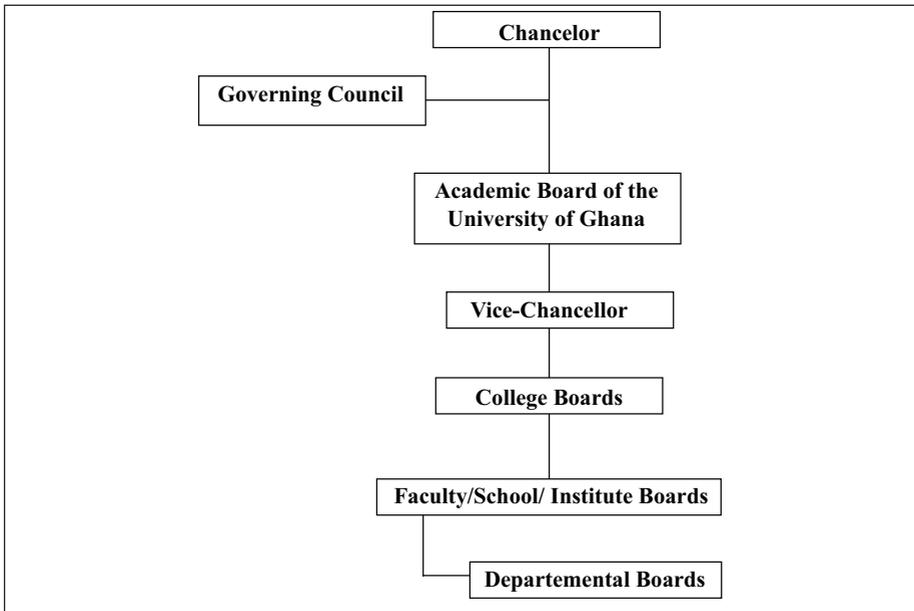


Figure 4.1: Leadership Structure of University of Ghana

## 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.<sup>21</sup>
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.

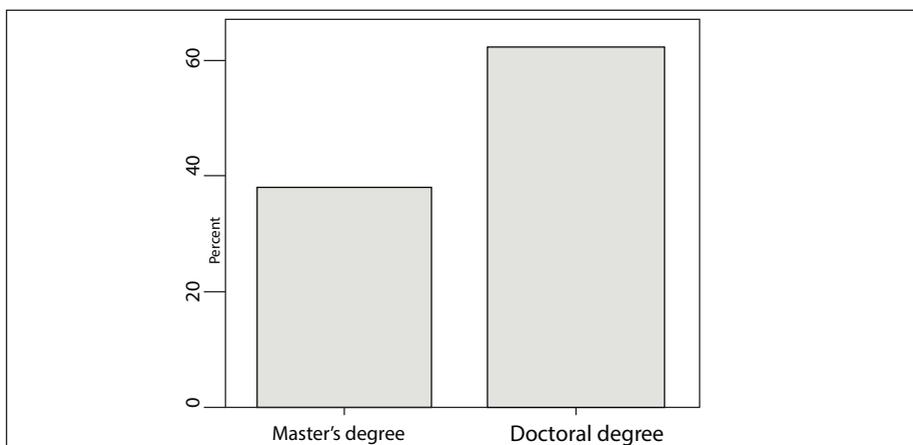
The Academic Quality Assurance Policy of the University recognises the important roles of the academic teaching staff, in terms of the pedagogical effectiveness; their research output; and the responsibilities for the purpose of quality assurance. The next section devotes attention to the empirical data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

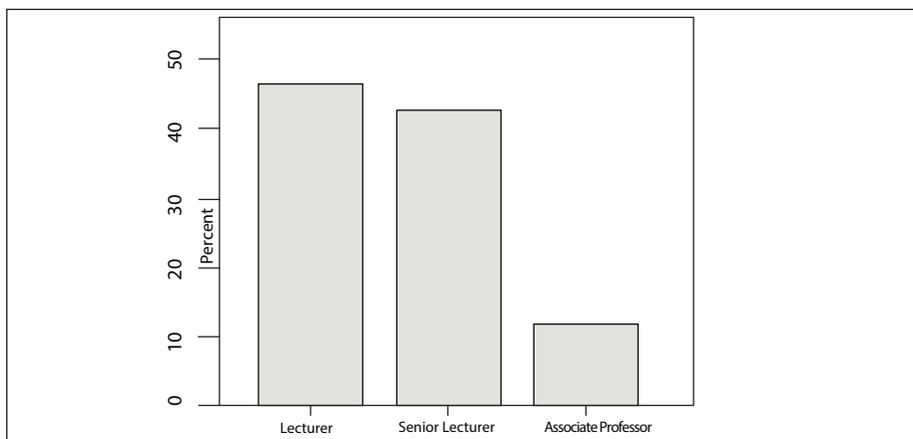
One of the key concerns of the study was to examine the capacity of the academic staff. This was, for instance, meant to find out about the highest academic qualification of the academic staff. The highest academic qualification attained by the academic staff of the University of Ghana is depicted in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

