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Contents

Editorial

Five papers from studies on Higher Education in Ghana are presented in this eighth volume of the *Ghana Journal of Higher Education*.

In the first paper, Isaac Mepenedo and Francis Ansah examine the main differences in professional effectiveness of teachers trained through distance education and teachers trained through the regular mode from the standpoint of frontline supervisors. Using a descriptive mixed method the study finds out that supervisors perceive that teachers trained by distance education mode are different from those trained by the regular mode. Although the participants' perceptions do not suggest that teachers trained by distance mode are not professionally effective, the supervisors still think that teachers trained through the regular mode are perceived as better options for deployment in the classroom. However, the authors argue that a more systematic research will be needed to validate these perceptions through direct measurement of professional effectiveness of both categories of teachers taking into consideration all the other variables and factors which account for the competence of teachers.

Since the 1980s Ghana has established various bodies to oversee its university sector institutions. The roles of these bodies are varied and numerous but the main purpose is to ensure that their progammes are relevant to both national and global development, satisfy minimum professional and academic standards in terms of quality and are competitive internationally. In the second paper, Emmanuel Newman presents an analysis of the mandates and practices of institutions charged with the regulation of tertiary education in Ghana focusing on the challenges regarding the overlapping, duplicating and conflicting roles of these bodies, as well as the interrelationships between other education and professional regulatory bodies in the light of recent reforms and transformation policies introduced by the government. The author is, however happy that the recent law introduced by government, the Education Regulatory Bodies Act, 2020 (Act 1023) which has merged the two former major bodies, National Accreditaion Board (NAB) and the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) into one body, the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC), will address most of the difficulties of the past and result in a more effective supervision and cooperation among the players in the tertiary education sector.

In the third study, Maame Afua Nkrumah investigates how gender biases in a university classroom environment influence student learning. She identifies some of the major factors associated with gender biases in the classroom and which impact academically, socially and psychologically on the quality of students' learning experiences. Although gender biases in the classroom can be either covert or overt the study focuses on overt biases. The study finds that in the classroom female students usually experience things from their teachers, and colleagues which they either do not like or feel uncomfortable about more than their male counterparts. These include subtle derogatory and unfair comments, sexual harrassment, decimation and coercion. The author recommends a more regular and intensive supervision and monitoring regime on the part of leaders together with stiffer sanctions for offenders.

It is generally believed that women are often left out when it comes to leadership positions in corporate organisations and where women are considered they are often under-represented and this is the focus of the fourth article. Using the situation of employees at the Tamale Technical University (TTU), Bawa Wumbie and Felix Mustapha Nantogma examine the leadership styles practiced by both male and female staff and how these promote efficient performance as well as enhance productivity. Considering the relationship between two leadership styles, transformational and transactional, the study revealed that TTU leadership style is largely male dominance as well as transactional. In this regard major decision making in terms of gender, seem to favour the males at the expense of the females. Quite intriguing is the observation that female employees in Tamale Technical University demonstrate more of transformational leadership behavioral traits than transactional leadership characteristics and that the female staff use more of consensus building through participation and sharing of power with subordinates than their male counterparts.

In the fifth and final article of this edition, Tebogo Mogashoa and Akua Tiwaa Ankomah examine the connection between teachers' teaching styles and pedagogical communicative practices on one hand, and the academic achievement of students on the other. The study was conducted in selected senior high schools in three regions in Ghana. The findings demonstrate the extent to which the selection of appropriate pedagogical communicative practices can impact on student learning experiences.

Although several factors contribute to student learning and academic success, the teacher's role is critical. As the direct implementers of the curriculum, teachers wield an invaluable influence in the education delivery process. As such pedagogical communication practices should form a great part of the education and training of teachers.

Perceptions of Frontline Supervisors on the Performance of Teachers Trained through the Regular or Distance Modes of Tuition

ISAAC MEPENEDO & FRANCIS ANSAH

Abstract

From the pre-independence times through the independence era, the main mode of training pre-tertiary education teachers in Ghana had been the regular "brick and wall campus" system. But in the last two decades, the distance system of education has also featured prominently in the training of teachers in Ghana. However, there seem to be some perceived discrimination against teachers trained through the distance mode of education with the citing of unsatisfactory professional effectiveness as the reason, which is not backed by any evidence. A descriptive mixed methods research design was used to examine the perceptions of frontline supervisors, who are likely to be more familiar with teachers and their performance, about the professional effectiveness of pre-tertiary education teachers trained through regular and distance modes of education. Questionnaire and semi-structured interview schedule were used in collecting the data. A total sample size of 108 comprising all the 98 Headteachers, six Circuit Supervisors and four Deputy Directors of a municipality in the Central Region of Ghana was used for the study. Findings from the study indicate that generally, the frontline supervisors perceive teachers trained through regular mode of education to be professionally more effective than teachers trained through the distance mode of education. The study concludes that even though the study participants' perceptions do not suggest that distance education trained teachers are not professionally effective, they do indicate that teachers trained through the regular mode of education are considered as better options for deployment in classrooms or teacher assignments. The study suggests that further research is required to validate these perceptions through direct measurement of professional effectiveness and also to identify the variables that account for the possible differences in professional effectiveness among the teachers.

Introduction

Quality education has undoubtedly been embraced by all as the bedrock of individual and national development. Andrés and Shavez (2015) explained that education can improve the capabilities of a person to enable him/her bring positive social change in the society. Khalid (2012), cited in Somani

(2017), also noted that education has a great influence on changing society. Quality education, is however, dependent largely on quality and effective professional teachers. Teachers are the heart of providing quality education to children. They take learners through not only book knowledge, but also social norms and acceptable behaviours to become reliable characters in society. According to Kadingdi, cited in Adu-Agyem and Osei-Poku (2012), the quality, effectiveness and attitudes of the teaching force rest heavily on two factors: the type of person recruited to the service and the quality of the pre-service and in-service training they receive. Teacher education or training is one of the ultimate means of ensuring the availability of quality teachers in schools. Teacher training institutions are established with well-planned and structured programmes to accomplish this very crucial desire of producing quality and effective professional teachers for quality education delivery in the society.

Teacher education started in Ghana in 1848 by the Basel Missionaries at Akropong-Akwapim (Pecku, 1998, cited in Cobbold, 2010). According to Akyeampong (2003), teacher education has continued since Ghana's independence in 1957 with strong government commitment aimed at producing adequate numbers of teachers for the nation's education system. With the continued expansion in school enrolments, more teacher training institutions have been established. The conscious efforts by government to train teachers for the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education have included the establishment of teacher training colleges, now colleges of education, and universities (University of Cape Coast and University of Education, Winneba) with the mandate to train professional teachers.

Until the last two decades, teacher training in Ghana had predominantly been executed through the regular "brick and wall campus" system. This appeared to be limiting the capacity of the training institutions to produce the required numbers of teachers due to limited facilities on campus. Ultimately, in spite of all the conscious effort by government, the country continued to experience acute-shortage of professional teachers to meet the national goal of providing universal basic education to all children of school going age, and thus offer all Ghanaians the opportunity to have access to all forms of education and training regardless of where one lives. It was against this background that the government of Ghana initiated the idea of distance education to augment the regular education system to train sufficient professional teachers for the education system.

The usefulness of distance education has been globally acknowledged

in recent years as one of the strategic means of increasing access to tertiary education through effective use of human resources, space and time of the various training institutions. This view is supported by an assertion made by Sam-Tagoe (2007) that distance education is uniquely seen as a tool for widening access to higher education and bridging the gap between those who have the opportunity to gain admission to study directly in the various tertiary institutions and those who have the ambition for schooling but are challenged because of limited infrastructure or their peculiar financial, social or occupational circumstances.

The distance education programme has for the last two decades become an integral part of the training of teachers for the primary and secondary education subsectors in Ghana. However, a number of concerns have been raised about the quality of teachers produced from distance education programmes in recent times particularly in respect of their professional effectiveness (Yarboi-Tetteh, 2014). Consequently, there have been issues with the acceptance of these teachers into the Ghana Education Service (GES) as qualified and well-trained teachers imbued with professional competence. A former Provost of the College of Distance Education (CoDE) of the University of Cape Coast was reported to have expressed concern over alleged cases of some District Directors of GES discriminating against diploma and graduate teachers of distance education programmes (Yarboi-Tetteh, 2014). Another reported case had to do with the selective recruitment by GES, where in 2017 graduate teachers from the distance mode of training were not permitted to apply for recruitment (Ansah, 2017).

The perceived discrimination against teachers trained through the distance mode of education has been argued on the grounds of their professional effectiveness being unsatisfactory. However, the arguments for the discrimination appear only anecdotal and not backed by any evidence particularly as shared by frontline supervisors who work closely and regularly with these teachers. The frontline supervisors in this study context are the headteachers and officers of the district/municipal/metropolitan education directorates. The argument of this study is that without the views of these two categories of frontline supervisors, conclusions on the professional effectiveness of teachers would be incomplete. Thus, the objective of this study was to examine the main difference in the professional effectiveness of teachers trained through distance education and teachers trained through regular education, from the standpoint of frontline supervisors of the teachers.

Flowing from the overarching objective, a hypothesis formulated for the study was that, "There is significant difference between the professional effectiveness of teachers trained through distance education and teachers trained through regular education."

Study Methods

A descriptive convergent mixed-methods approach was adopted for this study because the aim of the study requires in-depth narrative and numeric data to be collected and analysed separately and merged in order to adequately address the phenomenon of professional effectiveness of teachers from the standpoint of frontline supervisors (Wisdom & Creswell, 2013; Guetterman, Fetters, & Creswell, 2015). Convergent mixed methods help researchers to present participants' point of view comprehensively by capturing their voices in addition to statistical representations. It is for this reason that the convergent mixed methods design was considered appropriate to expansively examine the difference in professional effectiveness between distance education trained teachers and regular education trained teachers, from the standpoint of frontline supervisors of these teachers. The mix methods design relies on the complementary strength of qualitative and quantitative research designs. The characteristic of flexibility in the design as emphasised by Wisdom and Creswell (2013) became relevant in this study since the content demanded a more flexible approach that would examine both qualitative and quantitative indicators. Perception is highly subjective and should not only be quantified and hence requires qualitative techniques that could adequately address most relevant issues concerning the professional effectiveness of teachers trained through regular and distance education modes. On the other hand, some of the variables under teachers' professional effectiveness are standards and can be measured through quantitative techniques.

According to Best and Khan, as cited in Amadehe (2002), descriptive research concerns itself with conditions and relations that exist. These include practices, attitudes and opinions that are held by research participants. Supporting this assertion, Nassaji (2015) stated that descriptive research involves the study of a phenomenon in its naturalistic characteristics. Thus, an attempt is made to study the phenomenon in its natural setting without any manipulations of variables.

The population for the study was made up of all headteachers and

municipal education officers in one municipality in the Central Region of Ghana. The target population consisted of 98 headteachers and 33 municipal education officers, making a total of 131.Out of this target population, a total sample size of 108 was used for the study. This represents 82 per cent of the population, comprising all the 98 headteachers and 10 municipal education officers (six Circuit Supervisors and four Deputy Directors of Education). The 82 per cent of the population used as the sample size was based on the assertion by Nwana (1992) that if the population is in hundreds, 40 per cent and above could be used as the sample. The Headteachers and Municipal Education officers were chosen because they are the category of supervisors who have regular and consistent interaction with the teachers in their day-to-day activities.

A combination of purposive and census sampling techniques was employed in this study. The Municipal Education Officers were selected purposively because they were deemed "information rich" on supervision issues and could provide in-depth information about the professional performance effectiveness of the teachers. This is based on the submission by Etikan, Musa, and Alkassim (2016) that purposive sampling technique is the deliberate choice of a participant due to the qualities the participant possesses. Additionally, Kumar (2005) stated that the basic consideration in purposive sampling is the judgement of the researcher as to who can provide the most needed information to fulfil the objective of the study. One of the merits of purposive sampling is that it ensures that at least some information from the respondents who are crucial is obtained (Aina, 2002). The census technique was used to select all the eligible headteachers because unlike the Municipal Education Officers where only the Circuit Supervisors (C/S and Deputy Directors (D/Ds) have regular and consistent interactions with the teachers, all Headteachers have regular and consistent interactions with the teachers on the teachers' day-to-day functions. Thus, all the headteachers in the public basic schools were selected as participants of the study.

A questionnaire and semi-structured interview schedule were used in collecting the data. The questionnaire was used to collect data from the headteachers while an interview guide was used to elicit responses from a selected few of the headteachers. While the Headteachers were considered to have indepth knowledge of the specific teachers under them, the Circuit Supervisors and Deputy Directors were considered to have more general information on all teachers in the municipality.

The quantitative data was analysed with descriptive and inferential statistical techniques including: percentages, means and t-test. The study's hypothesis was tested at a 5 per cent level of significance. On individual basis, the respondents rated the two categories of teachers independently on percentage point on the indicators of professional effectiveness. The ratings were analysed on criterion-reference basis; thus, the two categories of teachers were scored independently against professional effectiveness indicators. This implies that each indicator was scored as a percentage for each category of teachers. The Means of all the indicators were also determined and used to run a t-test to establish the overall differences in perceptions across all the indicators of professional effectiveness. This was done with the help of SPSS software. The second subsection dwelt on the qualitative data which was analysed thematically with the help of NVivo software. The qualitative data was analysed thematically to explore emerging themes and existing indicators on the professional effectiveness of the two categories of teachers under consideration in this study.

Findings

This section presents the findings of the study, which are put into two subsections. The first section focuses on quantitative data regarding the perceptions of the frontline supervisors about the differences in professional effectiveness of teachers trained through regular and distance modes of education.

Findings of the Quantitative Data

The quantitative findings involved five indicators of teacher professional effectiveness by which respondents compared teachers trained through regular and distance modes of education. Table 1 presents the collective responses of Headteachers with regard to the professional effectiveness of teachers trained through the two modes of training, namely: regular and distance education.

The results from Table 1 indicate that the assessment was higher for the regular education teachers than the distance education teachers in Instructional Planning Skills (Lesson Plan). The supervisors rated the regular teachers as high as 85.2 per cent as compared to 71.8 per cent for their distance education counterparts. On Teaching Methodology and Delivery,

the rating was 86.8 per cent and 79.1 per cent for the regular and distance education teachers, respectively. This means that the Headteachers perceived the teachers trained through the regular mode comparatively better in their delivery methodologies than the teachers trained through the distance education mode. In terms of Classroom Organisation/Management skills of the two groups of teachers, the respondents rated the regular teachers with 85.1 per cent as against 76.2 per cent for the distance education teachers.

Table 1: Headteachers' Ratings of Distance and Regular Education Teachers' Professional Effectiveness

Table 1: Headteachers' Ratings of Distance and Regular Education Teachers' Professional Effectiveness

Core Areas of Comparison	*Distance Education Teachers (%)*	*Regular Education Teachers (%)*
Instructional Planning Skills (Lesson Plan)	71.8	85.2
Teaching Methodology and Delivery	79.1	86.8
Classroom Organisation/ Management	76.2	85.1
Teachers' Knowledge-Based Attitudes	58.9	88.5
Teachers' Response to Support and Suggestions	66.1	77.8
Mean	70.42	84.68

The supervisors graded distance education teachers quite low when it came to their Knowledge-Based Attitudes (Content knowledge). Indeed, they rated the teachers trained through the distance mode 58.8 per cent, while on the other hand, they rated the teachers trained through the regular education mode 88.5 per cent. Similarly, regular education teachers were considered to be more responsive to support and suggestions from their supervisors than the distance education teachers. The rating was 77.8 per cent versus 66.1 per cent in favour of regular education teachers. On the whole, the mean rating of the regular education teachers was 84.68 per cent, while their counterparts had 70.42 per cent with variability of 4.09 per cent and 8.09 per cent, respectively. A visual comparison indicates that the teachers trained through the regular mode had a higher professional effectiveness rating from their frontline supervisors (Headteachers and

education officers) than the teachers trained through the distance education mode.

Hypothesis

The study tested the null hypothesis that: "There is significant difference between the professional effectiveness of teachers trained through distance education and teachers trained through regular education." at a .05 significance level.

Table 2: Summary Statistics of the T-Test

Statistic	*Value*
T	–3.52
df	8
p-value (2-tailed)	.008
Mean (Regular)	84.68
Mean (Distance)	70.42
Lower Limit (95% CI)	–
Upper Limit (95% CI)	23.61
Level of significance (α) =.05	–4.91

For the test of statistically significant difference, the t-value of –3.52 with an associated p-value of .008 required that the null hypothesis (Ho) of no significant difference should be rejected at a .05 alpha level. Therefore, it can be concluded that, from the perceptions of the frontline supervisors of this study, there was a significant difference between the professional effectiveness of teachers trained through distance education programmes and those trained through regular education programmes. The implication of this result is that regular education teachers were, on the average perceived to be performing better as compared to their colleagues trained through the distance education mode, according to the frontline supervisors.

Findings of the Qualitative Data

The qualitative data collected also explored in-depth the same areas examined with the quantitative data. Thus, Instructional planning skills, Teaching methodology and delivery, Classroom management skills and

content knowledge. However, additional themes also emerged. This section presents the findings of the qualitative data.

Instructional Planning Skills — Lesson Plan Preparation

With regard to the effectiveness of the two groups of teachers, the supervisors indicated that there was a vast difference in the instructional planning skills, especially in the area of lesson notes preparation. For instance, a Circuit Supervisor with nine years' working experience indicated that distance education teachers had challenges in terms of lesson note preparation. He recounted, *"Though some teachers trained through regular education also have problem with lesson note preparation, however, most teachers trained through distance education have a lot of problems"* Similarly, a headteacher with a decade experience also reported that teachers from distance educational institutions had some difficulties in the preparation of scheme of work, "*some of them even did not know what scheme of work was about"* said, a headteacher. Another Circuit Supervisor said, "*most regular education teachers prepare detailed and good lesson notes compared to those teachers trained through distance education mode*". In a similar vein, a Deputy Director in charge of Supervision and Monitoring with 15 years working experience made a defined distinction between these groups of teachers. He said, "*There is a vast difference. Regular education trained teachers are far better than distance education teachers."*

Teaching Methodology and Delivery

The study also sought the difference in performance among the two groups of teachers in their methods of teaching and delivery. It was centred on how they taught and interacted with pupils, used teaching and learning materials and posed questions to pupils in class. The frontline supervisors generally stated that regular education teachers were better in this regard compared to distance education teachers. A circuit supervisor contended that there was a difference between these teachers when it came to classroom delivery. He said, "*the confidence level of distance education teachers was lower than those trained through regular education.*" Similarly, another Circuit Supervisor revealed that in terms of classroom delivery or methodology, distance education teachers lacked a lot compared to regular education

teachers. He indicated that, *"the aspect of teaching methodology depends more on the individual teacher's commitment level. However, teachers from regular education institutions are slightly ahead of teachers from distance education institutions."*

While the general perception of a majority of the frontline supervisors was that regular trained teachers perform better than their distance education counterparts on their methodology, some frontline supervisors rated the two groups of teachers on the same level pegging. Thus, some headteachers and Circuit Supervisors found no marked difference in their methodology and delivery skills. "*For classroom delivery it is a 50–50 affair. Thus, the two groups of teachers are at par. This stems from the fact that a teacher's ability to deliver in the classroom depends on the individual's own intensions, regardless of the training given*," a Circuit Supervisor responded. A headteacher also said, "*there is no significant difference between the two groups of teachers in the area of teaching methodology."*

Classroom Management Skills

A circuit supervisor revealed that there is a gap between the teachers trained through the regular mode and the teachers trained through the distance mode in terms of classroom organisation and management. He stated, "*distance education teachers have challenges in this regard."* A headteacher also indicated that there was a difference in the classroom management strategies between the two groups of teachers. He noted, "*Comparably, regular education teachers do better than distance education teachers when it comes to classroom management due to the fact that distance education teachers did not have much contact with their tutors while regular education teachers had more and continuous contact with their tutors."* According to a Circuit Supervisor who has seven years' experience working with teachers, teachers trained through regular education controlled and managed their classes better than distance education teachers. To support this observation, she said, "*Regular education teachers are taken through thorough and intensive teacher training as against those from distance education. This is evident in the duration and the programme of activities for teaching practice*." On the other hand, an Assistant Director in charge of Finance and Administration said that he did not see any difference in the classroom

management skills particularly in terms of class control and pupils' involvement in lessons between the two categories of the teachers.

