

Viewing the influences of ‘the global’ on education in Ghana from the lens of Human Rights Approach

Moses Ackah Anlimachie

Department for Educational Research, Faculty of Educational Sciences
University of Oslo, Norway

Abstract

The impact of globalisation on education at the national level in Ghana has been remarkable. In view of this, researchers and scholars have tried to understand its features and influences from various academic lenses. This is because the term, ‘the global’ and its impact on ‘the local’, especially, as regarding educational evolution and development tend to defile a single theoretical basis for its understanding. This in turn gives its dynamic nature. This paper however attempts to explain the features and influences of ‘the global’ on national educational policies and programmes in Ghana. By so doing, the paper situates Ghana’s educational evolution and orientation in the human rights approach as it uncovers the features and influences of the global on her educational policies and programmes. The explanation the paper gives seeks to deepen the understanding of the workings of ‘the global’. Importantly, its dialectic with ‘the local’ to provide clue as to how ‘the local’ will be better informed and positioned in order to maximise the gains that accrue from globalization. The paper concludes by suggesting how Ghana and Africa can maximise the positives of globalisation.

Keywords: globalisation, education, human rights, evolution, policies, programmes, Ghana, Africa.

Introduction

The impact of globalisation on education at the national level in Ghana has been remarkable. In view of this, researchers and scholars have tried to understand its features and influences from various academic lenses. This is because the term, ‘the global’ and its impact on ‘the local’, especially, as regarding educational evolution and development tend to defile a single theoretical basis for its understanding. This in turn gives its dynamic nature. This paper however attempts to explain the features and influences of ‘the global’ on national educational policies and programmes in Ghana. By so doing, the paper situates Ghana’s educational evolution and orientation in the human rights approach as it uncovers the features and influences of the global on her educational policies and programmes.

Notwithstanding, the huge literature that exist on education and globalization discourse, specific examples on the Ghanaian context is limited, especially, when view the dialectic between the global and the local from the lens of human rights. The paper, therefore, narrows down to the Ghanaian context as it seeks find answers to the following questions; to what extent has the global educational paradigm shape educational evolution in Ghana? In what ways does Ghana educational trajectory

mimic that of the global in the rights approach to education? And in what ways can Africa and Ghana, in particularly, maximize the positives of globalization in education. As a methodological approach the paper uses a theoretical analysis of existing literature on the subject to answer the thesis of the paper. The choice of Ghana as the context for this paper is very significant for the following reasons; First, there are geographical and gender dichotomy in educational opportunities and experiences in Ghana. There is inequity in access and quality in education between the rural and the urban areas of Ghana. Furthermore, gender inequity in access, attendance, completion rate, and achievement at all levels of education in Ghana is glaring. And also, the recent global educational policy dissemination and Ghana educational policy orientation are very much ingrained in human rights perspective. Hence the choice of Ghana, therefore, elicits explanations which deepens the understanding of the workings of 'the global' and its dialectic with 'the local' to provide clue as to how 'the local' will be better informed and positioned in order to maximise the gains that accrue from globalization.

The paper is structured into five sections. The first section espouses the concept of globalization and its dialectic with the 'local'. The second discusses the theoretical framework which views education as human rights issue. The third briefly highlights on Ghana's economic, educational challenges and the inequalities that exist in her education. The fourth section situates the emergence of Ghana's education in the perspective of human rights and points out some of the influences of the 'global'. The fifth section juxtaposes Ghana's educational policies on the global MDGs and EFA goals to see the interplay between the global and the national in policy making. In the final leg, the rights/ justice approach was further used to discuss two key specific educational programmes in Ghana in the as it further unfold the impact of the global on the local. This paper concludes by suggesting how Ghana and Africa can maximise the positives of globalisation.

Concept of globalization and its dialectic with the local

According to Arnove (2013), in Arnove et al. (2013) globalization is "the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happening are shaped by events occurring many miles away" (p. 2.). It is a borderless phenomenon and its tentacles transcend through distance and time. It diffuses and spreads vertically and horizontally. This means it breeds both equal and unequal relationships or positive and negative relationships Educational globalisation can thus be defined as the spread of knowledge, ideas, paradigms and theories programmes, policies practices, personnel and funding cross borders through policy borrowing, hybridization, replacement, reinforcement, convergence, diffusion and adoption with the view of improving educational systems locally (Meyer, Boli, Thomas and Ramirez (1997); Silova, 2012). There is, therefore, reciprocal relationship between education and globalization. Education functions as a fuel for globalization and globalization also dictates the pace of education (Lauder et al. 2006).