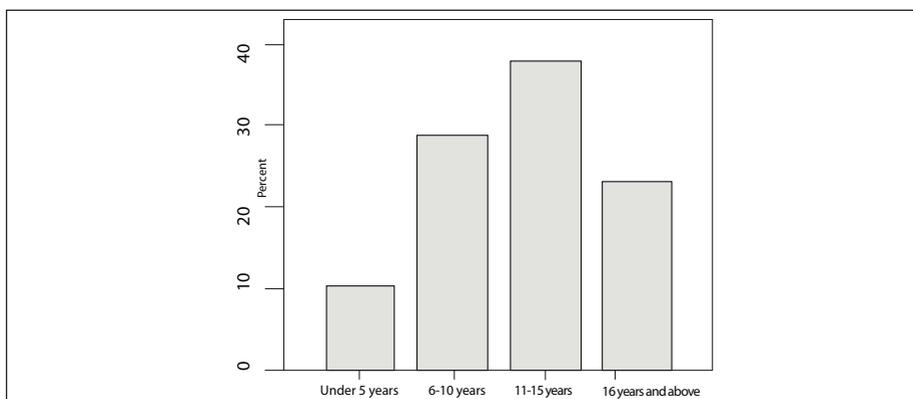
It is important to note though that capacity issues in the academia go beyond minimum academic qualifications. The profiles of faculty in terms of professional rankings do matter, in institutional capacity determination. Professional ranking in the academic community is determined by a number of variables, 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 per cent 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.

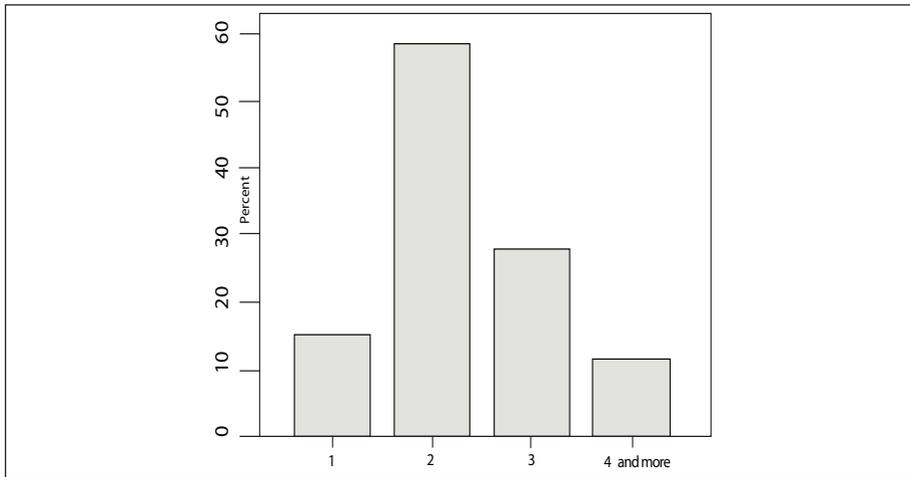
The duration of teaching by the academic staff is hereby captured to provide an overview of the situation at the University of Ghana. This is shown in Figure 4.4.



**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.

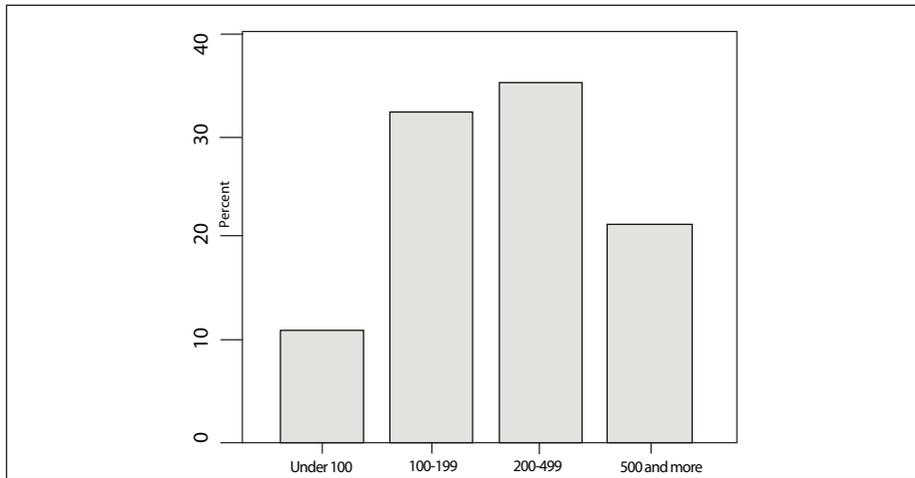
The data broadly show a fairly experienced teaching staff that was most likely to have acquired pedagogical skills necessary for effective knowledge transmission. Such an experienced corps of teaching staff is most likely to acquire the skills of leadership and human relations necessary for effective 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
<b>Total</b>	<b>252</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