Subject Matter Delivery

The level of a teacher's knowledge based on the subject content to be facilitated is equally crucial for effective teaching and learning. In this regard, the supervisors' views were sought about the two categories of teachers. The study participants appeared to show preference for teachers trained through the regular education mode when it comes to subject content delivery. Generally, they indicated that the teachers trained through the regular education mode were relatively more knowledgeable in their subject matter than their colleagues from the distance education mode. For instance, one headteacher said, "*the regular education trained teachers are better than their distance education colleagues in terms of knowledge.*" Another headteacher responded, "*the subject matter or the knowledge-base of distance education teachers is below expectation.* Similarly, a Circuit Supervisor noted, "*in terms of content or knowledge level, regular education teachers are better than distance education teachers.*"

However, there were some of the respondents who were of the view that both categories of teachers had equal level of knowledge. One of the Circuit Supervisors said,

> *Both teachers possess the same level of knowledge and content level. However, distance education teachers lack the exposure to put what they know into practice. Distance education teachers are not given the opportunity to do more teaching practice to enable them have much exposure like their regular education counterparts.*

Another Circuit Supervisor stated, "*For the content and knowledge level of the teachers, I will rate them 50–50. That is, both groups of teachers are at the same level, considering their areas of specialisation or interest.*"

Teachers' Response to Support and Suggestions

This area was aimed at seeking the views of the frontline supervisors on how readily these two categories of teachers take the technical or instructional support offered them. The qualitative data suggests that distance education

trained teachers readily embrace supports and suggestions offered them by their supervisors. The respondents attribute this to the fact that teachers trained through the distance education mode see themselves to be unceasingly learning and hence are always ready to accept suggestions to help them improve.

The headteachers and education officers had these responses to support the above assertion on teachers' response to support and suggestions. One headteacher had this to say, "*teachers from distance education are ready to accept the support offered them unlike those from regular education who feel proud and think that what they have been taught in school is the best.*" A circuit supervisor with over ten years working experience also said, "*those from distance education know they do not know. Thus, they know they are still in the learning process. Most regular education teachers think they have got enough training and that they do not need support.*" Most headteachers and officers made similar comments during the interview session to support their view on how the teachers respond to supports offered them.

The above areas of consideration in connection with the assessment of the teachers' level of effectiveness as in instructional planning skills, teaching methodology, classroom management and content knowledge of the teachers conform with Gurney's (2007) and Hunt's (2009) description of an effective teacher. According to Gurney and Hunt, the effectiveness of a teacher is evident in his or her content and pedagogical knowledge level and how they are applied to facilitate students' learning processes.

Discussions

It was hypothesised that there is no significant difference in the professional effectiveness of teachers trained through distance education and those trained through regular education, from the standpoint of frontline supervisors. It is noteworthy that the two categories of frontline supervisors generally perceive teachers trained through regular education mode to be relatively more effective than their counterparts trained through the distance mode. This is in agreement with Attri's (2012) research findings which indicated that universities and outsiders do not equate the products of distance education with products of traditional educational system in spite of their better achievements in the same examination. The perception of the respondents is, however, in contrast with the research findings by Koomson (1998),

Sam-Tagoe (2000) and Bampo (2008). According to these studies, there is no significant difference in the professional competence between teachers trained by distance and those trained by the regular system. However, on the singular issue of receptiveness to suggestions, the perceptions were mixed; whereas the headteachers' quantitatively elicited perceptions generally favoured teachers trained through the regular mode of education, the municipal officers' perceptions elicited qualitatively favoured teachers trained through distance mode of education. The nuance in this divergence of perceptions may stem from the perceived authority differences between the headteachers and the municipal education officers where the headteachers are seen to have lesser authority than the municipal education officers. In this sense, it is plausible to argue that teachers are likely to be more receptive to suggestions from the municipal education officers than from the headteachers.

The various contributing factors noted to account for the perceived differences in the two categories of teachers regarding professional effectiveness go to support an observation made by the University of Mumbai (2008) about the characteristics of teacher education. It was noted that the crux of the entire process of teacher education lies in its design, structure, organisation and the transactional modes as well as the extent of its appropriateness. Additionally, Mireku-Gyimah (1998) stressed, as a factor for the acceptance of distance education system, that the entry requirements, lecturers, syllabus, course content, examinations and grading system for the distance education system should be the same as the regular educational system.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The effectiveness of teachers is important for quality education delivery for learners at all levels of education including basic schools. Headteachers and officers as frontline supervisors of basic schools in Ghana assess this from several perspectives, including instructional planning skills (lesson plan), teaching methodology and delivery, classroom management skills, teachers' knowledge-based attitudes, and how teachers respond to support and suggestions. Based on these, it was discovered in the current study that the supervisors perceived distance education teachers to be different from regular education teachers with regular education teachers seen to be more professionally effective than the distance education trained teachers. These

perceptions, however, do not suggest that distance education trained teachers are not professionally effective. Indeed, the mean rating of the regular education teachers of 84.68 per cent and 70.42 per cent for distance mode trained teachers suggest that both categories of teachers were rated far above average. Again, the study used norm-referenced criteria and not standard-referenced criteria. Finally, the study was conducted in only one district and that cannot be used as the basis for generalisation for the entire nation.

The aforementioned findings point to the fact that the organisers of distance education programmes are doing their best; however, there is more room for improvement. It is also to be noted that professional effectiveness of teachers is dependent on a number of factors apart from the mode of training. In view of these observations, distance education institutions on one hand and supervisors of basic schools on other, need to do more in order to bridge the perceived gap between the effectiveness level of distance education teachers and that of regular education teachers. The teachers are admonished to be ready to learn and change their attitudes towards the profession to reflect the efforts of their educational institutions and their supervisors at their work places. Teacher professional effectiveness undoubtedly is a collective responsibility of all stakeholders irrespective of the mode of training and therefore, it behooves on all and sundry to contribute their quota. The study suggests that further research is required to validate these perceptions through direct measurement of professional effectiveness and also to identify the variables that account for the differences in the teachers' professional effectiveness.

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A Review of the Multiple Regulatory Regime in Tertiary Education in Ghana

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Abstract

Ghana like many other African countries has had more than one agency regulating its tertiary education sector. Thus, in that multiple regulatory environment, different regulatory institutions were responsible for policy and funding, accreditation and regulation of aspects of vocational and technical education. Consequently, the regulatory environment comprised agencies with overlapping mandates which tertiary education institutions were required to respond to, whether to commence operations or mount new programmes. The challenges in this arrangement included duplication of functions, high cost of education, and in the main, inefficiency and ineffectiveness in the regulation and management of tertiary education. The Education Regulatory Bodies Act, 2020 (Act 1023) was enacted in Ghana as part of reforms to the education sector in 2020. This legislation merged the erstwhile National Council for Tertiary Education and the National Accreditation Board to form the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission, as well as the merger of the Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training and the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations to form the Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training. This paper discusses the state of affairs regarding the multiple regulations of tertiary education in Ghana prior to the mergers and the future of tertiary education regulation in Ghana in the light of reforms in tertiary education regulation and the regulatory practices in selected African countries.

Introduction

Sub-Saharan African countries have established various bodies to regulate tertiary education systems since the mid-1980s (Kasozi, 2014). These regulatory bodies may serve as buffer bodies to obviate direct government control of tertiary education institutions, or charged with policy development and implementation, conflict mediation, performance monitoring, and accountability in tertiary education (Saint, 2014). They coordinate various aspects of the tertiary education system including: "the efficient allocation of funds and other resources; policy and planning for the development of the tertiary sector, often in relation to national development objectives, and the

information and expertise such policy development and planning requires; uniformity across academic programmes and between institutions locally and abroad; and managing the increasingly important relationships between key tertiary education stakeholders (in particular, government, institutions, professions, market and industry) roles" (Bailey, 2015).

Different regulatory models for tertiary education exist in African countries. Most Francophone African countries have supervising government ministries for tertiary education. Nigeria and Uganda have different regulatory bodies for Universities, Colleges of Education and the Polytechnics or Colleges of Technology sub-sectors. In *Namibia*, the Council for Higher Education and the Namibian Qualifications Authority have been established to regulate different aspects of tertiary education. The Human Resource Development Council and the Botswana Qualifications Authority are the two main bodies responsible for the regulation of tertiary education in Botswana.

The regulatory framework of tertiary education in Ghana comprised the National Council for Tertiary Education, the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations and the National Accreditation Board. Thus, Ghana had multiple regulatory regimes for tertiary education. Apart from the above-mentioned statutory tertiary education regulatory bodies, bodies that regulate the professions in Ghana such as the General Legal Council, the Medical and Dental Council, and the Pharmacy Council are also mandated to regulate some aspects of tertiary education.

The foregoing points to the fact that the higher education system in Ghana as elsewhere "was characterised by a multiplicity of regulatory influences that together form its regulatory regime"; thus higher education providers are regulated in ways that may be described as complex and multi-faceted" (Higher Education Commission, 2013). There are several challenges that are inherent in the multiple regulatory regime. There is the tendency for multiple regulatory regimes to have institutions with overlapping regulatory mandates. Complaints regarding encroachment on mandates and "turf protection" among regulatory bodies in a regulatory framework cannot be ruled out (NCTE, 2012). Additionally, the effectiveness of the regulatory regime could be adversely affected if the regulatory bodies fail to cooperate (Blackmur, 2007). That is, if each regulator attempts to optimise in terms of its own goals and fails to take account of interaction effects and necessary trade-off which may undermine sub-optimisation (Blackmur, 2007). This

risk of non-cooperation could be exacerbated by the lack of legislation that prescribes the manner and the areas in which different bodies involved in the regulation of tertiary institutions should cooperate.

A regulatory regime with multiple regulatory requirements may engender lengthy regulatory processes which may impede efforts of providers — public and private — to mount innovative programmes in real time to produce human capital to meet emerging trends in the industry. Industry and society become the ultimate losers from inefficiencies in the production processes resulting from lack of labour with novel skills. Without doubt, multiple regulation raises the cost of tertiary education. These costs may be drawn against the public purse, borne by students or possibly met in part through foregoing investments in the core activities of tertiary education institutions — teaching and learning and research. Higher regulatory costs may have implications for access to tertiary education and opportunity costs. Increases in costs may result in increment in fees by tertiary education institutions which may adversely affect enrollments and ultimately compromise equity (Blackmur, 2007). Besides, increases in public expenditure on tertiary education means that funds would not be available to be expended on basic education and related areas (Blackmur, 2007).

Multiple regulatory regimes with multiple requirements could frustrate the entry of new providers and/or the mounting of new programmes, and thus protect existing providers from competition (CMA, 2015). Cumbersome regulatory processes could frustrate expansion of available programmes; and diminish opportunities for education and training available to students. "Ultimately, students could suffer due to higher prices, less choice or a poorer learning experience that would not have been the case without regulation" (CMA, 2015).

The Objective

The objective of this work is to discuss the overlaps and conflicts in the mandates of the various regulatory bodies that existed in tertiary education in Ghana; assess the main issues and challenges in the current regulatory framework, and develop conclusions informed by experiences in other parts of Africa. It is guided by the following questions:

- *What were the overlaps in the enabling legislations of tertiary education institutions;*

- *How did statutory regulatory bodies collaborate to regulate the tertiary education sector;*
- *How do regulatory bodies collaborate with professional regulatory bodies and tertiary education institutions; and*
- *What are the tertiary education regulatory frameworks in other countries in Africa and what could be learned from them?*

This work is a qualitative analysis of the mandates and practices of institutions charged with the regulation of tertiary education in Ghana. It is hinged on legislative enactments on regulatory bodies and reports produced by statutory regulatory bodies. Discussions were held with the Chairman and members of the National Council for Tertiary Education, the President of the Conference of Heads of Private Universities and the Executive Secretaries, Deputy Executive Secretaries and senior officers of the National Council for Tertiary Education and the National Accreditation Board. Additionally, discussions were held with senior officers of the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations. This work is also informed by the author's observation of the tertiary education sector in Ghana for nearly two decades.

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL CONSIDERATIONS

Rationale of State Regulation of Higher Education

There are several considerations for state regulation of tertiary education. Nations continue to grapple with challenges such as the need to expand coverage of tertiary education, inequities in access, quality outcomes and relevance, and unresponsive governance and management practices (World Bank, 2002). There are also economic considerations. The World Bank (2002) states that "tertiary education exercises a direct influence on national productivity which largely determines living standards and a country's ability to compete in the global economy". Thus, there is a need for institutions to be more relevant and accountable in terms of outputs and outcomes (Newman, 2011). Tertiary education institutions should contribute to the production and dissemination of relevant knowledge and be responsive to the socio-economic challenges facing society. Governments should also promote access of needy students who have demonstrated capacities for advanced learning and address past inequalities (Blackmur, 2007).

The expansion in state subsidies to tertiary institutions has been accompanied by strident calls for accountability. The concept of accountability brings to mind answerability for the use of public funds; and responsiveness to the needs of society. Regulation is thus meant to ensure proper oversight and management of public funds. Kearns (1998), notes that accountability obliges educational institutions to acknowledge a higher public trust, which ultimately is the source of their authority and credibility. It entails the provision of information on performance to stakeholders and the measurement of performance of higher education institutions (Barneston, 1999).

The need to protect the reputation of a higher education system may prompt state regulation of higher education (CMA, 2015; Blackmur, 2007). An institution may engage in activities that diminish its reputation and, the resultant effects would affect the reputation of the entire higher education system and impact negatively on their stakeholders — staff, students, and graduates (Blackmur, 2007). Blackmur (2007), states that when governments regulate matters of higher education, they are, explicitly or implicitly, thinking in terms of standards concerning some or all characteristics of the system (or its components) against which assurance of adequate performance is subsequently sought. In this regard, regulation is to ensure that quality and standards remain high and that the institutions put in place measures to define and sustain high quality and standards.

Regulation Defined

Generally, regulation relates to the laws, directives, and policies developed for the oversight of a particular sector by a governmental authority. Jackson (1997) states that a regulatory regime (in higher education) is based on explicit "rules", that is, principles, formal requirements, procedures, specifications, standards, charters, codes of practice or best practice guidelines and frameworks for external quality review. It is also influenced by implicit "unwritten rules" which are embedded in the accepted norms of behaviour, values, standards, traditions, and conventions in regulation standards for behaviour are set, and decisions on sanctions are taken by arm-length, relatively independent from government and from the whim of the electorate (Jackson, 1997).

Self Regulation, Co-Regulation and External Regulation

Jackson (1997) distinguishes three types of regulation in higher education:

These are institutional self-regulation, external regulation, and collaborative regulation. In the institutional self-regulation approach, the activities and actions of a higher education institution are not subject to external regulatory controls. Regarding external regulation, the principles, rules, expectations, and conditions that define the scope and nature of regulation are determined by a regulatory authority that is independent of the higher education institutions and these requirements must be satisfied for the higher education provider to operate (Jackson, 1997). Finally, Jackson (1997) states that in the mixed or collaborative regulation approach, the principles, rules, expectations, and conditions, which define the scope and nature of regulations are partly imposed and partly determined through processes of negotiations between the various components of the regulatory structure. In collaborative regulation, regulatory bodies representing the state, and tertiary education institutions collaborate in the development and implementation of the regulatory processes.

Single and Multiple Regulatory Bodies

Higher education institutions may be regulated by a single regulator (single regulatory body) or multiple regulatory bodies. There are advantages and disadvantages associated with both mechanisms. A single regulatory body makes for easy cooperation among operational units. In this regard, the decision-making process may be unified and policy implementation is expedited, as the whole process is controlled by one body (NCTE, 2014). Consequently, duplication of functions, "turf wars" and costs associated with multiple regulatory bodies may be avoided. There may be only one channel for advising the government on the development of tertiary education. This may prevent the provision of conflicting advice from several regulatory bodies to Government. However, there is a tendency of the agency to become too large and unwieldy and thus marginalise some of its constituents (NCTE, 2014).

In multiple regulatory environments, the creation of a large unwieldy body that has too many functions to be effective is avoided. Multiple regulatory environments may foster specialisation among different agencies and facilitate effectiveness in the operations of their different areas (NCTE, 2014). However, contradictory regulation may be the result if one or all the characteristics and standards defined are assumed by several agencies (Blackmur, 2007). Each regulator may optimise in terms of its own goals

but such a process may fail to take account of interaction effects and necessary trade-off which may lead to the risk of sub-optimisation (Blackmur, 2007).

TERTIARY EDUCATION REGULATORY BODIES IN AFRICA

There are different models for regulation and supervision of tertiary education in Africa. The higher education systems in most French-speaking countries in Africa are regulated by separate ministries of higher education (Saint *et al*, 2009). These countries have **established** the *Conseil Africain et Malgache pour l'Enseignement Superieur (CAMES) to*, among others, harmonise recognition and equivalence of awards among member nations. CAMES is also responsible for accrediting private universities as well as selected number of professional programmes (Saint, 2009).

CAMES coordinates the higher education and research systems in nineteen countries in Francophone Africa, in order to harmonise higher education and research in Africa. The organisation (CAMES) accredits bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees of higher education institutions and evaluates the professor-researchers of the member countries (www.haununiversity.org/en/CAMES/shtml).

In Nigeria, universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education are regulated by the National Universities Commission (NUC), the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) and the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), respectively. The NUC is responsible for granting approval for the establishment of universities and the mounting of all programmes in Nigerian universities. The Commission oversees quality assurance regarding all academic programmes offered in Nigerian universities (Government of Nigeria, 1993).

The NCCE is responsible for the accreditation of all Colleges of Education in Nigeria, as well as the certification of the products of the Colleges and other awards with prior approval from the Minister of Education (Government of Nigeria, 1993). **The Commission advises the Federal Government of Nigeria on all aspects of teacher education** offered in Colleges of Education.

The NBTE regulates non-university technical and vocational education including polytechnics in Nigeria. The Board advises the Federal Government of Nigeria on all aspects of technical and vocational education outside the universities. The Commission has remit for national policy on technical and

vocational education; accreditation of programmes and the establishment and maintenance of minimum standards in polytechnics and colleges of technology (Government of Nigeria, 1993).

In Uganda, the National Council for Higher Education, the Department of Teacher Education and the Business, Technical, Vocational Education and Training (BTVET) are responsible for regulation and supervision of tertiary education in Uganda. The National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) is responsible for regulating higher (universities) education institutions. The Council advises the government on policy and other matters relating to university education. NCHE's core functions include the establishment and accreditation of public and private institutions of higher education; ensuring minimum standards for courses of study and the equivalence of degrees, diplomas and certificates awarded by public and private institutions (Government of Uganda, 2006). The Council is also responsible for setting and coordinating national standards for admission of students to higher education institutions (Government of Uganda, 2006). The Department of Teacher Education has oversight for teacher education colleges. The DTE articulates the policies, processes appointments and supervises the administration of Colleges and teacher professional development programmes. The BTVET is responsible for regulating technical tertiary institutions — Health training institutions, colleges of commerce, and technical colleges (Government of Uganda, 2008).

In Namibia, the Minister for Education is responsible for determining the national policy on higher education and the co-ordination and supervision of the higher education system. The Council for Higher Education and the Namibian Qualifications Authority (NQA) are responsible for some aspects of tertiary education. The functions of the NCHE are to accredit, with the concurrence of the NQA, programmes of higher education provided at higher education institutions; and quality monitoring in higher education institutions, among others (Government of Namibia, 1996). The Council advises the Minister of Education on the structure of the higher education system; quality promotion and quality assurance and the allocation of public funds to higher education institutions (Government of Namibia, 2008).

The Namibian Qualifications Authority is responsible for accrediting entities providing education and courses of instruction or training. The Authority has the remit for setting the national qualifications framework; and occupational standards for positions in any career structure. The authority is also responsible for the setting of curriculum standards for achieving the

occupational standards in a given career structure (Government of Namibia, 2008).

The Federal Ministry of Education is mandated to supervise and regulate the higher education sector in Ethiopia — public and private. Other bodies that have remit for tertiary education are the Education Relevance and Quality Agency and the Higher Education Strategy Centre (Government of Ethiopia, 2019). The Ministry of education's overwhelming mandate in higher education includes ensuring the implementation of the national policy and strategy on higher education; and approving and ensuring the implementation of strategic plans of public institutions. The Minister is responsible for determining the criteria and procedures for public funding of institutions. The Minister has remit for determining the requirements for Bachelor, Master, Medical Specialty, and Doctoral programmes (Government of Ethiopia, 2019). The Minister is also responsible for the preparation and delivery of the curricula of higher education. The Minister is mandated to specify the minimum national quality standards in higher education and to provide technical support for internal quality assurance and enhancement systems of institutions (Government of Ethiopia, 2019).

The Higher Education Strategy Centre is mandated to prepare national strategies and plans for the development of higher education and institutions and research (Government of Ethiopia, 2019). The centre is also expected to ensure that institution level planning and strategy are in line with the national development plans and higher education plan and strategy. The centre has the remit to develop proposals on block grant budget allocations to individual public institutions, and monitor the implementation of the same (Government of Ethiopia, 2019). The centre is responsible for collecting, publishing and disseminating data on higher education. It is also responsible for advising the Minister of Education on ways to ensure efficient higher education governance, leadership and management (Government of Ethiopia, 2019).

The responsibility of the Education Relevance and Quality Agency includes accreditation, quality assurance of local and foreign institutions and equivalence of qualifications in higher education. The Agency advises the Minister of Education on mergers, division, closure or change of names of institutions (Government of Ethiopia, 2019).

The Human Resource Development Council and the Botswana Qualifications Authority are the two main bodies responsible for the regulation of tertiary education in Botswana. The Human Resource Development Council is an independent statutory body responsible for national human

resource development in Botswana. The Council has planning, coordination, implementation, advisory and funding responsibilities. It is (the Council) mandated to supervise and coordinate the implementation of the National Human Resource Strategy and ensure a link between the different levels of education, training and skills development (Government of Botswana, 2013). Additionally, the Council is mandated to plan and advise on tertiary education financing and workplace learning; co-ordinate, promote and support tertiary education-industry link in research and innovation activities; and develop strategies for students' internships and skills development. The Council is also mandated to promote the establishment, coordination and approval of institutional plans for public and private institutions and post implementation monitoring and evaluation with specific reference to research and innovation and institutional capacity building, among others (Government of Botswana, 2013).

The Botswana Qualifications Authority is mandated to provide for and maintain a national credit and qualifications framework and to co-ordinate the education, training and skills development; and quality assurance system (Government of Botswana, 2013). The Authority is responsible for all qualifications, from early childhood to tertiary level. The authority has the remit for the registration and accreditation of education and training providers, learning programmes, assessors, awarding bodies and moderators' development (Government of Botswana, 2013). It is responsible for developing and reviewing quality standards, and ensuring compliance through a monitoring and evaluation system. The authority's wide ranging powers include the designing of qualifications and curricula for general and tertiary education, as well as the setting of criteria for the development of national education and training quality and inspection standards development (Government of Botswana, 2013).

EVOLUTION OF EXTERNAL REGULATION IN TERTIARY EDUCATION IN GHANA

Two events partly account for the multiple regulatory framework for tertiary education in Ghana. One, in the late 1980s, the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) Government initiated reforms to the tertiary education sector with the establishment of two Committees (The University Rationalisation Committee and the Polytechnic Study Committee) to make recommendations for reforms to the tertiary education system. After the two Committees had presented their reports, the Government published a

White Paper on the Reforms to Tertiary Education System in 1990, which provided for the establishment of an Education Commission "to advise Government on the formulation of policies on the totality of the national education system and be available to tertiary institutions for consultation and advice, and make representation to the government through the Ministry of Education on education as, it sees fit". The Commission was also expected to maintain a continuous dialogue with the Government, tertiary institutions, and the private sector (GoG, 1990).

The White Paper also provides for the establishment of the following bodies:

- Joint Admission and Matriculation Board
- Board for Accreditation
- Board for Professional and Technical Examinations; and
- National Teaching Council

The other event was the promulgation of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana which provides for the appointment of a Commission for tertiary education. Article 70(1)(d)(iv) of the Constitution of Ghana states that: "The President shall, acting in consultation with the Council of State appoint a National Council for Higher Education howsoever described". However, in the early 1990s, three bodies were established to regulate the tertiary education sub-sector. The National Council for Tertiary Education in Ghana was established by the NCTE Act, 1993 (Act 454). The National Accreditation Board Law (PNDCL 317), was promulgated in 1993 whilst the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations was established by the NABPTEX Act, 1994 (Act 492).

Apart from the above-named regulatory bodies, the Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training was established in 2006 by the COTVET Act, 2006 (Act 718), to co-ordinate and oversee all aspects of technical and vocational education and training. Additionally, legislations have been enacted to empower statutory bodies such as the Medical and Dental Council, the Engineering Council, Pharmacy Council, and the General Legal Council to regulate aspects of tertiary education.

MANDATES OF TERTIARY EDUCATION REGULATORY BODIES

In this section, the mandates of different bodies with regulatory functions in tertiary education in Ghana are discussed. These bodies are statutory tertiary

education regulatory bodies — The National Council for Tertiary Education, the National Accreditation Board, the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations, and the Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training. And statutory regulatory bodies of selected professions — The Engineering Council, the Medical and Dental Council and the General Legal Council.

STATUTORY TERTIARY EDUCATION REGULATORY BODIES

The National Council for Tertiary Education

The National Council for Tertiary Education Act, 1993 (Act 454) mandated the NCTE to oversee the proper administration of institutions of tertiary education. The Council was expected to advise the Minister of Education on the development of tertiary education and the financial needs of the institutions designated as tertiary institutions. In this regard, the Council was expected to recommend to the Minister for the preparation of the annual national education budget: block allocations of funds towards running costs; and grants towards the capital expenditure of each institution of tertiary education, indicating how the allocations are to be disbursed (GoG, 1993).

The Council was also expected to recommend national standards and norms, including standards and norms on staff, costs, accommodation, and time utilisation, for the approval of the Minister and to monitor the implementation of any approved national standards and norms by the institutions (GoG, 1993). Additionally, the Council was mandated to publish information on developments in tertiary education; and to collect and submit to the Minister of Education annual financial reports of tertiary education institutions (GoG, 1993).

The National Accreditation Board

The National Accreditation Board was responsible for determining the programmes and requirements for the proper operation of an institution and the maintenance of acceptable levels of academic or professional standards in the institution in consultation with that institution (GoG, 2007). The Board was responsible for determining the equivalences of diplomas, certificates and other qualifications awarded by institutions in the country or elsewhere. It was expected to publish the list of accredited public and private institutions and programmes at the beginning of each calendar year; and

advise the President on the grant of a Charter to a private tertiary institution (GoG, 2007).

Legislative Instrument 1984 (LI 1984) mandated the Board to prepare and publish in the gazette standards to govern the performance, operation and general conduct of institutions: These standards included: The minimum entry requirements for admission to any certificate, diploma or degree programme being or to be offered by the institution; the minimum number and duration of programmes at the certificate, diploma or degree levels that ought to be offered; and the acceptable student-staff ratio for effective teaching and learning (GoG, 2010).

The Board was also mandated to publish standards of proficiency assessed in terms of content and contact hours which students are expected to attain in respect of a certificate, diploma or degree; the level of academic training required of teaching staff of the institution at the certificate, diploma or degree level; detailed specifications on space requirements and relevant services for each class and for the absolute number of students expected to be enrolled in, or activity to be carried out in the institution (GoG, 2010).

The National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations

The National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations, established by Act 492, was responsible for providing administrative and structural facilities and expertise for the organisation and conduct of professional and technician examinations. It was mandated to, in consultation with the relevant polytechnics and professional institutions, conduct examinations and award national certificates and diplomas based on the result of the examination (GoG, 1994).

The Board was also mandated to review syllabus for general curriculum enrichment; appoint examiners and moderators and determine methods for the proper conduct of examinations, and make regulations to govern its examinations and awards, devise a scheme for testing skills for competence, and testing aptitude (GoG, 1994).

The Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training

The Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training was established by Act 718. The Council was mandated to advise Government on all matters related to the management and improvement of the technical

and vocational education and training system and formulate national policies for skills development across the broad spectrum of pre-tertiary and tertiary education, formal, informal and non-formal.

The Council was responsible for coordinating, harmonising, and supervising the activities of private and public providers of technical and vocational education and training, including the informal sector. The Council was also expected to rationalise the assessment and certification system in technical and vocational education and training, and maintain a national database on technical, vocational education and training.

Additionally, the Council was mandated to facilitate collaboration between training providers and industry and with international agencies and development partners and source funding to support technical and vocational education and training activities.

STATUTORY REGULATORY BODIES OF SELECTED PROFESSIONS

The Engineering Council

The Engineering Council Act, 2011(Act 819) mandates the Council to register engineering educational units and programmes, determine the content of engineering programmes, and undertake inspection visits to engineering departments of educational units. Section 24 of Act 819 states that "an engineering educational unit of an institution shall not offer engineering education or hold itself out as a unit that offers engineering education unless the unit has satisfied requirements and standards prescribed by the Council and approved by the National Accreditation Board". Additionally, section 26(2)(a) of the Engineering Council Act provides that "the Council shall determine the minimum content of engineering education programmes required for the initial registration of engineering practitioners".

In furtherance of its objectives, the Council is expected to collaborate with the National Accreditation Board and other relevant bodies to ensure that the minimum educational requirements are satisfied (GoG, 2011).

The Medical and Dental Council

Sections 26 and 27 of the Health Professions Regulatory Act, 2013 (Act 857) provides that the Medical and Dental Council is to "secure in the public interest the highest standards in the training and practice of medicine

and dentistry". The Council is mandated to assess the facilities and contents of programmes for the training of doctors and dentists, and physician assistants in training institutions. The Council is also mandated to ensure that the pre-registration training of newly qualified doctors and dentists and physician assistants in accredited training institutions meets the required standards.

The General Legal Council

Sections 13 and 14 of the Legal Profession Act,1960 (Act 32) (as amended) provides that the General Legal Council "may, by legislative instrument, with the approval of the Minister make regulations concerning all matters connected with legal education and, in particular, concerning the conduct of examinations, among others". The Act also provides that it shall be the duty of the General Legal Council to make arrangements for Establishing a system of legal education in Ghana; selection of the subjects in which those seeking to qualify as lawyers are to be examined, and the establishment of courses of instruction for students.

ISSUES IN MULTIPLE REGULATION OF TERTIARY EDUCATION IN GHANA

Overlaps in the Enabling Legislations of Tertiary Education Institutions

The National Council for Tertiary Education Act, 1993 (Act 454) mandated the Council to advise the Minister of Education on the development of institutions of tertiary education. However, the NCTE was not the sole body mandated to advise the Government on tertiary education. The Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training was also mandated by its enabling Act to advise the Government on all matters related to the formulation of policies across pre-tertiary and tertiary education. Additionally, the National Accreditation Board was mandated to advise the President on the grant of Charter to private tertiary institutions.

Another issue was the body responsible for the development of standards and norms. The NCTE was mandated by the National Council for Tertiary Education Act, 1993 (Act 454) to recommend for the approval of the Minister of Education standards and norms on staff, costs, accommodation, and time utilisation for the approval by the Minister of

Table 1: Summary of Mandates and Areas of Interest of External Regulatory Bodies

Regulatory Bodies	*Mandates*	*Areas of Interest*
NCTE	Advising the Minister of Education on development of tertiary education. Development of standards and norms. Financing of tertiary education. Publication of information on tertiary education.	Development of institutions of higher education. Efficiency and economy in the management of higher education. Relevance of tertiary education.
NAB	Accreditation of tertiary education institutions. Determining equivalences of awards. Development of standards. Advise on provision of charter to private institutions.	Quality tertiary education.
NABPTEX	Conduct of professional and technician examinations. Award of certificates and diplomas.Review syllabuses for general curriculum enrichment.	Acquisition of skill competences by professionals and technicians.
COTVET	Advising Government on development of vocational and technical education.Coordinating, harmonizing, and supervising vocational and technical education. Assessment and certification in vocational and technical education.	Acquisition of skill competences by professionals and technicians.Development and application of competency-based assessment and evaluation.
Professions Regulatory Bodies	Registration of institutions. Determination of the content of programmes. Development of standards.Quality assessments.	Relevant training for entry to a profession. Assurance of competence of persons wishing to practise a profession.

Education. Thus, the NCTE has developed standards on costs, student/teacher ratios, and accommodation. The Council has also developed minimum entry requirements for admission to tertiary education institutions.

The National Accreditation Board was also mandated by the Legislative Instrument 1984 to prepare and publish in a gazette, standards to govern the performance, operation, and general conduct of tertiary institutions. These standards included the acceptable student-staff ratio for effective teaching and learning; the standards of proficiency assessed in terms of content and contact hours which students are expected to attain in respect of a certificate, diploma, or degree levels and the minimum entry requirements for admission to tertiary education institutions. Apart from the NCTE and NAB, the enabling legislation of public universities and certain professional bodies empower them to regulate the admission of students (GoG, 2010; GoG, 1960). This means multiple regulatory bodies were mandated to provide standards for the regulation of tertiary education.

The National Accreditation Board was responsible for accrediting both private and public institutions and their programmes. However, the NCTE came up with an administrative process whereby public institutions had to seek approval for their new programmes before they proceeded to the NAB for programme accreditation. This process was to ensure that the proposed programme was within the mandate of the institution and national development objectives, and that public funds should be expended on the programme by the state.

The mandate to accredit institutions and programmes was not limited to the National Accreditation Board only. Some professional regulatory bodies have been mandated to accredit institutions and programmes. The Engineering Council Act, 2011 (Act 819) mandates the Engineering Council to register engineering educational units and programmes; determine the content of engineering programmes and undertake inspection visits to engineering departments of educational units. The Legal Professions Act,1960 (as amended) provides that only graduates of approved universities will be enrolled as lawyers. Thus, a person will not be enrolled as a lawyer unless he/she is a holder of a degree from a university approved by the General Legal Council. Additionally, section 3 of the Allied Health Professions Council Act, 2013 (Act 857), mandates the Council to ensure that the education and training of allied health practitioners and other health care providers are carried out at approved institutions.

The National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations was responsible for the conduct of examinations and award of National Certificates, Diplomas and Higher National Diplomas. However, the COTVET was also mandated to rationalise the assessment and certification system in technical and vocational education and training.

Collaboration Among Statutory Regulatory Bodies

Collaboration among regulatory bodies is necessary to foster the optimisation of the objectives and functions of them to achieve effective regulation of tertiary education (Blackmur, 2007). However, the kind of relationship the statutory tertiary education regulatory bodies should have with other bodies that have oversight over aspects of tertiary education had not been defined in the enabling Acts of the statutory tertiary education regulatory bodies - NCTE, NAB, NABPTEX, and COTVET. Additionally, there was no indication in the enabling Acts of the statutory regulatory bodies regarding the kind of relationship they should have had among themselves. The National Accreditation Board Law (PNDCL 317) mandated the NAB to provide the NCTE with its annual reports. But this mandatory reporting relationship between the NCTE and the NAB was removed when the National Accreditation Board Law, 1993 (PNDC Law 317) was replaced with the National Accreditation Board Act, 744 in 2007.

The relationship between NCTE and the NAB was tenuous over the years. Indeed, there were instances where personnel of NCTE and NAB leveled complaints about the over-reaching of mandates and lethargy against each other. There were complaints that NCTE saw itself as a body with oversight authority over the other regulatory bodies. NCTE (2012) reported that there were situations where the NAB and NCTE found themselves in role conflict and role ambiguity. The officers of NAB had again complained that there were times when NCTE failed to provide policies to guide the tertiary education sector. Thus, the NAB took upon itself to issue administrative directives in the absence of clear policy guidelines from the NCTE and such actions had been interpreted as NAB overreaching its mandate.

These complaints by NAB seemed to have been affirmed by NCTE (2012) which stated that "we find that deterioration in the relationship between NCTE and NAB is a result of lack of pro-activeness on the part of NCTE within its constitutional mandate…as a result, NAB appears to be playing roles that NCTE should have taken up". Additionally, officers of

NAB claimed that there were instances where programmes initially approved by the NCTE were not submitted to the NAB for accreditation. And NAB views that as direct sabotage of its functions by NCTE (NCTE, 2012). There had been issues bordering on the interpersonal relationship among the leaders of the two institutions which hampered collaboration among the two institutions. The NCTE (2012) stated that "we can confirm that the current situation of uneasy co-existence is the result of past personal relationship between the NAB and the NCTE".

The NCTE did affirm that it derived its pre-eminent position in the regulation of tertiary education from Article 70(1)(v)(d)(iv) of the Constitution of Ghana. And as per the NCTE Act, 1993 (Act 454), the Council was the primary advisor on the development of tertiary education to the Government. The Council was also responsible for the coordination of the budget of the tertiary education sector and defending the same before the Education Committee of Parliament.

Relationship Between Regulatory Bodies and Tertiary Education Institutions

The National Accreditation Board accredited both private and public tertiary education institutions. The NABPTEX conducted examinations towards the award of Higher National Diplomas and Diplomas for both public and private tertiary education institutions.

The National Council for Tertiary Education's (NCTE) advisory mandate covered all aspects and sub-sectors of tertiary education, including public and private tertiary education institutions. The Council was mandated to publish information on tertiary education in Ghana. In this regard, it was empowered to collect information on all tertiary education institutions (public and private).

The NCTE was expected to monitor the implementation of policies approved by the Minister of Education. Essentially, the Council was a conduit by which tertiary education and public administration and financial management policies and guidelines were transmitted to tertiary education institutions. The Council was expected to monitor the implementation of approved tertiary education policies and report on the implementation of the same to the Minister of Education and stakeholders. NCTE's policy implementation activities in tertiary education were based on the delegated authority of the Minister of Education.

The enabling Act of the National Council for Tertiary Education mandated the Council to collect annual accounts of public tertiary education institutions and submit the same to the Minister of Education with comments. The Council was also mandated to advise governing councils of tertiary education institutions on the application for and acceptance of external assistance per government policy. The NCTE was expected to recommend and monitor the implementation of standards and norms in tertiary education. However, the Council did not have corresponding powers to take any specified actions against the institutions for non-compliance with its norms (Chirwa, 2013).