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
<b>Total</b>	<b>252</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

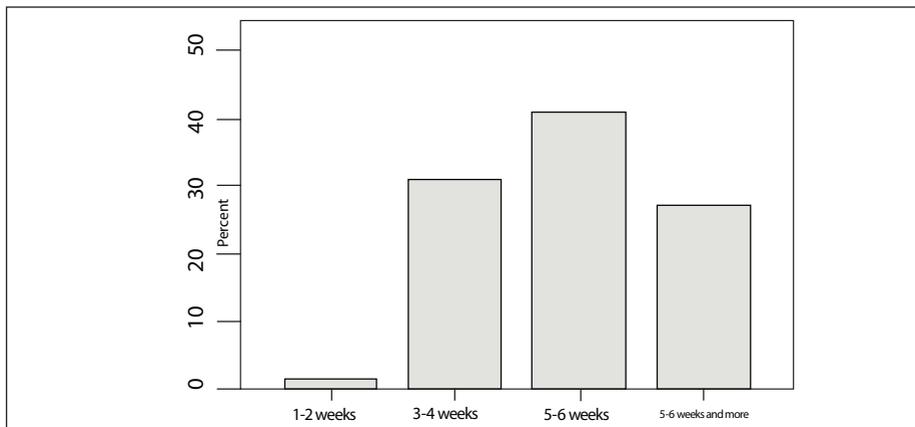
Interactive teaching is demonstrated to be a superior mode of pedagogy than the banking system. Interaction creates what Paulo Freire (2006) describes as 'mutual humanisation,' in which a partnership is established between teachers and students. Through this mode of education, the attention of the latter 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
<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

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
<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

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
<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

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.

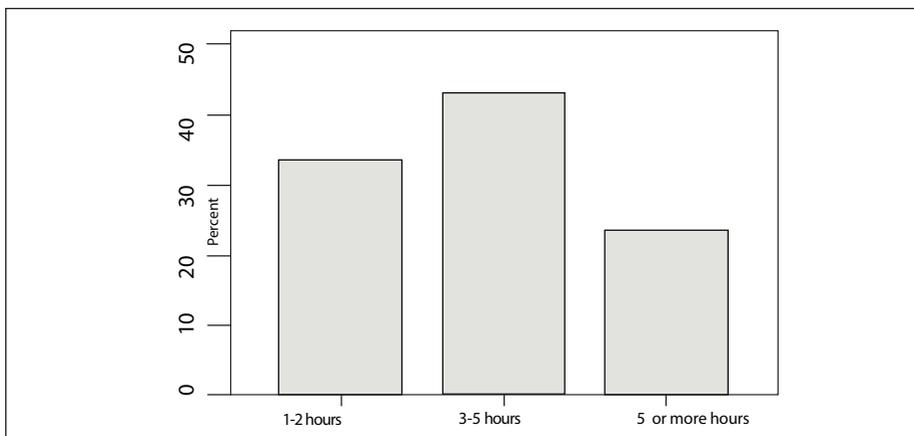
Obviously, there must be some constraining factors that affect the publication rate of lecturers. To find out the challenges that confront them, the following are some reasons that were randomly picked to illustrate the point. The viewpoints cited in Box 4. 1 below provides us with some insight.

**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.

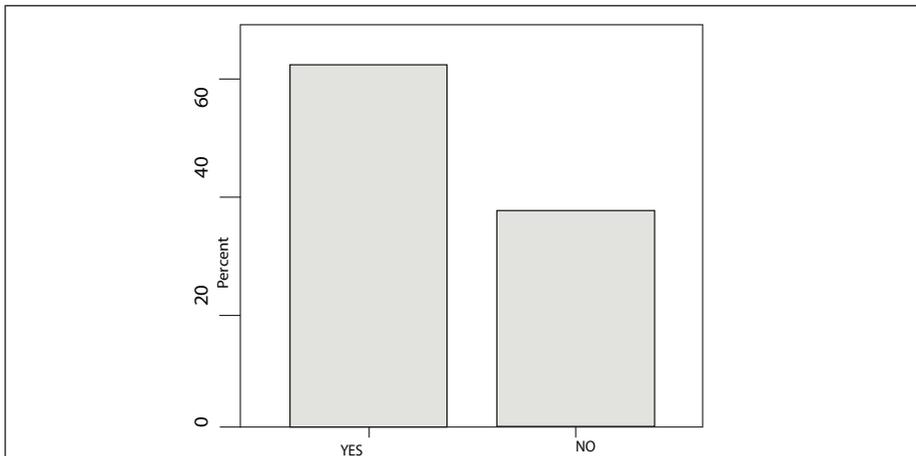
To find out the challenges that confront the academic teaching staff in the University of Ghana on their delivery of research outputs, we probed further to examine other factors that could be detracting their focus from publishing. And here, the focus was on the effect of administrative responsibilities 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, Akuafu 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 ripeness of the contention that such exercises have tendentially 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
<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

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
<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

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
<b>Total</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	

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 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.