The Council's relationship with the private sector was not defined in its enabling Act. This had given the impression that the Council had no authority over the private sector (NCTE, 2014).

Relationship Between Tertiary Education Regulatory Bodies and Professions Regulatory Bodies

Professions regulatory bodies are mandated to license practitioners in their professional domains; they are required by their enabling Acts to approve the establishment of institutions that offer education and training in the subject within their remits and monitor the same to ensure that trainees are offered standard educational experience. Statutory tertiary education regulatory bodies are mandated to accredit institutions and programmes that are adjudged to have met predetermined minimal criteria required for education and training that would lead to the award of qualifications. However, discussions with respondents from the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations and the National Accreditation Board revealed mixed results regarding collaboration with professions regulatory bodies and statutory tertiary education regulatory bodies.

Respondents from NAB and NABPTEX emphasised the necessity for the two organisations to collaborate with professions regulatory bodies to facilitate the training of professionals to meet standards required by the regulators of the professions. A respondent from NABPTEX stated that the Board works with professions regulatory bodies to define competences in the various subject areas to facilitate the development of curricula; the Board also works with experts of professions regulatory bodies to moderate questions for Higher National Diploma examinations.

The National Accreditation Board worked with experts provided by professions regulatory bodies to assess institutions and programmes for accreditation and continuously to monitor the quality of programmes in tertiary education institutions. However, a respondent from the National Accreditation Board reported that there were disagreements with an influential regulatory body of a profession (the council of a professional body) and the Board regarding accreditation of institutions and programmes. The Council did not agree to joint assessment of programmes for concurrent approval and accreditation by itself and the Board. Indeed, it was reported that a situation arose where the Council failed to approve the mounting of a programme which has been accredited by the Board. The Board has therefore decided that it would accredit programmes in the subject area of the Council only after the programme has been approved by that Council, to forestall disagreements on accreditation with that particular body.

The NCTE did not work directly with professional bodies; the Council in approving new programmes for mounting in public institutions demanded that the institution demonstrated that it had secured the collaboration of the relevant professional body to mount the new programme.

THE FUTURE OF TERTIARY EDUCATION REGULATION IN GHANA

To address the challenges in the regulation of tertiary education, the Education Regulatory Bodies Act, 2020 (Act 1023) has been enacted to merge the National Council for Tertiary Education and the National Accreditation Board to form the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC). Additionally, the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations and the Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training have been merged to form the Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (CTVET). The purpose of the enactment is to harmonise the consolidated bodies to promote greater efficiency in tertiary education (dailyguidenetwork.com/education-bodies-bill-passed).

The object of the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission is to promote the efficient and effective administration and accreditation of tertiary education institutions; and promote the production of appropriate human capital for the national economy, among others. The Commission is expected to perform general, advisory, coordinating, regulatory and accreditation functions (Government of Ghana, 2020).

Act 1023 provides that the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission shall jointly accredit technical and vocational education and training programmes and institutions at the tertiary level with the Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training; and jointly accredit professional programmes and institutions at the tertiary level with the relevant regulatory body (Government of Ghana, 2020). The Ghana Tertiary Education Commission shall liaise with the Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training and other education regulatory bodies particularly in the case of tertiary education in the performance of their functions (Government of Ghana, 2020).

The Education Regulatory Bodies Act, 2020, provides that, "*The Commission shall take appropriate actions including sanctions against public and private tertiary education institutions which act contrary to the norms and standards set by the Commission and the terms and conditions under which accreditation has been granted* ".

The Education Regulatory Bodies Act 2020 (Act 1023) (GoG, 2020) makes the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission the pre-eminent regulatory body in tertiary education. Thus, Act 1023 provides that, "*despite the provisions of any other law, the recognition, licensing, approval or accreditation of any academic programme including postgraduate degrees and diplomas and other academic degrees offered at a tertiary education institution shall be the exclusive mandate of the Commission to be exercised in accordance with this Act to the exclusion of any other person or body"* (GoG, 2020).

The Ghana Tertiary Education Commission is mandated to sanction tertiary education institutions for non-adherence to the Commissions norms. Section 5 of Act 1023 states that "*the Commission shall take appropriate actions including sanctions against public and private tertiary education institutions which act contrary to the norms and standards set by the Commission and the terms and conditions under which accreditation has been granted"* (GoG, 2020).

Despite the pre-eminent position of the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission in the regulation of the tertiary education, Act 1023 requires the Commission to cooperate with regulatory bodies of the professions to accredit professional programmes. Indeed, Act 1023 requires the Commission to consult the relevant professional bodies empowered to approve or accredit courses offered at a tertiary education institution, to which the programme relates. Further, to deepen cooperation with the

relevant professional bodies, the Act 1023 requires the Commission to engage professional bodies and associations to carry out inspection of the institution on behalf of the Commission. Act 1023 also requires the Commission to engage the Auditor-General with regards to financial management in tertiary education institutions.

The Education Regulatory Bodies Act , 2020 (Act 1023) (GoG, 2020) also merges the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations and the Council for Technical and Vocational Education to form the Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training. The object of the Commission is *to regulate, promote and administer technical and vocational education and training for transformation and innovation for sustainable development* (Government of Ghana, 2020). The Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training has been given broad powers to formulate policies and regulate the vocational and technical education sector. The Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training has the remit to "formulate national policies for skills development across the broad spectrum of pre-tertiary and tertiary education, formal, informal and alternative education; and co-ordinate, harmonise and supervise the activities of public and private providers of technical and vocational education and training, including the informal sector" (Government of Ghana, 2020). Act 1023 empowers the Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training to accredit programmes, institutions, centres, facilitators, assessors and verifiers at the formal, informal, non-formal, public, private and pre-tertiary technical and vocational education and training institutions to ensure quality delivery.

Act 1023 mandates the Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training to collaborate with the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission and other relevant bodies. Indeed, the Education Regulatory Bodies Act, 2020, provides that the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission and the Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training shall jointly accredit technical and vocational education and training programmes and institutions at the tertiary level.

Conclusion

In this work, the overlaps and conflicts in the mandates of regulatory bodies of tertiary education in Ghana as well as the manner by which statutory tertiary education regulatory bodies work with regulatory bodies of the

professions in regulating tertiary education and the challenges therefrom are discussed. Additionally, we assessed the regulation and coordination of tertiary education in five African countries — Namibia, Ethiopia, Botwana, Nigerian, Uganda and Francophone countries. Three different regulatory models exist in tertiary/higher education in the African countries studied in this report. These are the Francophone Africa Model, the Sub-sector Rgulatory Bodies Model and Dual Regulatory Bodies Model.

The Francophone Africa Model — In Francophone Africa, higher education is regulated by a Government ministry for higher/tertiary education. The CAMES has been established by these coountries for accreditation of private institutions and the harmonisation and equivalence of qualifications, among others. The existence of CAMES makes for cooperation in higher education among Francophone countries in Africa.

Sub-Sector Regulatory Bodies Model — Nigeria and Uganda have separate bodies for the regulation of the Universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education. Such separate sub-sector regulatory bodies may promote specialisation in the oversight of their mandated areas. However, the likelihood of "turf protection" and higher costs in such an arrangement cannot be ruled out.

Dual Regulatory Bodies Model — Namibia, Botswana and Ethiopia have two bodies with remit for coordination and regulation of higher education. One body is responsible for advising the Government on the development of higher education as well as the planning and coordination of the tertiary education system. The other body is responsible for accreditation and quality assurance. The role of the Minister of Education in the supervision of higher education may be pronounced in Namibia, Botswana and Ethiopia than the other countries assessed in this work.

The 1992 Constitution of Ghana envisions a unitary regulatory body for tertiary education; however, many other bodies were established to regulate different aspects of tertiary education without a point of coordination thus engendering some overlaps and increasing the possibility of conflicts (NCTE, 2014).

The NCTE Act, 1993 (Act 454) established the NCTE as the body referred to in the Constitution in article 71(1)(d)(i), and charged with responsibilities for advising the Minister of Education on the development of institutions of tertiary education. However, the establishment of the National Accreditation Board, the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations, the Council for Technical and Vocational Education

and Training, and other bodies that were given separate legal existence have resulted in the institutionalisation of a multiple regulatory regime in Ghana leading to overlaps and conflicts in the regulatory framework (NCTE, 2014).

The NCTE was not the only body mandated to advise the Government on tertiary education. The Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training was mandated by Act 718 to advise the Government on all aspects of vocational and technical education. Under section 2(1)(d) (NAB Act, 2007 (Act 744) the responsibility of advising the President on the granting of charters to qualified private institutions was assigned to the NAB. Although the original NAB Law, 1993, PNDC Law 317 did not empower the NAB to advise the President on the granting of charters to institutions, this brought to the fore the possibility of multiple organisations giving conflicting advice to the Government on issues affecting tertiary education.

The kind of relationship that should exist among regulatory bodies was not clearly defined. (NCTE, 2012) stated that there is an absence of information flow across the three supervisory bodies — NCTE, NAB, and NABPTEX. Section 14 of the NAB Law, 1993, PNDC Law 317 required NAB to submit annual reports on its activities to NCTE, thereby ensuring a reporting line between the two agencies. However, this provision was dropped in the NAB Act, 2007 (Act 744). This action created a communication gap that resulted in the two bodies working in isolation of one another (NCTE, 2014).

Collaboration among statutory tertiary education regulatory bodies and professional regulatory bodies is necessary to foster education and training of professionals whose skills meet professional standards. However, it has been revealed that the regulatory bodies have not always cooperated to ensure quality outcomes in tertiary education as far as professional education and training is concerned. This state of affairs results from the fact that the relationship that should exist between the regulatory bodies is not defined in their enabling Acts. And, this often engendered disagreements on mandates. Multiple regulation could have adverse effects on tertiary education if regulators fail to cooperate in exercising their mandates. Regulatory costs are bound to increase if regulatory bodies fail to optimise their objectives (Blackmur, 2007). Duplication of functional units and operational objectives with its attendant cost to the higher education subsector may be the result.

Tertiary Education Institutions are compelled to respond to regulatory

requirements of multiple regulatory bodies. For instance, the dual approval process for new programmes which were carried out by the NCTE and NAB delayed the mounting of new programmes by public institutions and affected their (public institutions) competitiveness as far as the mounting of new programmes was concerned. The delays were exacerbated if graduates will require licensing to practise, in that situation, the institution was required to respond to the requirements of the profession's regulatory Council.

NCTE's preliminary assessment of new programmes mounted by public tertiary education institutions could take a year to complete. And that was a drawback on the competitiveness of public tertiary education institutions as far as the development of new demand-driven programmes were concerned. The effectiveness of higher education was therefore inhibited on the account of regulatory measures instituted by regulatory bodies.

The development and mounting of HND programmes was regulated by three bodies — NCTE, NAB, and NABPTEX. Section 4(1)(b) of the Technical Universities Act, 2016 (Act 922) prescribes a three-stage process for accreditation of Higher National Diploma programmes for public institutions. Technical Universities that intend to mount new HND programmes must first seek approval from NCTE; curriculum development and arrangement for examinations were supervised by the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations whilst accreditation fell under the remit of the NAB. Another wassue is the duplication of operational activities among the statutory regulatory bodies. Both NCTE and NAB had units for data collection and analysis and on an annual basis, both organisations used almost the same information from the same institutions. The duplication of operational activities of the NCTE and the NAB undoubtedly exacerbated the cost of regulation of higher education.

In view of the challenges in the multiple regulatory regime in Ghana, the Government of Ghana initiated reforms to merge the National Council for Tertiary Education and the National Accreditation Board to form the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission, and put together the National Board for Professional and Technician Examinations and the Council for Vocational and Technical Education to form the Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training with the passage of the Education Regulatory Bodies Act, 2020 (Act 1023) by Parliament.

The Education Regulatory Bodies Act, 2020 (Act 1023) establishes the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission as the pre-eminent regulatory

body in tertiary education. Thus, it has primacy in decisions regarding issues in the regulation of tertiary education. It is expected that the reforms would promote effective supervision and foster cooperation in tertiary education. In this regard, the Act 1023 provides that the Commission shall liaise with the Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training and other education regulatory bodies particularly in the case of tertiary education in the performance of functions. The Commission is also empowered to proffer sanctions against tertiary education institutions which act contrary to the norms and standards set by the Commission.

Given the above, it seems the reforms have rationalised the regulatory framework to potentially improve the effectiveness in the supervision of tertiary education. However, it remains to be seen how the managers of the reformed institutions would operate the harmonised and the consolidated bodies to promote greater efficiency in tertiary education.

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Gender Dynamics in University Classrooms in Ghana: The Academic, Social and Psychological Effect on the Quality of Student Learning

MAAME AFUA NKRUMAH

Abstract

The aim of this study was to investigate how gender dynamics in university classrooms affect the quality of students' learning experiences academically, socially and psychologically. The study was informed by the perception that gender biases are perpetuated in university classrooms. A case study approach involving 553 students randomly selected from four faculties of a University in Ghana was taken given that, the context of institutions differs. The quantitative data collected using a semi-structured questionnaire was analysed using descriptive and correlation analysis aided by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The qualitative data on the other hand was analysed using thematic analysis. The study showed that gender biases were often exhibited in areas such as classroom participation, lecturer-student relationships, discipline and assessment. Key academic, psychological and social effects identified included students' inability to answer questions in class, loss of self-esteem, inferiority, shyness, timidity, feelings of exclusion and nervousness. The study is expected to help educators and stakeholders alike to better understand the gender dynamics present in tertiary classrooms so as to design and implement instructional interventions that mitigate such, and improve the quality of students' learning experience.

Introduction

The classroom climate or environment is the social, emotional and the physical aspects of the classroom or the "invisible hand" in the classroom (Bierman, 2011). In fact, previous studies have argued that lecturers affect student' learning and behaviour as they interact with them in the classroom based on gender, race, ethnicity, class, nationality, disability etc. The behaviour of lecturers in the classroom is therefore, very important. This is because a rich body of Social Psychology research shows that we are all vulnerable to biases that operate without our awareness and this impacts on our interactions and decision making in the classroom. Indeed, from a young age, stereotypes related to race, gender, sexuality, and religion (to name a

few) are learned, reinforced and internalised through daily exposure to embedded societal messages and social interactions (Collins, 2008). What can be sometimes surprising and upsetting is that, ingrained stereotype-based biases can habitually influence our thoughts and behaviours, even when those biases conflict with our personal beliefs and values that control us (Carnes, *et al.,* 2012; Devine, *et al.,* 2012). Stereotype threats for example, have been found to have possibly lead under represented students to feel additional mental and emotional pressure to succeed, which increases cognitive load, depletes working memory and induces physiological stress (Spencer, Logel & Davies, 2016).

A classroom environment where the level of interaction benefits all students is accordingly often encouraged to ensure that all students improve their performance (Lorenzo, Crouch & Mazur, 2006). However, while some researchers argue that faculty traits such as teacher gender do not affect classroom interactions (Crombie, *et al.,* 2003; Krijnen & van Bauwel, 2015), other researchers have found otherwise. Canada & Pringle (1995), in an observational study of classroom interactions found that "The behaviours of female students and of both male and female professors were strongly related to whether or not male students were present in the classroom". Other studies have similarly reported marked differences in classroom participation due to the influence of faculty gender, race and ethnicity (Statham, Richardson, & Cook, 1991; Nunn, 1996; Auwarter & Aruguete, 2008; Boysen, *et al.,* 2009). Fassinger (1995a) using a questionnaire survey administered to students and professors in 51 classes, similarly concluded that, the participation of female students in class was affected by the emotional climate in the classroom. He further explained that the observed gender differences were the results of gender politics that were largely absent in same sex environments.

These gender dynamics in the classroom are what Crombie *et al.* (2003) describe as a "chilly climate." According to them, the term "chilly climate" refers to "the aggregated impact of a host of micro inequities and forms of systemic discrimination that disadvantage women in academic environments." For instance, it can impact negatively on student performance, emotional well-being, sense of belonging and motivation to persist in an academic field (Walton and Spencer, 2009; Killpack & Melón, 2016; Spencer, *et al.,* 2016). Pascarella, *et al.* (1997) therefore exhibit a modest support "for the hypothesis that a perceived chilly campus climate can, in fact, have negative implications for women's cognitive growth." Such a

climate, in a university classroom, according to Brainard & Carlin (1998), serves as a barrier blocking the route of women to degrees. This, if not checked, may deepen the already existing divide between men and women on the campuses of many African universities as women fight to succeed under these gendered circumstances to get their diplomas, degrees, and job opportunities. Another possibility is that it may serve as a direct threat to the already existing gendered human resource on the African continent (Hallam, 2002; Bennett, 2002; Ndlovu, 2001).

The various forms of gender biases exhibited in the tertiary environment may include the sexist use of language; stereotyping, disparaging views of women; differential interaction patterns of professors as a function of student gender; paucity of women faculty as role models and mentors and gender-based differential attributions (Spencer, *et al.*, 2016). In Ghana, Prah (2002) argues that educational systems are gendered in terms of culture, rules and expected outcomes. This is because gender inequalities are seen in the attitude of teachers, textbooks used and the educational policies used. Unfortunately, these biases are continued even to the higher education level (Adomako, 1993; Sutherland-Addy, *et al.*, 1995). Sutherland-Addy *et al.* (1995) identified several ways through which teachers adversely affect the performance of females through discouragement and intimidation, sexual harassment, abuse and exploitation of females. Other gender inequalities identified in Ghana and Africa at large include gender stereotyping of courses/ subject (Mama & Barnes 2007).

Another dimension to this discussion is sexual harassment, which according to Bickerstaff (2005) cannot be ignored because of its consistency towards women by male colleagues and professors. A review of African literature indicates the prevalence of sexual harassment and gender-based violence on the campuses of many African universities — Botswana, Ethiopia, Ghana, Nigeria, South Africa to mention but a few (Sutherland-Addy, *et al.*, 1995; Sall, 2000; Mama & Barnes, 2007). Perhaps, the most infamous case of sexual harassment in Africa involved the heckling of a female student at the University of Dar Es Salaam to an extent that it is generally believed that, it forced her to commit suicide (Sall, 2003). Mama & Barnes (2007) further argue that these sexually harassing behaviours, which are often routine and persistent come in different forms including direct physical violence — rape and assault which sometimes result in death as earlier mentioned. Reports of widespread occurrence of sexual harassment and sex for grades have also been made (Morley, 2011).

In the view of Hallam (1994), gendered hostility towards female students and staff in African higher education is almost endemic. The main purpose of these unethical acts is often to silence and intimidate an individual woman in particular and women in general. These biases in institutional culture according to Killpack & Melón (2016), if not checked can prevent diverse students from thriving and persisting in for example, Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) fields, which are currently needed for economic development.

In terms of current measures put in place to address gender biases in the tertiary sector, literature shows that guaranteeing equal access and opportunity for all, in the areas of education and training regardless of gender is a major priority for many stakeholders (Gentry, *et al.*, 2002; Coates, 2015; Leslie, *et al.*, 2015; MacNell, *et al.*, 2015). Accordingly, inside and outside Africa, private and public policies are increasingly being aimed at broadening access and participation in higher education for all. For instance, the American Association of Colleges and Universities has proposed an "Inclusive Excellence" model aimed at institutional change in which case institutions must strategically invest in and coordinate inclusivity efforts and create a campus culture that welcomes and values cultural diversity among all students (Bauman, *et al.*, 2005; Milem, *et al.*, 2005).

Similarly, for the better part of the past fifty years, the African academy has recognised (if not always responded to) the need to transform the composition of academic and management staff, students, and curricular content, most often in terms of race and gender (Mabokela & King, 2001; Mabokela, 2000). The Network of Southern African Tertiary Institutions Challenging Sexual Harassment and Sexual Violence, was as a result formed in 1996 in Gabarone, Botswana. Also, an investigation into the effectiveness of sexual harassment policies between 2004 and 2006 in some African countries, was conducted by Bennett, Gouws and Kritzinger (University of Stellenbosch), Hames (University of the Western Cape), and Tidimane (University of Botswana); to deepen our understanding of the challenges facing such interventions (Mama & Barnes, 2007). A key recommendation made was that all the institutions have to formally establish procedures through which complaints of sexual harassment could be handled (Bennett, *et al.*, 2007). These interventions are meant to ensure that institutions militate against stereotype threat in classrooms and cultivate intellectual and social environments, where all students have equal opportunity to achieve academic success (Killpack & Melón, 2016).

Granted, previous studies have looked at the issue of gender severally; nevertheless, the present study is still important because gender issues have often been discussed in not less than binary definitions of gender in areas such as media literacy, sexuality, race, violence, and masculinities *(*Healey, 2013; Krijnen & van Bauwel, 2015). Besides, the focus of most of these studies has been at the pre-tertiary level (primary and secondary school) and not at the higher education level. Studies at the tertiary level are in fact, few (Fassinger, 1995a; Brainard & Carlin, 1998; Sall, 2003; Blickenstaff, 2005; Mama & Barnes, 2007). It is for these reasons that the present study focused on gender biases during interactions in the tertiary classroom and how it affects students academically, socially and psychologically.

The term "classroom interaction" is consistently used in this article to describe the form and content of behaviour or social interaction between lecturers and students in a classroom setting. Such interactions may occur during classroom discussions, debates, question and answer sections, conversations, small-group interactions as well as entire classroom interactions. Of course, classrooms are complex social systems and can be even multifaceted (Pianta, *et. al*, 2012). Hence, such interaction may go beyond the classroom setting as lecturers try to provide counselling and coaching services, supervise student projects and navigate students through their career and professional experiences. Specific areas of classroom interaction explored by this study include encouraging female classroom participation, student-lecturer relationships, discipline, assessment and sexual issues.

Documenting whether lecturers reflect and perpetuate such biases in the classrooms of the University was considered necessary given that, if it exists, it can potentially affect the quality of students performance and learning experience (Thrupp, 1999; Mortimore, 1998). This study is therefore expected to provide an insight into how students view their interaction with lecturers both inside and outside the classroom. The study findings are expected to aid educators and researchers alike to better understand the gender dynamics present within the university context so that instructional interventions meant to mitigate such and improve student performance can be designed and implemented.

Specifically, the following four objectives were examined:

- To find out whether gender biases exist in the classrooms of one Ghanaian University (GU) and how these are manifested.

- To examine the relationship between student gender and faculty on the one hand and the selected variables — encouraging female classroom participation, teacher-student relationships, discipline, assessment and sexual issues, on the other.
- To identify the specific effect of such biases on students — academically, socially, and psychologically.
- To make recommendations based on the study findings.

Methodology

Study design, sample and sampling technique

Only one GU was chosen for the case study because an in-depth knowledge was desired and the context of institutions differs. Four out of the University's five faculties were selected. Two departments were selected from each of the selected faculties using simple random sampling techniques, except for the faculty D which had just two departments out of which one was selected. Samples from each department were selected using convenience sampling techniques (all second- and third-year students present for lectures arranged a priori with lecturers participated in the study). The second and third-year students were best suited for the study because of their relatively rich experience in terms of gender biases during classroom interactions.

Data Collection Method

The semi-structured questionnaire utilised had 36 items in the following six main sections: (1) Encouraging classroom participation. (2) Teacher-student relationships. (3) Discipline. (4) Assessment. (5) Sexual issues. (6) Associated academic, psychological, social and other related effects. The structured part of the questionnaire had a five-point Likert scale ranging from "always" to "not at all". The instrument was developed after an extensive literature review, peer review and piloting using first year students in the unselected faculty. The piloting informed corrections and revisions made on the questionnaire before the final administration in December, 2018. Inappropriate questions were dropped and few additions made based on the suggestions given during the peer review and piloting. The study participants were met by appointment — meeting appointments were made with lecturers teaching the selected departments. A 100 per cent response rate was obtained. For ethical reasons, the purpose of the study was

explained, voluntary participation and confidentiality were emphasised, and students were given the opportunity to ask questions during the administration of the instrument.

Method of data analysis

The quantitative part of the data was analysed using descriptive statistics (frequencies, and percentages) and correlation (spearman correlation because of the non-parametric nature of the data) with the aid of SPSS 16.0. The qualitative component was analysed using thematic analysis. Emerging themes highlighting areas of biases were accordingly coded and the relationship between the various themes and the research questions summarised. The use of thematic analysis aided flexibility in selecting appropriate issues and putting the interpretations in context. In carrying out analysis, the following five stages of thematic analysis recommended by Lacey and Luff (2001) were adapted — transcription, organisation of the data, familiarisation, coding and creation of themes.

Transcription

Each questionnaire was given a code easily traceable to the respondent. The respondent' answers were transcribed verbatim according to the order, in which the questions appeared on the questionnaire.

Organisation of the data

After the transcription, repeated answers were deleted and remaining ones ordered according to the order in which the questions appeared on the questionnaire.

Familiarisation

The transcribed data was severally read to ensure familiarisation with the data before the detailed coding of the content started.

Coding

Each item on the questionnaire was given a code. The characteristics (e.g. gender) of the respondents were also assigned codes (letters were used to represent each respondent and numbers were used to present their

characteristics). Emerging major themes were also assigned codes (numbers). Overall, the following four major themes emerged — academic, psychological and social effects, and sexual distractions.

Creating the Themes

The major ideas/themes emerging from each major theme were further coded to develop more refined categories (sub-themes). These coded responses were then compared, contrasted and reported on.

Results

This section has four main parts. First, the biographic data is presented. The next parts are presented in the order of the research questions as shown below:

- **B.** The existence and manifestations of gender biases in the classroom (RQ1).
- **C.** The relationship between student gender/faculty and the selected variables (RQ2).
- **D.** The effect of gender biases on students (RQ3).

A. Biographic data

Overall, there were 553 students involved in the study — 402 (73%) males and 151 (27%) females. Out of this 163 (29%) were from faculty A, 142 (26%) from faculty C, 127 (23%) from faculty B and 121 (22%) from faculty D (see Table 1).

Table 1: Biography of the Respondents

Department	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*Total*
Faculty								
A	115	48						163
B			110	17				127
C					127	15		142
D							121	121
Total	115	48	110	17	127	15	121	553

Source: 2018 Field survey.

B. The existence and manifestations of gender biases in the classroom (RQ1).

As indicated on Table 2, the majority (39%) view was that gender biases sometimes occurred in the various classrooms of the University. The rate of occurrence however, varied according to the course and the gender of the lecturer concerned. For example, to the majority of (62%), gender biases were more characteristic of male lecturers. With regard to specific areas where the lecturers showed biases, the following four areas stood out: encouraging female participation, student-lecturer relationships, discipline and assessment. Details are as follows:

Encouraging female participation

This sub-theme focused on leadership, presentations, coaching and the promotion of professions in the classroom as well as the inclusion of students in various classroom activities. In the area of leadership, the majority (40%) view was that positions were *most times* rotated among students *mostly* by male lecturers (47%). Many of the students (71%) also indicated that the male lecturers most of the time (53%), ensured presentations were made in turns by all students. The same was true when it came to coaching students (78%) and actively encouraging females to participate in class activities (72%). Another interesting finding was that, the male lecturers (50%) avoided stories/jokes/comments that disparaged females. The majority (34%) were of the view that, the male lecturers especially talked about women in humorous ways. Regarding the promotion of gender stereotype in the classroom, the majority (30%) view was that this occurred *sometimes* and was more characteristic of male lecturers (See Table 2).

Class assessment

Student assessment is another area purported to have given the lecturers the opportunity to show gender bias. The fact as indicated by the majority (38%) however was that lecturers *seldom* called more on male students than female students during classroom discussions. The male lecturers (46%) in particular, mostly looked for the hands of all students irrespective of gender. Besides, the lecturers *seldom:* (a) Asked male students factual questions and female students easy questions (42%). (b) Expected male

Table 2: Encouraging female participation

Participants	*Gender*	*Always*	*Most times*	*Sometimes*	*Seldom*	*Not at all*	*Characteristic of male lecturers*	*Characteristic of female lecturers*	*Undecided*
1. Gender biases varied by class or subject.	Male	9	17	36	13	25	62	16	22
	Female	10	19	47	5	19	38	44	18
	Total	11	17	39	10	23	56	23	21
2. Lecturers: Regularly rotated leadership positions.	Male	21	16	28	12	23	50	27	23
	Female	22	23	36	6	13	39	40	21
	Total	22	18	30	10	20	47	31	22
3. avoided gendered forms of professions;	Male	22	15	27	14	22	52	26	22
	Female	22	18	37	10	13	39	42	19
	Total	22	15	30	13	20	48	31	21
4. avoided denigrating stories/jokes to females;	Male	20	14	25	12	29	54	24	22
	Female	25	21	30	11	13	42	41	17
	Total	21	16	26	12	25	50	29	21
5. talked about women in humorous ways;	Male	6	9	23	15	47	61	14	25
	Female	9	18	34	7	32	54	26	20
	Total	7	12	26	13	42	59	17	24
6. used examples that excluded females;	Male	9	13	19	9	50	54	19	27
	Female	11	17	27	12	33	45	35	20
	Total	9	14	22	10	45	52	23	25
7. actively encouraged female participation;	Male	52	21	16	5	6	55	25	20
	Female	46	26	19	6	3	36	46	18
	Total	51	22	16	6	5	50	30	20
8. coached both female and male students;	Male	61	17	13	5	4	55	23	22
	Female	50	23	17	7	3	46	35	19
	Total	58	19	14	5	4	52	26	22
9. ensured all students did presentations.	Male	52	21	13	6	8	56	22	22
	Female	41	25	20	11	3	42	37	21
	Total	49	22	15	7	7	53	25	22

Source: 2018 field survey.

students to do better (38%) (c) Graded male and female students differently (47%). (d) Ensured female students got more marks than their male counterparts (38%). In fact, many (65%) of the students indicated that, their lecturers believed all students can succeed academically (see Table 3).

Table 3: Assessment

Discipline

Item	*Gender*	*Always*	*Most times*	*Sometimes*	*Seldom*	*Not at all*	*More of male teachers*	*More of female teachers*	*Undecided*
Lecturers:									
1. Called more on male students.	Male	8	12	23	17	40	58	16	26
	Female	14	16	27	11	32	42	36	22
	Total	10	13	24	15	38	54	21	25
2. Looked for the hands of all students.	Male	46	17	19	7	11	50	24	26
	Female	35	21	30	5	9	34	44	22
	Total	43	18	22	6	11	46	29	25
3. Asked females factual and easy questions.	Male	12	15	17	11	45	50	18	32
	Female	13	16	25	11	35	50	24	26
	Total	12	16	19	11	42	50	19	31
4. Graded male and female papers differently.	Male	12	13	18	10	47	54	13	33
	Female	13	13	20	8	46	36	36	28
	Total	12	13	18	10	47	50	19	31
5. Expected males to perform better.	Male	17	21	23	9	30	55	16	29
	Female	15	25	23	7	30	45	33	22
	Total	14	16	20	12	38	52	20	28
6. Ensured female students got more marks.	Male	13	15	20	14	38	55	15	30
	Female	12	20	19	9	40	44	31	25
	Total	14	16	20	12	38	52	20	28
7. Believed all students could succeed.	Male	69	11	10	4	6	45	27	28
	Female	54	19	14	5	8	36	39	25
	Total	65	13	11	4	7	42	30	28

Source: 2018 field survey.

The majority (31%) view in the area of discipline was that lecturers *seldom* took the initiative to respond to students' needs — usually, the students complained first. Nevertheless, lecturer *most times* (53%) responded swiftly and firmly when male students disrespected female students in the classroom. Many of the students (66%) were also of the view that lecturers *most times* disciplined all students, regardless of gender and ensured all behaved well. This notwithstanding, the majority view was that discipline was *most times*. In the view of others however, (30%) discipline was *sometimes* skewed towards male students. See Table 4 for more details.

Table 4: Discipline

Item	*Gender*	*Always*	*Most times*	*Sometimes*	*Seldom*	*Not at all*	*More of male teachers*	*More of female teachers*	*Undecided*
Lecturers:									
1. Did not wait for females to openly complain.	Male	20	20	20	20	20	50	21	29
	Female	18	21	31	11	19	44	32	24
	Total	13	16	29	11	31	48	24	28
2. Responded swiftly and firmly when males were disrespectful to females.	Male	25	21	24	10	20	57	18	25
	Female	19	28	31	11	11	42	38	20
	Total	23	23	26	10	18	53	24	23
3. Saw to it that all genders behaved well.	Male	70	12	9	4	5	34	33	33
	Female	56	24	15	3	2	35	43	22
	Total	66	15	11	4	4	48	29	23
4. Made discipline mostly skewed towards men.	Male	19	22	31	9	19	54	20	26
	Female	18	28	28	8	18	42	35	23
	Total	18	24	30	8	20	51	24	25

Source: 2018 field survey.

Student-lecturer relationships

Regarding student-lecturer relationships, the overall picture was not very good. Even though 29 per cent of the students shared the view that all were friends of the lecturers *sometimes*, the majority (37%) pointed out that, the lecturers *seldom* invited students for private chats. This was true for both male

and female lecturers. Nevertheless, students were *seldom* unconsciously shunned (28%) or prejudiced against (27%) by their lecturers. Another interesting claim by the majority (30%) was that the lecturers *sometimes* behaved differently toward male and female students (24% were undecided on the issue). Also, the lecturers were said to have paid more attention to female students *sometimes* (29%) and that particular groups of female students *seldom* received more attention than they should (25%). See Table 5.

Table 5: Student lecturer-association/relationship

Item	*Gender*	*Always*	*Most times*	*Sometimes*	*Seldom*	*Not at all*	*More of male teachers*	*More of female teachers*	*Undecided*
1. Male students were unconsciously shunned.	Male	9	19	26	18	28	53	20	27
	Female	13	21	31	9	26	46	30	24
	Total	11	19	27	15	28	51	23	26
2. All were friends of lecturers.	Male	30	22	27	10	11	51	21	28
	Female	21	26	35	9	9	37	43	20
	Total	28	23	29	9	11	47	27	26
3. Lecturers invited all students for private chats.	Male	12	10	25	15	38	51	18	31
	Female	11	16	25	13	35	48	29	23
	Total	11	13	25	14	37	50	21	29
4. Lecturer behaviour toward males was different.	Male	19	18	30	9	24	57	17	26
	Female	18	25	30	12	15	42	37	21
	Total	18	20	30	10	22	53	23	24
5. Lecturers were prejudiced against males.	Male	10	17	32	13	28	53	20	27
	Female	9	18	33	17	21	48	30	22
	Total	10	17	31	14	27	52	23	25
6. Lecturers gave females a lot of attention.	Male	24	19	27	9	21	67	13	20
	Female	19	28	34	5	14	72	13	15
	Total	22	21	29	8	20	68	13	19
7. Particular groups of female students received more attention than they should.	Male	21	20	21	10	28	64	11	25
	Female	27	23	24	9	17	56	26	18
	Total	23	20	22	10	25	62	15	23

Source: 2018 field survey.

Sexual issues

The study further showed evidence of sexual undercurrents in the classroom. Although the majority (43%) mentioned that sexual assaults were *seldom* reported, a minority (9%) indicated these were *most times* reported. Mention was also made of unwanted sexual contact, as indicated by the majority (38%) though this occurred *seldom*. A minority (6%), however, pointed out that this was *most times* experienced by students. The same was true of sexual violence against women. Thus, whereas the majority (41%) claimed that, sexual violence was seldom reported; a minority (8%) pointed out that sexual violence against women was *most times* reported. Interestingly, most of these sexual assaults were *seldom* against male students as indicated by the majority (48%), *seldom* (41%), reported cases were against women See Table 6.

Table 6: Sexual issues

Item	*Gender*	*Always*	*Most times*	*Sometimes*	*Seldom*	*Not at all*	*More of male teachers*	*More of female teachers*	*Undecided*
1. Women reported being sexually assaulted.	Male	8	10	22	10	50	50	23	27
	Female	10	22	33	10	25	51	26	23
	Total	9	13	25	10	43	50	24	26
2. Women experienced unwanted sexual contact.	Male	4	14	24	15	43	58	17	25
	Female	10	23	34	11	22	55	25	20
	Total	6	16	26	13	38	57	19	24
3. Sexual violence was reported by women.	Male	7	13	19	13	48	41	32	27
	Female	11	23	32	11	23	36	44	20
	Total	8	16	23	12	41	40	35	25
4. Men have been victims of sexual assault.	Male	5	10	20	14	51	40	29	31
	Female	8	12	24	17	39	41	35	24
	Total	6	10	21	15	48	40	31	29

Source: 2018 field survey.

To further investigate the issue, the correlation between the occurrence of sexual related issues and faculty was carried out. The results are presented

on Table 7. As expected, the Table shows evidence of sexual related issues such sexual contact, assault and violence in all four selected faculties though relatively small. For instance, although many (82–85%) of the students indicated that the above sexual abuses did not occur in their faculties; quite a substantial number of them (15–18%) also pointed out the opposite. A comparison of the faculties suggest that the most occurrence was in faculty B and the least occurrence was in faculty C.

Table 7: The Occurrence of Sexual Related Issues by Faculty

Faculty	*A*	*B*	*C*	*D*	*Total*
Sexual contact					
Always	44	36	16	4	15
Not at all	32	11	34	23	85
Total	34	15	31	20	100
Sexual assault					
Always	21	28	26	26	17
Not at all	18	15	38	29	83
Total	18	18	36	29	100
Sexual violence					
Always	29	31	24	16	18
Not at all	19	15	38	28	82
Total	21	18	36	26	100

Source: 2018 field survey.

C. The relationship between student gender and faculty on one hand, and the selected variables — on the other hand

According to Table 8, there was a significant relationship between student *gender* and the selected variables (correlations were significant at the 0.01 level, 2-tailed). The Table (the figures in bracket), shows that student gender shared 6 per cent of the variability in the unwanted sexual contact experienced by females, 5 per cent in sexual assaults reported by females, and 5 per cent in sexual violence reported. A student's faculty on one hand shared, 7 per cent of the variability in unwanted sexual contact experienced by female students, 5 per cent in sexual assaults reported by females, 4 per cent in sexual assaults reported by females and 4 per cent in lecturer utterances, that made female students feel uncomfortable. These estimates

though small, suggest that the variability in the selected variables is accounted for by other variables other than those examined by the study.

Table 8: Correlations between the selected variables

Selected Variables	*Correlation Coefficient for or Faculty*	*Correlation Coefficient for Gender*
Lecturers voided stories/jokes/comments derogatory to females.	.080	–.151** (2.28)
Lecturers used examples that made females feel excluded.	.107*	–.133** (1.77)
Lecturers talked about women in ways that made them uncomfortable.	.189** (3.57)	–.181** (3.27)
Lecturers allowed jokes/stories that made females objects of laughter/ridicule.	.142** (2.02)	–.111** (1.20)
Women reported being sexually assaulted.	.216** (4.67)	–.221** (4.88)
Women experienced unwanted sexual contacts.	.265** (6.55)	–.238** (5.66)
Sexual violence was reported.	.198** (3.90)	–.214** (4.57)
Male students were unconsciously shunned.	.152** (2.31)	–.067
Particular groups of female students received more attention than they should.	.145** (2.1)	–.105*
Lecturers called on male students more than female students.	.134** (1.79)	–.114** (1.23)
All students were made to believe they could succeed.	–.054	.130** (1.69)

Note: * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
• R^2 is in the bracket

D. The effect of gender biases in the classroom

The discussions under this section, are from the unstructured section of the semi-structured questionnaire employed by the study. The responses of the students regarding the effects of gender biases in the classroom were generally classified into following four categories — academic, psychological, social and sexual effects.

Academic effect

Academically, the students had the perception that lecturers expected more from male students than female students. The male students in particular felt females were often favoured in assessments because of their relationship with lecturers. For example, it was mentioned that, some females intentionally do not work hard because they know some lecturers will surely pass them. These perceptions had different effects on the students based on their gender. Whereas the female students were motivated to work hard to prove their male counterparts wrong, the male students were discouraged and did not put in their best because they felt the assessment processes were not fair. This according to the students has led to poor academic performance. Others felt unhappy and bad and even absented themselves from lectures handled by such lecturers or planned leaving the university. Some of the students' comments were as follows:

A: "Sometimes they exchange marks to suit ladies."

B: "Sometimes female students are given some free marks due to their relationship with lecturers."

C: "When I am learning I know that they always favour females so I study hard to get more marks."

D: "It doesn't urge me to learn hard because after all, the females will be favoured."

E: "Sometimes students prefer not to study hard because they know they would get higher grades."

F: "It has killed the learning spirit in male students and I have lost my love for the course."

G: "It contributes to poor performance."

Psychological effects

The psychological effects of gender biases in the classroom mentioned by the students were: loss of self-esteem, inferiority complex, shyness, timidity,

exclusion, nervousness and the inability to answer questions in class. Other effects identified were feelings of not being capable of doing well academically, lack of attention during lectures involving a lecturer who is biased in one way or the other, loss of interest in the course, and unwillingness to approach biased lecturers for further discussions and clarification outside the classroom. These were some of the comments from the students:

H: "It makes me lose my self-esteem sometimes."
I: "Makes me feel inferior."
J: "It makes one timid and shy."
K: "It causes inferiority complex."

Social Effects

With respect to unfairness or unequal treatment, the general perception was that the male students were often treated badly especially, in the presence of female students. According to the students, male students were often disrespected, disgraced, insulted, looked down upon, ignored or given less attention. For example, when students were late for a class, the females were allowed in, but the males are sacked. Thus, the male students often felt nervous approaching lecturers. The supposed "favoured" female students presumably showed an air of superiority and this brought division and unhappiness among the students. These were some of the students comments:

L: "We all deserve to be treated equally, right?"
M: "Male students are treated badly especially in the midst of girls?"
N: "Male students get humiliated by female teachers in class."
O: "They look down on us, males".
P: "It makes some people see themselves as superior in class."
Q: "It has brought about class division."
R: "Students find it difficult to share their problems or what worries them with lecturers."

Sexual distractions effects

According to the students, the way some male students talk about sex and orally "harass" female students in class made concentration very difficult in

the classroom. The same was true of how some female students and lecturers dressed to class and the way and manner some female students disrespected male students in the classroom just because of their "supposed" relationship with male lecturers? These were some of the responses from the students on this issue:

S: "Some lecturers are dating female students and the male students harass the female students"
T: "Female students and lecturers' dressing seduce male students"
U: "Female students disrespect male students because of their relationship with male lecturers"
V: "It has made focusing and concentrating in class very difficult."
W: "Teachers forcefully take students' phone numbers to call and toast them with proposals, all in the name of giving them good grades."

Discussion

Regarding the first objective, as to whether gender biases existed, the overall finding was that gender biases did occur in the classroom sometimes and that they varied depending on the course and the lecturer concerned. Although such biases in the classroom can generally be covert or overt, the focus of this article was on overt bias which often tends to be intentional and obvious and may contain subtle insults and offenses (Sue, Capodilupa, Nadal, & Torino, 2008; Boysen, *et al.,* 2009). Boysen, *et al.* (2009) in a survey assessing the perceptions of 2,523 professors, graduates, instructors, and undergraduates on classroom bias, similarly reported that students on several occasions, experienced things they didn't like, were perhaps, a little or more than subtly derogative or things that made them uncomfortable. The study finding is further supported by Boysen, *et al.* (2009), who showed that "One place that students face overt and subtle forms of bias is the college classroom". Marcus, *et al.* (2003) showed that students experienced higher levels of biases in the classroom than outside it further supporting the finding of this study. These findings were rather unfortunate given that the teaching profession requires all students to be treated equally regardless of their background; gender or any other characteristics which could be a basis for discrimination.

In terms of how such biases were manifested, two areas stood out: (1) which teacher gender generally made students uncomfortable in the

classroom and (2) issues surrounding sex perpetuated by male students and lecturers. As indicated by 58 per cent of the respondents, gender biases in the classroom were more characteristic of male lecturers than female lecturers. For example, the male lecturers did not avoid stories/jokes/ comments that denigrate females. This finding is not surprising because, gender biases in society though, generally perpetuated by all genders have often been against women (Sartore and Cunningham, 2007).

Regarding the second issue on sex, the study showed that sexual assault was always (8%), most of the time (13%) or at least sometimes (25%) reported. The gender that generally experienced more of these assaults was females as indicated by some of the students who indicated that females *always* (9%) or *most of the time* (13%) experienced sexual assaults. Sonnert (1995b) in similar study involving 191 female fellowship recipients similarly found 12 per cent of the females reporting being sexually harassed during their graduate school or early professional experience. The study findings are also supported by earlier arguments that women encounter more sexism than men (Swim, *et al.*, 2001, Kalof, *et al.*, 2001).

Regarding the second objective which sought to find out the relationship between the selected variables, the study showed that a student's faculty on one hand shared 7 per cent of the variability in unwanted sexual contacts experienced by women, 5 per cent in sexual assaults reported by women on the other hand. These suggest that sexual related issues were more prevalent in some faculties than others. Whether such sexual issues were reported or not similarly depended on the faculty involved. As previously mentioned, sexual contact, assault and violence mostly occurred at the faculty of Applied Sciences although some faculties have fewer female students (e.g. Engineering) than others. This notwithstanding, further research is necessary to ascertain why sexual issues were relatively more prevalent in some faculties than others.

The third objective was to identify the specific effect of such biases on students. The study findings indicated that male students were often disrespected, disgraced, insulted, looked down upon, ignored or given less attention. These lecturer behaviours are unethical given that the Code of Ethics Policy (2016) of the university section 4.0 prohibits intentionally causing reasonable apprehension or harm. These included but not limited to abusive language and/or physical or verbal intimation, harassment, decimation, coercion and fairness for all students. Boysen, *et al.* (2009) in a survey assessing the perceptions of 2,523 professors, graduates,

instructors, and undergraduates on classroom bias, similarly reported that on several occasions, students referred to things they did not like or were perhaps a little or more subtly derogative, making them uncomfortable. Such biases included indirect confrontation, discussion and ignoring.

The effect of these as evidenced by this study can be academic, psychological, social etc. Such biases according to Benson and Thomson (1982) can cause female students in particular to begin to carefully look for, monitor and even avoid lecturers with such attitudes. Some may even not choose courses, programmes and careers that involve such lecturers. Staff who engaged in such relationships on the other hand may lose self-respect among students or may even be ineffective in class.

Conclusions

This study set out to investigate how gender biases in a tertiary classroom environment affect the quality of students' learning experience academically, socially and psychologically. It is clear from the study findings that gender biases sometimes occurred in the classroom though these were often dependent on the lecturer and the course concerned. Classroom participation, student-lecturer relationships, discipline, and assessments were some of the activities that provided lecturers the opportunity to show such gender biasness in the classroom. Among the many effects of such classroom biases were academic, psychological, social and sexual effects which specifically ranged from ignoring students to sexual assaults. Promotion of students' academic welfare, professionalism in the classroom, adequate supervision and monitoring and a medium for students to channel their concerns were some of the recommendations made to address the challenges identified.

Recommendations

- *Promotion of students' welfare academically*

Lecturers should expect equal performance from all genders and respect the male students as much as they respect females. They should also try and be fair to all students. Students on the other hand, should be encouraged to appreciate each other and to work hard.

- *Lecturer Professionalism*

Management through the Human Resource Unit should educate and

encourage lecturers to be professional in the classroom by respecting themselves and giving all students equal opportunity regardless of their gender. Lecturers should also try to be interested in the general welfare and feelings of students.

- *A medium for channelling students' concerns*

An office should be set up for students to report or share their problems, worries, concerns and grievance for redress. Perhaps, suggestion boxes could be located within vantage points so that student can report lecturers anonymously when need be.

- *Adequate supervision Monitoring*

The university authorities particularly, Heads of Departments, Deans and colleague lecturers should be interested in the behaviour of lecturers in the classroom by regularly checking on them during class hours, interacting with students, allowing student to assess lecturers or using electronic media (e.g., C.C.T.V. cameras) to gain insight into what is happening in the various classrooms.

- *Sanctions*

Appropriate sanction should be given to lecturers who engage in professional misconduct or those found to be engaged in wrong doing.

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An Examination of Leadership Styles by Gender in Tamale Technical University

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Abstract

There is a growing interest in the need to expand frontiers of leadership studies with particular reference to leadership styles that people practice in both public and private sector organisations. This is to ensure that the right leadership behavioural traits are identified and encouraged for practice among workers in organisations to enhance efficiency and productivity. This study examines leadership styles in the Tamale Technical University employees according to gender. Key issues examined include relationship between staff leadership styles i.e. leadership styles practiced by both male and female staff and how these leadership styles promote efficient performance and productivity. The study adopted a descriptive survey of non-experimental research method involving the use of both qualitative and quantitative analytical techniques. The study used purposive and stratified random sampling techniques for selection of respondents with a questionnaire as the research instrument. The study discovered that there is an association between the gender of staff and their leadership styles. The study also revealed that although both male and female employees in the university practiced transformational leadership characteristics than transactional behavioural traits, female staff slightly dominated their male counterparts in the practice of transformational leadership styles whilst the male staff also dominated the female staff in the practice of transactional leadership styles. The study concludes that behavioural traits of transformational leadership styles promote staff efficiency and productivity than transactional leadership styles. The study recommends that the university authority should encourage the practice of transformational leadership characteristics among its staff to ensure efficient performance and productivity.

Introduction

The world is fast becoming a global village mainly due to technological improvement. Today, many countries, especially the developing ones, have grown interest in the use of Information Communication Technology (ICT) as a development tool to grow their economies (Samuel and John, 2009). In line with this, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) forecasts global output to expand by 4.8 per cent in 2010 and 4.2 per cent in 2011 and this

could only become a reality through prudent management of scarce national resources across the globe (Wilson and Clark, 1997).

However, development goes beyond mere improvement in economic growth. "Today, development is seen as a multi-dimensional process involving changes in the social, political, cultural and economic structures, population attitudes and national institutions for accelerated economic growth to ensure the elimination of poverty, unemployment and inequality" (Amegashie-Viglo, 2009). The multi-dimensional process of development must encompass true leadership characteristics males and females exhibit as a function of their gender (Rosener, 1990).

Furthermore, it is believed that women are often left out of leadership positions in corporate organisations and where they are not, they are often under-represented. The situation of Manica Polytechnic in Mozambique confirms this assertion where there are only 17 per cent female employees as against 83% male staff (Manjichi, *et al.,* 2007). Most feminists explain that under-representation of women in top management positions could lead to the possibility of talented women avoiding corporate life in favour of entrepreneurial careers (Oakley, 2000). This presents a worrying trend of female relegation from responsible positions in organisations, especially at the time the world is calling for female empowerment through drastic reductions of their unemployment rates.

Despite the disparities, researchers have tried to find reasons for the problem by looking into leadership styles of males and females (Rosener, 1990). This would not only help in the female empowerment but, would satisfy the critical research curiosity of getting a definite solution to the leadership problem and the endless quest for it in most organisations (Handy, 1993; William, James and Susan, 2002).

Waldman *et al.* (2001) argue that there is the need to take a search into leadership styles seriously since these variables have direct effects on the decisional process and results of organisations. Kahai and Sosik (1997) and Evkall and Rhammar (1998) similarly argue that leadership styles affect group-work processes, social climate and results of organisations.

The overall picture is that there is growing interests in the need to expand the frontiers of leadership styles studies as these variables affect performance of workers and organisational outputs. Specific interest is also towards the need to identify leadership styles with gender by many researchers (Kanter, 1977; Barrett, 1980; Helgesen, 1990; Rosener 1990). This provides enough ground for the study.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study was to examine the leadership styles of the staff of Tamale Technical University by gender and how these leadership styles affect staff productivity. Specifically, this study examined the leadership styles in the following areas;

1. To examine characteristics of leadership styles of female and male staff.
2. To ascertain whether gender is related to leadership styles.
3. To identify how leadership styles are related to productivity.

Research Methodology

Research Design

In this study, descriptive survey of non-experimental research design was used. Yieri (2006) asserts that descriptive survey involves collection of data in order to answer research questions concerning the current status of the subjects under study. The investigator does not control factors that may influence the behaviour and performance of subjects under study thereby reporting the outcome as they are (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). Researchers often use this design to gain in-depth understanding of events, processes and situations involving a specific case study area (Trochim, 2006).

The design of a research is an overall programme guide that the researcher uses in the process of data collection, analyses and interpretation (Obeng, 2003). Yieri (2006) and Yin (1994) also describe research design as a plan or blueprint that specifies how data relating to a given problem should be collected and analysed.

In order to obtain in-depth background of respondents, participants were asked to indicate their gender to help inform the study on the demographic characteristics of the population in the study area.

In addition, the study took into consideration the level of respondents' education as part of their demographic information so as to help in the discussion of their leadership style by gender. Another important demographic data the study obtained from respondents was on their ranks. Employees were grouped into three ranks namely; junior staff, senior staff and senior members.

As part of the demographics of the respondents, the study elicited their views on how long they had stayed and worked in the institution so as to measure their experience levels. The leadership structure of the university is divided into academic and administrative divisions which are made up of Principal Officers, Deans, Heads of Departments (HoDs) and Unit Heads. In order to identify positions held by gender among staff, respondents were made to indicate the gender of their current supervisors.

Consensus building is mostly arrived at in any human establishment through popular participation by members of the group. However, the extent to which the group leader exercises his or her discretion by allowing subordinates to participate in consensus building may depend on the leader's gender. On that basis, the study sought the views of respondents on whether female supervisors do use participation to build consensus with subordinates at work. Four (4) objective variables were presented to respondents to choose from.

The study in an attempt to establish the influence of gender on staff leadership styles in Tamale Technical University, respondents were asked to indicate from four objective variables the forms of decisions often taken by their supervisors.

In this light, the study examined female leadership characteristics in the university by taking into consideration their use of power sharing and delegation of subordinates in decision making.

Similarly, the study analysed the extent at which females exhibit a transactional leadership style of spelling out clear rules and enforcing them on subordinates.

As a way of assessing the male leadership characteristics in relation to transactional leadership styles, their behaviour in respect to monitoring of subordinates irregularities, mistakes and deviations were examined.

Sample size determination

Sample in research is described as a subset or a portion of the total population (Bernett, 1991). The rationale is to make generalisation or inferences based on the study of the samples about parameters of the population from which the samples are drawn (Yin, 2003). Obeng (2003) holds the view that sampling a population for research is advantageous for the following reasons:

- It saves time and resources;

- It minimises problem of record keeping since researcher is handling relatively smaller number of respondents; and
- If well done, it can be highly accurate.

Using a confidence level of 95 per cent to give an estimated average value of the true population of staff of Tamale Polytechnic and a sampling error of 5 per cent (Cochran, 1963; and Yamane, 1967), the researcher determined the sample size of the study area by using Cochran's (1977) formula ; $n=\frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}$ where N= Target population (478), e=Sampling error and n= sample size.

Therefore, $n=\frac{478}{1+478(0.05)^2} = \frac{478}{2.195} = 218.$

Based on the above, a sample size of 218 was selected for the study. Due to the limited number of female staff in the university (381 males and 97 females), 70 respondents were selected from female staff and the remaining 148 from the male staff. The sample sizes of both male and female staff were done purposively. This was to ensure that enough female respondents were included in the study.

Results

Demographic Profile of Respondents

Out of the 218 respondents selected, 148 were males whilst the remaining 70 respondents were females, representing 68 and 32 per cent respectively. The results are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1: Respondents by Gender

Variables	*Number*	*Percentage (%)*
Male	148	68
Female	70	32
Total	218	100

Source: Field data, 2018.

Table 2: Age Distribution of Respondents

Age	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
18–23 yrs	8	3.7
24–29 yrs	38	17.4
30–35 yrs	42	19.3
36–41 yrs	64	29.4
42–47 yrs	35	16
48–53 yrs	24	11
Over 54 yrs	7	3.2
Total	218	100

Source: Field data, 2018.

From the analysis, it is observed that the male population far outweighs that of the female population in the study area.

Besides the gender of respondents which revealed a wide gap between male and female staff in the institution, the analyses of the field data indicated that the employees were very youthful as illustrated in Table 2 above. For example, out of the 218 respondents involved in the study, 8 were between the ages of 18–23, representing 3.7 per cent. In addition, 38 respondents were between the ages of 24–29, representing 17.4 per cent whilst 42 respondents were identified to be between ages 30–35, also representing 19.3%. In addition, 64 respondents were between the ages of 36–41 and the ages of the remaining 35 respondents ranged between 42–47 years, representing 29.4 per cent and 16 per cent respectively.

As illustrated in Table 3, data obtained from the field study revealed that out of the 218 respondents selected for the study, 35 of them had only basic education and 48 of them had secondary education, representing 16 per cent and 22 per cent respectively.

Table 3: Respondents by Level of Education

Education level	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Basic education	35	16
Secondary education	48	22
Tertiary education	115	53
Other	20	9
Total	218	100

Source: Field data, 2018.

Also, 115 respondents indicated that they had tertiary education, representing 53 per cent whilst the remaining 20 (9%) respondents also indicated 'other' meaning that they did not have any form of education.

As shown in Table 4, analysis of the results indicated that there were more senior staff and senior members selected for the study than junior staff.

Table 4: Ranks of Respondents in Tamale Technical University

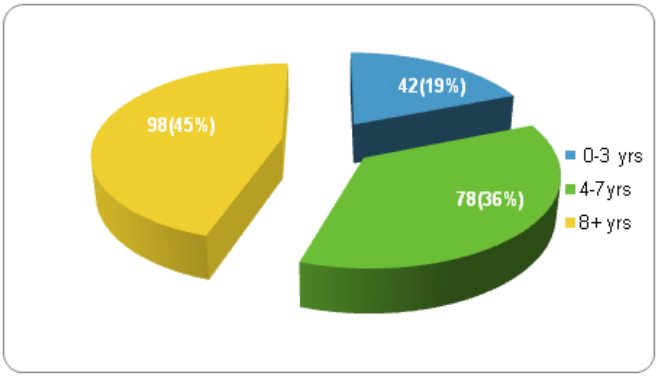
Rank	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Junior staff	103	47
Senior staff	86	40
Senior members	29	13
Total	218	100

Source: Field data, 2018.

Staff of the institution could rise to higher ranks through acquisition of higher academic certificates and the number of years spent at post.

The results are shown in Figure 1. Information obtained revealed that out of the 218 respondents, 42 of them have stayed in the institution for less than 3 years whilst 78 respondents indicated that they stayed in the institution between 4–7 years, representing 19 per cent and 36 per cent respectively. The remaining 98 respondents who constituted an overwhelming majority of 45 per cent also indicated that they stayed in the university for 8 years and above.

Figure 1: Duration of Stay of Respondents in Tamale Technical University



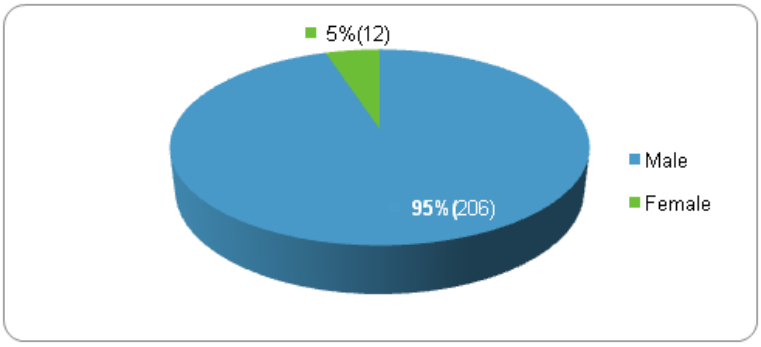
Source: Field data, 2018.

The large number of respondents who stayed in the university for many years might have started at lower ranks and have risen through the ranks as contained in the university statutes. The net effect is that they had worked with or under supervisors of different gender and leadership styles.

Gender and Leadership Styles

The results are shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Current supervising officers by gender



Source: Field data, 2018.

The study revealed that out of the 218 respondents selected, 206 of them indicated that their supervisors were males whilst 12 of them also indicated that they had females as their current supervisors; representing 74 per cent and 26 per cent respectively.

In effect, 86 respondents indicated that their supervisors did include subordinates in decision making processes, representing 39 per cent. In addition, a significant number of 102 respondents who represented 47 per cent of the respondents revealed that supervisors in the institution always take decisions alone as shown in Table 5.

However, 22 respondents indicated 'not sure' whilst the remaining 8 respondents chose 'other', representing 10 per cent and 4 per cent respectively. The results indicates that majority of staff in leadership positions who are mostly males often take decisions without consulting their subordinates.

In a related manner, many researchers have expressed divergent views on the extent to which gender could be a determining factor of a person's leadership style. In their response to how gender influences staff leadership

style in the Tamale Technical University, it was discovered that overwhelming majority of the respondents agreed that gender greatly determines a person's leadership style.

Table 5: Forms of decisions by supervisors in Tamale Technical University

Forms of Decisions	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Includes subordinates	86	39
Takes decisions alone	102	47
Not sure	22	10
Other	8	4
Total	218	100

Source: Field data, 2018.

Gender is described as social and cultural characteristics which distinguish women from men thereby leading to socially constructed roles, behaviours, activities. As indicated in Table 6, 72 (33%) respondents indicated strongly 'agree' whilst 93 (43%) indicated 'agree' and these give the indication that gender influences staff leadership style in the university.

Table 6: Gender as determinant of leadership style

Level of Agreement	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Strongly agree	72	33
Agree	93	43
Disagree	40	18
Strongly disagree	13	6
Total	218	100

Source: Field data, 2018.

On the other hand, 40 respondents who represented 18 per cent of the entire respondents disagreed that gender determines one's leadership style. The remaining 13 (6%) respondents also strongly disagreed with the assertion. In this regard, it is observed that majority of the respondents attest to the fact that gender has an influence on a person's leadership style.

Female Leadership Characteristics

From the analyses of their responses, it was found that female leaders mostly use participation to build consensus with subordinates. That is a significant number of respondents (78) who constituted 36 per cent strongly agreed with the assertion that female supervisors in Tamale Technical University always use participation to build consensus with subordinates. Similarly, 92 respondents representing 42 per cent also agreed with the assertion that female supervisors in the university use participation to build consensus as indicated in Table 7.

Table 7: Female staff and use of participation at work

Variables	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Strongly agree	78	36
Agree	92	42
Disagree	32	15
Strongly disagree	16	7
Total	218	100

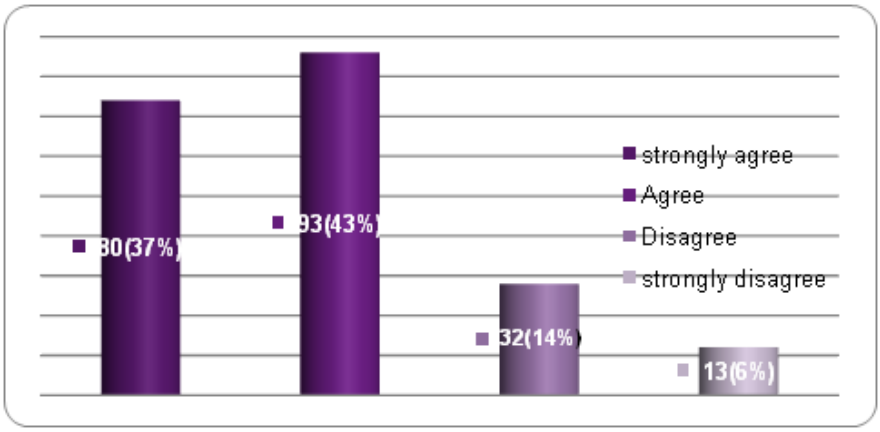
Source: Field data, 2018.

From Table 7, one may observe that 32 (15%) respondents disagreed with the assertion whilst an insignificant number of 16 respondents who represented 7 per cent indicated that they strongly disagreed. There was the indication that female supervisors in the study area mostly use participation to build consensus with their subordinates. It was revealed that female supervisors in the study area share power and delegate subordinates to take decisions on their behalf. For example, 80 (38.5%) respondents strongly agreed that female supervisors share power and delegate subordinates to take decisions on their behalf as indicated in Figure 3.

Categorically, it could be stated that female staff of Tamale Technical University practice transformational leadership style as they are more willing to share power and delegate subordinates to take decisions on their behalf.

The study compared these leadership characteristics to behavioural characteristics of female staff in the Tamale Technical University and it was revealed that female supervisors were less likely to exhibit these leadership characteristics as illustrated in Table 8.

Figure 3: Sharing of power and delegation of subordinates by female supervisors



Source: Field data, 2018

Table 8: Monitoring of Subordinates' and spelling out rules by Female Supervisors

Monitoring subordinates	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Strongly agree	38	17
Agree	54	25
Disagree	88	41
Strongly disagree	38	17

Source: Field data, 2018.

Also, 38 (17%) respondents strongly agreed that female supervisors monitor subordinates' irregularities, mistakes and deviations. Similarly, 54 (25%) respondents merely agreed to the assertion that female supervisors do focus much attention on mistakes, irregularities and deviations of subordinates.

On the contrary, an overwhelming number of 88 (41%) respondents disagreed with the assertion whilst 38 (17%) of them also strongly disagreed with the assertion that female leaders in the institution do focus their attentions on subordinates' mistakes, irregularities and deviations.

Analysis of the field data revealed that female staff in the university did practice participatory leadership style as illustrated in Table 9. Statistically, 68 (31%) respondents strongly agreed that female supervisors in the Technical University always spell out clear rules and enforce them on

subordinates. Also, 72 respondents simply agreed with the assertion that female staff always spell out clear rules and enforce them on subordinates, representing 33 per cent.

Table 9: Female supervisors and spelling rules and enforcing them on subordinates

Spelling out rules	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Strongly agree	68	31
Agree	72	33
Disagree	48	22
Strongly disagree	30	14
Total	218	100

Source: Field data, 2018.

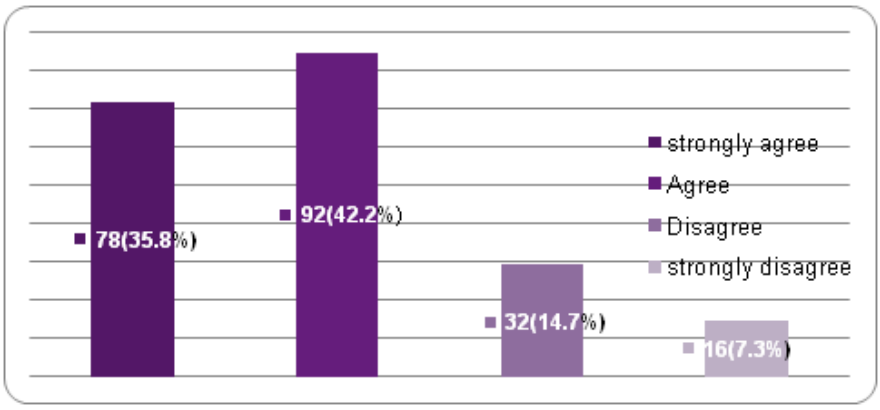
It is also worth noting that an insignificant number of the respondents expressed opposing views on the assertion giving the indication that female employees are more transactional in the spelling out of rules and enforcing them.

Male Leadership Characteristics

In trying to find out male supervisors' way of leading in relation to participation by subordinates in decision making process and policy formulation, views of majority of the respondents indicated that male supervisors in the study area always use participation as a way of involving subordinates in decision making processes. In comparison, the male employees are practising similar transformational leadership style as their female counterparts since both of them use participation to involve their subordinates in decision making processes. As illustrated in Figure 4, 78 (35.8%) respondents strongly agreed that male supervisors use participation to build consensus in policy formulation whilst 92 respondents who constituted 42.2 per cent of the sample also indicated that they simply agreed with the assertion that men do use participation to build consensus with subordinates.

On the contrary, only a few of the respondents objected to the view that male employees use participation to take decisions with subordinates. In a related manner, the study also sought views of respondents on whether

Figure 4: Use of participation and sharing of power by male staff



Source: Field data, 2018.

male supervisors share powers with and delegate subordinates to take decisions in the institution. The results are illustrated in Table 10. Analyses of responses obtained from the respondents suggested that male supervisors in the study area share power with subordinates and as well delegate them to take decisions on their behalf.

Table 10: Sharing of power and delegation by male supervisors

Sharing of power	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Strongly agree	80	36.7
Agree	93	42
Disagree	32	14.7
Strongly disagree	13	5.9
Total	218	100

Source: Field data, 2018.

The statistical results indicate that 80 (36.7%) respondents indicated 'strongly agree' and 93 (42%) of them also indicated 'agree'. On the other hand, less than 20 per cent of the respondents reported that male supervisors in the study area do not share powers with or delegate subordinates to take decisions on their behalf. In effect, both male and female employees are found to again have common leadership characteristic in the use of power sharing and delegation of subordinates in decision making.

With the data obtained from the field study, 38 of the respondents strongly agreed that male supervisors normally monitor subordinates' irregularities, mistakes and deviations, representing 17 per cent. Similarly, 54 respondents who constituted 25 per cent of the respondents also indicated that they simply agreed that male supervisors concentrate on monitoring subordinates' irregularities, mistakes and deviations at work as shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Monitoring of subordinates' irregularities, mistakes and deviations by male supervisors

Monitoring subordinates	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Strongly agree	38	17
Agree	54	25
Disagree	88	41
Strongly disagree	38	17
Total	218	100

Source: Field data, 2018.

However, majority of the respondents were of the opinion that male supervisors do not monitor subordinates' irregularities, mistakes and deviations at work. Noting from the results, one could realise that quite a significant percentage of the respondents confirmed that male supervisors do not monitor subordinates' irregularities, mistakes and deviations at work. This finding therefore refutes the arguments of Hakim (2000), Rosener (1990) and Helgesen (1990) who in their works postulate that male supervisors or leaders are more transactional in their style of leadership. In this respect, though male employees slightly dominate, a comparison of the responses further indicates that both male and female employees are less likely to monitor subordinates' irregularities, mistakes and deviations at work.

Probing further, respondents' views were also elicited on whether males in the institution always spell out clear rules and enforce them on subordinates as seen in Table 12. According to the data obtained from the study, 68 (31.2%) respondents strongly agreed whilst 72 (33%) of them also indicated 'agree'. The remaining 48 and 30 respondents however indicated 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree', representing 22 per cent and 13.8 per cent respectively.

Table 12: Male supervisors and spelling of rules and enforcing them on subordinates

Spelling out rules	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Strongly agree	68	31.2
Agree	72	33
Disagree	48	22
Strongly disagree	30	13.8
Total	218	100

Source: Field data, 2018.

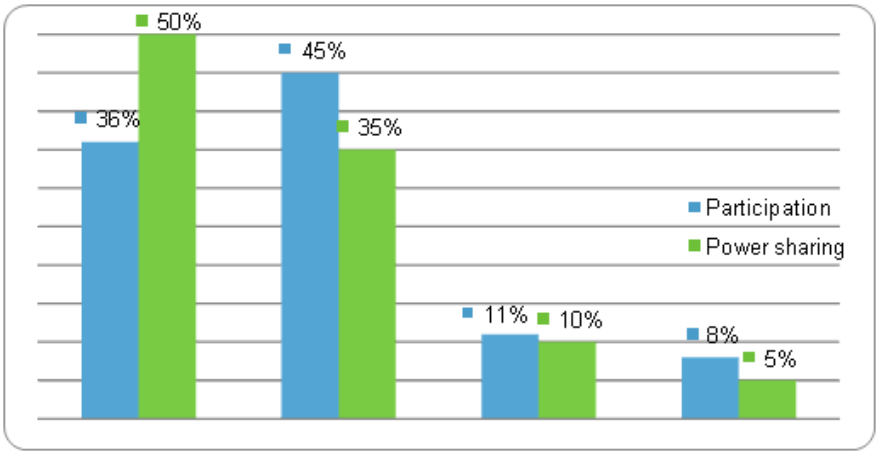
By indication, majority of the respondents suggested that male supervisors in the study area always spell out clear rules and enforce them on subordinates. In this regard, the male employees differ from their female counter parts in the practice of this transactional leadership characteristic as the earlier results indicated that the female staff do not spell out rules and enforce them on their subordinates.

Leadership Styles and Productivity

Consensual leadership style through participation of subordinates strengthens group connections. As to how these impacts on productivity in the study area, respondents were asked to evaluate how participation on consensus building could influence efficient performance of staff in Tamale Technical University. The results indicated that the morale of staff would be boosted to efficiently perform if supervisors allow them to participate in decision making processes and this has the effect of increasing productivity. As illustrated in Figure 5, 78 and 99 respondents indicated 'strongly agree' and 'agree', representing 36 per cent and 45 per cent respectively.

In another view, an insignificant number of the respondents refuted the claim that participation and consensus building could bring about efficient performance as contained in the results displayed above. From the analyses, it is clear that consensual decisions through the use of participation of subordinates could impact positively on their performance. Furtherance to the assessment of leadership characteristics on performance and productivity, the study also solicited views of respondents on power sharing and delegation of subordinates to take decisions influence performance.

Figure 5: Use of Participation and Power sharing on Productivity



Source: Field data, 2018.

Data obtained indicated that 109 respondents strongly agreed that delegation and sharing of power with subordinates could improve staff innovation and performance, representing 50 per cent. Similarly, 76 (35%) respondents also opted for 'agree'. In another perspective, only 15 per cent of the respondents showed that they disagreed with the assertion that delegation and sharing of power with subordinates could improve staff innovation and performance.

As indicated earlier, female employees were found to have dominated their male counterparts in sharing of power and delegation of subordinates to take decisions.

In examining how transactional leadership characteristics influence performance and productivity, study concentration of subordinates' irregularities, mistakes and deviations by supervisors. The analyses of the data showed an inverse relationship between concentration of subordinates' mistakes, irregularities as well as deviations and their performance level. The results are illustrated in Table 13. That is, only 26 (12%) respondents strongly agreed whilst 54 (25%) respondents also indicated that they simply agreed that supervisors paying attention on subordinates' mistakes, irregularities and deviations lead to better performance.

In another view, an overwhelming majority of 84 of the respondents (38%) disagreed whilst the remaining 54 respondents who also constituted 25 per cent of the sample population strongly disagreed with the idea that

paying attention to irregularities and deviations of subordinates could enhance job performance. Leadership styles influence efficiencies and productivities.

Table 13: Influence of irregularities, mistakes and deviations on performance

Variables	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Strongly agree	26	12
Agree	54	25
Disagree	84	38
Strongly disagree	54	25
Total	218	100

Source: Filed data, 2018

Views of the respondents as contained in the Table 14 revealed that 76 of them indicated 'disagree' whilst 11 of them also opted for 'strongly disagree', representing 35 per cent and 5 per cent respectively.

Table 14: Spelling out clear rules for subordinates and its influence on performance

Clear rules & productivity	*Frequency*	*Percentage (%)*
Strongly agree	54	24.7
Agree	77	35.3
Disagree	76	35
Strongly disagree	11	5
Total	218	100

Source: Filed data, 2018

It points to the fact that spelling out clear rules and enforcing them on subordinates by the leader de-motivate staff to perform and this lowers productivity. In effect, the findings of the study disagree with Muna (2008) assertion that spelling out clear rules by transactional leaders could bring about achievement of target outputs.

Discussion

The study revealed a higher number of males than females among the employees of the Tamale Technical University and this could lead to a situation

in which decisions relating to gender are taken in favour of male staff. Another effect is that female staff could be scared from making meaningful contributions during committee meetings.

Per the gender disparity in favour of male staff in the institution, it gives the indication that there was more youthful male staff than their female counterparts and this presents a threat to the achievement of gender balance in the institution. However, the youthful nature of the employees gives the university a competitive advantage in terms of productivity.

From the analyses, one could observe that majority of the respondents had accessed tertiary education meaning that the university has strong human resource base in terms of educated personnel. The indication is that most of these respondents occupied positions of leadership in one way or the other thereby making it possible for this study to obtain in-depth information from their rich experiences in leadership. This potential if properly tapped, could also contribute meaningfully towards the realisation of the university's vision of becoming the best middle level personnel developer especially in the northern part of Ghana and the whole country at large.

Policies and decisions involving institutional governance and leadership direction largely depend on staff in these ranks. The level of success or failures of policies in the university will largely depend on the contribution of its employees as they are likely to be heavily represented on Academic Board and its sub-committees. These factors also help in the enrichment of staff experience with regard to the functions and governance structures of the university.

The indication is that many of these respondents were very conversant with institutional structures, dynamics and processes of the university. As a result, the employees stand the chance of gaining rich experience on how decisions at leadership levels are taken in the university.

From the analyses, one could conclude that there are more males in leadership positions in the university than there are females. As a result, women are likely to be less represented in committees and other bodies responsible for policy formulations and implementations in the institution. This also has the tendency of gender bias policies and programmes being formulated.

It is therefore imperative to note that the responses hold true with assertions of many gender researchers including Rosener (1990), Butterfield and Grinnell (1999) and Park (1996) that gender determines a person's

leadership styles. It could therefore be argued that gender determines the style of leadership being practiced in the university.

However, non-usage of participation in consensual building by female supervisors cannot also be ruled out completely. This also attests to the fact that women in the university are more transformational since they are more likely to adopt consensus in decision making.

In this sense, Bass' (1990) assertion that women are less transactional in leadership style holds true with findings of the study. This therefore gives an indication that female supervisors in Tamale Technical University do not concentrate on subordinates' mistakes, irregularities and deviations at work. Hence, they are less transactional in their style of leadership in this regard.

Contrary to the earlier revelation that female employees adopt more transformational leadership characteristics in their positions of leadership, one stands to agree with the assertion of Natalia (2010) that females often adopt multiple leadership styles and apply each of them to different situations.

Therefore, one could argue that too much attention on subordinates' irregularities, mistakes and deviations by leaders could lower their performance and hence low productivity. The discovery made in this wise confirms Muna (2008) assertion that transactional leadership styles have been ineffective in providing satisfaction to employees to perform.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study examined leadership styles of Tamale Technical University staff by gender with reference to whether gender is related to leadership styles, characteristics of male and female leadership styles as well as the relationship between leadership styles and productivity. The discussion of the results of this study showed that gender determines staff leadership styles.

The study established that female employees in Tamale Technical University adopt more of transformational leadership behavioural traits than transactional leadership characteristics as they use consensus building through participation and sharing of power with subordinates than their male counterparts.

Conversely, male staff dominated in the practice of transactional leadership style as they spelt out clear rules and enforced them on subordinates and also monitored their mistakes. However, both male and female supervisors practiced some form of both transactional and transformational leadership characteristics.

The study further established that transformational leadership characteristics such as the use of participation, sharing of power with and delegation of subordinates in decision making promote higher productivity than transactional leadership characteristics. On the bases of the above findings, the following recommendations are made:

- It is recommended that the authority should encourage the use of consensus building in decision making and also allow participation of all employees, irrespective of their sex or ranks, in policy formulations and implementations. These would inculcate into the staff a sense of belongingness and the need for them to contribute their quota to the development of the university.
- It is further recommended that the university authority and employers in general should regularly offer leadership trainings to staff. These will expose them to knowledge of best leadership practices required for efficient performance and productivity in corporate institutions.
- The findings that female employees are more transformational while male are more transactional needs to be confirmed in other Universities in Ghana.

Finally, it is recommended that further research be conducted into other aspects of leadership such as factors influencing people's leadership styles and effects of leadership styles on labour turn-over in the Education Sector in Ghana.

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The Effects of Teachers' Pedagogical Communicative Practices on Students' Learning Experiences

TEBOGO MOGASHOA & AKUA TIWAA ANKOMAH

Abstract

This study examined the effects of teachers' Pedagogical Communicative Practices (PCP) on students' academic achievement. It employed the concurrent nested mixed methods design. A questionnaire and observation guide were used to collect data from 481 respondents (made up of two heads of schools, 54 teachers, and 425 students) selected from 34 senior high schools in the Ahafo, Bono and Bono East Regions of Ghana. These were analysed using means and standard deviation. Findings from the study showed that practices employed by teachers help students to feel comfortable in class, increase their participation and engagement, take risks, and achieve better academic performance. Teachers are seen as role models and mentors in the classroom. The selection of appropriate pedagogical communicative practices has much impact on students' learning experiences and every action taken by teachers has a lasting effect on their students' academic life and beyond. Teachers are expected to adopt practices that will instigate higher academic achievement and better social behaviour in the lives of their students.

Introduction

The ability and wisdom of teachers in handling learning activities in school will have a direct impact on learners' active involvement in learning activities (Copriady, 2014). Pedagogical competency refers to the skills and personality of a teacher in handling the instructional process with the help of instructional methods, teaching aids and resource (Ugbe, 2000). The competencies of teachers incorporate a range of subject knowledge content, an understanding of learning styles and methods, and how to translate such knowledge into effective instructional methods while developing an ability to comprehend and nurture the unique person in every learner (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Noddings, 2007). According to Rivkin, Hanushek and Kain (2005), various factors influence academic performance of students in schools, including, among others, teaching methods and the utilisation of instructional resources.

Teachers' pedagogical communicative practice refers to all the

classroom discourse strategies and language behaviours of the teacher to facilitate effective transmission of messages and instructions to students to enable them gain access to knowledge and opportunities to advance their learning. Research examining teacher characteristics confirms the logical conclusion that poor academic performance of pupils correlates strongly with poor quality of teachers teaching them in school (Anselmus, 2011). Effective student learning and academic performance are hampered by weaknesses in teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and classroom behaviours including their communicative practices (Akyeampong, Pryor & Ampiah, 2006). For instance, whereas appropriate instructional methods would facilitate grasping of new concepts, inappropriate methods are likely to constrain knowledge retention and application, leading consequently to poor academic performance by students (Chang, 2010).

Statement of the Problem

Although several factors contribute to student learning and success, the teacher's role in this learning process is pivotal. Teachers are the direct implementers of the school curriculum and, hence, wield an invaluable influence in the provision of education. Indeed, much rests on the shoulders of teachers, as they directly impart knowledge to students. The general expectation from both parents and the general public has, thus, been for teachers to ensure that the students they teach perform well academically, and often, they receive blame for the academic failures of their students. One major aspect of teachers' engagement with students during the curriculum implementation process is their pedagogical communication. This is the primary tool by which the teacher interacts with the students to facilitate their learning. A cursory look at the performance statistics of students in the West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) in the Ahafo, Bono and Bono East Regions indicates that between 2015 and 2018, some schools consistently obtained 100 per cent pass while others struggled in respect of their students' performance. (The three regions, which until recently were together as one region are somehow considered as the middle belt of Ghana in terms of geographical location.) It appears no direct study has been conducted on the connection between teachers' pedagogical communicative practices and student learning and particularly in the three regions. It is, therefore, considered worthwhile to examine the connection between teachers' pedagogical communicative practices and students'

academic achievement, and the extent to which the former influences the latter in those three medial regions of Ghana.

Literature Review

Research suggests that competent teachers set the tone of the classroom by developing encouraging relationships with their students and designing lessons that build on students' strengths and abilities (Ubit, 2017). They establish and implement behavioural guidelines in ways that promote intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, they coach students through conflict situations, encouraging cooperation among the students and acting as a role model for respectful and appropriate communication and exhibitions of pro-social behaviour (Ubit, 2017).

The study by Ubit (2017) further revealed that the pedagogical communicative practices (PCPs) adopted by Accounting teachers in the discharge of their duties as implementers of the curriculum, help keep students focused on what is being taught in class, increase their participation and engagement and achieve better academic performance. Again, the study emphasised that Accounting teachers acknowledge and publicly appreciate diverse cultural and social points of view of students. This helps build students' confidence in order that they would see the importance of endeavouring to discover new Accounting knowledge virtually on their own. Sharing a similar perspective, Varga (2017) argues that if student perceive that they are welcomed and wanted in the classroom, they become motivated and participate freely in the class. Thus, the role the teacher plays in the classroom affects the perception students have on the relationship and the classroom environment, which ultimately contributes to achievement. Again, Ubit (2017) specified that although students were hesitant to speak in the classroom they generally expected teachers to deliver their lessons in a way that is easy for them to understand, with some humour so they would not be bored. Again, they expect teachers to explain the lesson first to them until they understand and also willing to repeat if they do not understand.

In addition, Accounting teachers are able to adopt practices that motivate students to strive to be the best, enjoy studying, build their confidence to take risk and encourage them to take ownership of outcomes of their actions and behaviour in the classroom. The teachers do this through the use of body gestures to make students feel comfortable in class to ask and answer questions, and through the use of appropriate teaching and

learning resources that help students to understand Accounting concepts, among others. Also, Accounting teachers ensure that students remain on task, pay attention and show interest in Accounting lesson and relate Accounting concepts to practical things outside the classroom.

Varga (2017) suggests that the most powerful predictor of a learner's motivation is their perception of control. He notes that because students already have a history of experiences on whether adults are attuned to their needs, teachers build on these experiences and that a student's perception of the teacher's behaviour impacts the relationship. Consequently, students who feel their teacher is not supportive towards them have less interest in learning and are less engaged in the classroom. According to Morayo (2015), the interaction in the classroom entails an active encounter of the teacher and the learner through verbal, gestural and resource instrumentality to bring about effective communication in the teaching-learning process. She added that the form of the teacher's initiation will go a long way to influence the kind of activities or interaction that will go on in the classroom (Morayo, 2015).

Research Method

The study adopted the concurrent nested mixed methods design, which was anchored as an embedded design through concurrent nested strategy. This design allows a researcher to use one dataset to play an auxiliary role to the primary data type (Creswell, Plano, Clark, *et al.*, 2003). This means that in a pure quantitative research, qualitative data can be gathered to address some research issues and vice versa. The basis for using the embedded design is the assumption that a single data type is not sufficient to address all the research questions (Creswell, *et al.*, 2003).

The target population of the study comprised teachers and students of senior high schools (SHSs) that offer Accounting in the Ahafo, Bono and Bono East Regions of Ghana. Currently, there are 72 public senior high schools within 27 districts in the Ahafo, Bono and Bono East Regions. In order to make the study more representative and authentic, out of these 72 public senior high schools, 34 senior high schools offering Accounting were randomly selected. The population in these 34 SHS constituted 425 students and 54 teachers. All the Accounting teachers in the selected schools were included in this study using a census survey. Forms two and three students were directly involved in the study and were randomly selected. This was

to ensure that the students had gained at least one-year experience to be able to speak to that experience sufficiently.

Results

The study had the main objective of describing the effects of teachers' pedagogical communicative practices on students learning experiences. The teachers and students sampled provided responses to the survey items related to the effects of pedagogical communicative practices. Table 1 presents a summary of the responses and observation results of the Accounting teachers on their pedagogical communicative practices and their effects.

Pedagogical Communicative Practices of Teachers and their Effects

Three pedagogical communicative practices (PCPs) and their effects recorded mean values of 4.5 and higher as noted from Table 1. These PCPs and their effects are: "It is ensured that students remain on task, pay attention and show interest during teaching for them to get the understanding of the concepts in the lesson" (M = 4.54, SD = .54), "Accounting concepts are related to practical things outside the classroom to help students see the usefulness of the information given in class" (M = 4.70, SD = .46) and "What students have learned and the general things they already know are used to help them understand new concepts in Accounting" (M = 4.66, SD =.62). The standard deviation of the three responses indicated the homogeneity in their responses. On the issue of relating Accounting concepts to practical things outside the classroom by teachers in making students see the usefulness of their information which was the highest, it was confirmed by the result from the observation results of M=3.86 and SD=0.86. Other effects from the responses includes teachers agreeing to the use of teaching and learning resources to help students understand the Accounting content (mean= 4.20, SD=0.79). A standard deviation of 0.79 indicated that teachers have similar responses.

Teachers agreed strongly that they acknowledge and publicly appreciate diverse cultural and social points of view which enables students to participate in class discussions (M=4.41, SD=0.57). A Standard deviation of 0.57 indicated that teachers were homogeneous in their responses. With a mean of 3.14 and a standard deviation of 1.23, teacher responses were confirmed by the result from the observation that teachers sometimes publicly

Table 1: Teachers' Pedagogical Communicative Practices and Effects

No.	*Responses*	*Teachers*			
		Responses		*Observation*	
		Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*
1.	Tone of teaching voice indicates seriousness and mastery of the core Accounting concepts	4.34	1.00	3.21	1.67
2.	Criteria to be used for assessment are clearly communicated to students for them to prepare for lessons	3.59	1.21	–	–
3.	Body gestures make students feel comfortable to contribute in class	4.44	0.57	–	–
4.	Teaching and learning resources that help students to understand the Accounting concepts are used	4.20	0.79	3.9	0.83
5.	It is ensured that students remain on task, pay attention and show interest during teaching for them to get the understanding of the concepts in the lesson	4.54	0.54	–	–
6.	Accounting concepts are related to practical things outside the classroom to help students see the usefulness of the information given in class	4.70	0.46	3.86	0.86
7.	Teachers' attractive and smart dressing encourages students pay attention in class	3.94	1.07	–	–
8.	Diverse cultural and social points of view are acknowledged and publicly appreciated from which students participate in class discussions	4.41	0.57	3.14	1.23
9.	Students are assisted by Teacher to uncover the knowledge construction process involved in learning and to discover new knowledge	–	–	3.93	0.62
10.	What students have learned and things they already know are used to help them understand new concepts in Accounting	4.66	0.62	–	–
	Mean of Means/Average Std Dev	4.31	0.7	3.61	1.04

Source: Fieldwork (2018).

Mean values: *Strong Disagree (1); Disagree (2); Uncertain (3); Agree (4); Strongly Agree (5).*

appreciate diverse cultural and social points of views of students. Again, teachers agreed that the tone of voice used in teaching indicates seriousness and mastery of the core Accounting content. (M=4.34, SD=1.00). The standard deviation value of 1.0 indicates that teachers were heterogeneous in their responses.

In sum, the results implied that teachers have a clear knowledge of the perceived effects of the pedagogical communicative practices (Mean of means=4.31, average standard deviation=0.70). However, the average standard deviation of 0.70 indicated that the teachers' responses were homogeneous. As such, they affirmed that they have a clear perception of the effect of their pedagogical communicative practices. This was supported by the results from the observation where it was observed that Accounting teachers frequently adopt practices that have positive influence on their students' achievement. This came with a mean of (3.61) and an average standard deviation of 1.04. Table 2 presents a summary of views of students on the effects of teachers' pedagogical communicative practices.

The results from Table 2 showed that the student respondents agreed that teachers use resources that help them to understand Accounting concepts (Mean=4.27, SD=1.01). The standard deviation value of 1.01 indicates that students had varied responses regarding teachers' use of teaching and learning resources in teaching Accounting, with all their responses showing teachers making good use of teaching and learning resources to teach Accounting concepts.

Students affirmed the responses from the teachers that Accounting teachers relate Accounting concepts to practical things outside the classroom and also help them to see the usefulness of the information they give in class (Mean=4.25, SD=0.97). The standard deviation value of (0.97) showed that the students had homogeneous responses.

In addition, mean scores for students reveal that teachers' tone of voice in teaching indicates seriousness and mastery of the core Accounting concepts (Mean=3.01, SD=1.40). Standard deviation value of 1.40 indicated that students had heterogeneous responses hence disagreed.

Furthermore, with a mean of 4.07 and standard deviation value of (1.09), students agreed the teachers constantly review their previous knowledge and use the general things they already know to help them understand new concepts in Accounting. The standard deviation value of 1.09 indicates the differences in students' responses. Students, just like the teachers, also agreed that teachers ensure that students remain on task, pay

Table 2: Views of students on the Effects of Teachers' Pedagogical Communicative Practices

No.	*Items*	*Mean*	*SD*
1.	Teacher uses teaching and learning resources that helps me to understand Accounting concepts	4.27	1.01
2.	Teacher ensures that you remain on task, pay attention and show interest when he/she is teaching so that you get the understanding of the concepts in the lesson	3.73	1.36
3.	Teacher constantly gives the assurance that students are good so we always contribute in the Accounting class	3.90	1.15
4.	Teacher relates Accounting concepts to practical things outside the classroom which enable us to see the usefulness of the information he/she gives in class	4.25	0.97
5.	Teacher publicly values different cultural and social points of view from the class so we do not feel intimidated	3.79	1.23
6.	Teacher communicates clearly to us the criteria that would be used for assessment for us to prepare for lessons	3.91	1.17
7.	Teacher's tone of voice in teaching indicates seriousness and mastery of the core Accounting concepts	3.01	1.40
8.	Teacher's dressing shows how seriously he/she takes the profession and the impact it has on us to become Accounting teachers	3.71	1.36
9.	Teacher is always attractively and smartly dressed so I pay attention to him/her in class	3.85	1.21
10.	Teacher's body gestures make me feel comfortable to speak during instructional hours	3.45	1.29
11.	Teacher constantly reviews your previous knowledge and use the general things you already know to help you understand new concepts in Accounting	4.07	1.09
12.	Teacher's continuously use of integrating core concepts from various subject areas helps you understand concepts you learn in Accounting	4.21	0.96
	Mean of Means/Average Std Dev	3.85	1.18

Source: Fieldwork (2018).

Mean values: *Strong Disagree (1); Disagree (2); Uncertain (3); Agree (4); Strongly Agree (5).*

attention and show interest when they are teaching to get the understanding of the concepts (M=3.73, SD=1.36). The standard deviation value of (1.36) indicates that the students were heterogeneous in their responses.

In short, the results implied that students have unclear perceived effects about teachers' pedagogical communicative practices (Mean of means=3.85, Average Standard Deviation=1.18). The average standard deviation of 1.18 indicates that the students' responses could be interpreted as heterogeneous as they affirmed that their views on the effects of teachers' pedagogical communicative practices are unclear.

Discussion

This study sought to solicit the views of students on the effect of pedagogical communicative strategies adopted by teachers during lesson delivery. It was found that practices employed by teachers help students to feel comfortable in class, increase students' participation and students' engagement, achieve better academic performance and help students to take risk.

Teachers are seen as role models and mentors in the classroom. Therefore, every action taken by teachers has a lasting effect on their students' academic life and beyond. Teachers are expected to adopt practices that will instigate higher academic achievement and better social behaviour in the lives of their students. Alluding to research findings, Ubit (2017) makes it clear that competent teachers set the tone of the classroom by developing and encouraging relationships with their students. They design lessons that build on students' strength and abilities, establishing and implementing behavioural guidelines in ways that promote intrinsic motivation. They also coach students through conflict situations, encouraging cooperation among students and act as role models for respectful and appropriate communication and exhibitions of pro-social behaviour.

Both teachers and students in the current study shared the view that pedagogical communicative practices adopted by Accounting teachers in the instructional process, help students to feel comfortable in class, increase students' participation and their engagement and achieve better academic performance. They also emphasised that Accounting teachers acknowledge and publicly appreciate diverse cultural and social points of view from students and help students to discover new Accounting knowledge on their own.

Buttressing this finding, Varga (2017) postulates that it becomes clear that if students perceive that they are welcomed and wanted in the classroom, they become motivated and participate effectively in the class. Thus, the role the teacher plays in the classroom affects the perception the students have on the relationship and the classroom environment, which ultimately contribute to achievement. Ubit (2017) specifies that although students found it difficult to express themselves, they generally expected teachers to deliver their lessons in a way that was easy for them to understand and to teach with some humour so they would not be bored. Again, they expect the teachers to explain the lesson first to them until they understand, and are willing to repeat if students do not understand.

In addition, Accounting teachers are able to adopt practices that motivate students to strive to be the best, enjoy studying, build their confidence to take risk and encourage them to take ownership of outcomes of their actions and behaviour in the classroom. They do this through the use of their body gestures to make students feel comfortable in class to ask and answer questions, appropriate teaching and learning resources that help students to understand Accounting concepts. Accounting teachers ensure that students remain on task, pay attention and show interest in the Accounting lesson and relate Accounting concepts to practical things outside the classroom.

In affirmation of this current finding, Varga (2017) suggests that the most powerful predictor of a child's motivation is the child's perception of control. He notes that because students already have a history of experiences with whether adults are attuned to their needs, teachers build on these experiences and that a student's perception of the teacher's behaviour impacts the relationship. In other words, students who feel their teachers are not supportive towards them have less interest in learning and are less engaged in the classroom. According to Morayo (2015), the interaction in the classroom entails an active encounter of the teacher and the learner through verbal, gestural and resource instrumentality to bring about effective communication in the teaching and learning process. She adds that the form of teacher initiation will go a long way to influence the kind of activities and interactions that will prevail in the classroom.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Established on the results of the study, the following conclusions are drawn

that the selection of appropriate pedagogical communicative practices have much impact on students' learning experiences. This is where the training that teachers have received is activated. At this point, teachers ought to fall on their professional skillset in order to deliver on the mandate for which their services are engaged. Students' learning experiences are further enhanced for utmost academic achievement if teachers are able to employ the most appropriate pedagogical communicative practices. Accounting teachers who are able to engage in the most appropriate pedagogical communicative practices enhance Accounting students' learning experiences, thereby ensuring academic success.

The effectiveness of Accounting teachers' pedagogical communicative practices contributes to students' academic performance. Teachers may engage in one form or another pedagogical communicative practice during their engagement with their students. But if these practices are not effective enough, the academic success of the students may not be guaranteed. Pedagogical communicative practices need to form part of the training of teachers for the senior high schools in order to prepare the teachers adequately for their assignments. Teachers are also expected to adopt practices that will instigate higher academic achievement and better social behaviour in the lives of their students.

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