The dialectic of the 'global' and the 'local' has been well debated in literature by several schools of thought. They are the hyper globalists, transformationalists and skeptists. According to the hyper globalist school of thought, the nation/state has been rendered powerless by the global. For the skeptists they hold the stance that the nation/state is untouched and still remains the driving force. However, the transformationalists hold a middle view. For them, globalization has transformed the nation-state (Lauder et al. 2006; Crossly & Watson, 2003). Whatever the perspective may be, the effect of globalization on the nation -state is very real, especially, when it comes to educational policies and funding in Africa and Ghana.

Theoretical/Analytical Framework

The paper used the social justice/human rights conceptual framework. According to the theory every human being, no matter the race, socio-economic background has the right to education of reasonable standard. It is premises on the goal that education should prepare the individual for social, economic and political participation. It should enhance cohesion and socialise the young that rights are naturally and sacredly inherent in the individual and that the rights to education is the individual greatest assets independent of any other person (Tomasevski, 2003; 2005).

The justice approach to education and development emerged as a remedial reaction to the failure of the economic growth theory and its counterparts in the human capital and capability theories. They fail to achieve the much touted trickledown effect. But rather widened the gap between the rich and the poor (World Bank, 2000; 2001). The global focus on education and development from the 1950s therefore shifted towards making more direct interventions in the socio-economic lives of the poor in the periphery areas. Conditional cash transfer programmes became fashionable and Africa and South America became the experimental sites of these programmes (Arnove et al., 2007)

The rights approach to educational discourse was formalised following the UN General Assembly proclamation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in the year 1948. On the specific provisions on education, Article 26 of the declaration states among other things that:

Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages... Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms...(UN,1948 Article 26,)

The rights/justice approach to education was further reinforced by the 1959 Declaration of Rights of the Child. It declared that every child is entitled to receive free compulsory elementary education. This was on the basis of equal opportunity without any discrimination. Significantly, it advocated for a special provision for children with special needs in order for them to fully participate. . Another relevant impetus which is also ingrained in the social justice theory is the Economic Cooperation of West Africa States (ECOWAS) protocol on Education and Training which Ghana is a signatory to. The protocol seeks to eliminate all forms of discriminatory acts against females. This is aimed at ensuring equity and full access to education at all levels. The rights approach to education was further invigorated by the World Declaration on Educational for All, Jomtiem (1990) & Daker (2000). It aims at ensuring that every child has access to and complete free compulsory primary education by the year 2015. It also aims at eliminating gender disparities and improving all aspect of the quality of education for all. These sum up into the MDGs 2- Education as an anti-poverty tool: targeting the poor (UNESCO, 2014).

In Ghana, the rights approach, especially girls education, has been championed by local NGOs like the 31st December Women's Movement and Federation of International Women Lawyer (FIDA) - Ghana chapter. Through seminars, workshops, fora, discussions, and lectures these organizations rallied support from all sectors of the society including professionals, politicians, NGO's trade unions, churches, women's groups, traders, autonomous indigenous groups, traditional rulers for the rights approach to education(FIDA-Ghana, 2014). These activities culminated into the 1992 Constitution granting Free Compulsory Basic Education for all.

The Contrasting Views and Criticisms of the Rights Theory

The rights approach, from the ensuing literature, tend to place more priority on the intrinsic value of education as it sees human rights as ends in themselves. This view contrasts that of the human capital approach which is more tilted towards the maximisation of economic returns (materialistic

outcomes) in education as it sees human beings as input factor for economic production and growth. This means that people such as the disabled whose economic productivity may be seen as unlikely to bring the needed return in education may be relegated to the background (Robeyens, 2006). To the human rights theorists, the dignity of every individual is paramount and must be attained and preserved through education no matter the perceived returns. The right to education for every child also implies that the government must mobilise the needed resources to offer a reasonably quality education for every child at all cost (UNICEF, 2003). This view also goes beyond the human capability theory as it makes it mandatory for the government to find the needed investment into education; it is not an option like the case of the capability theory, but a must. Robeyens (2006) criticises the justice theory as being overtly rhetorical. Many governments from developing countries have pay a lip service of largely granted every child a right to education, but still many children in their countries are out of school. He posits further that the justice theory is obsessed and fixated with the issue of enrolment, at the expense of completion rate. Notwithstanding, the justice theory was used by this paper because it sees human beings as the ultimate ends of educational goals (Tomasevski, 2003) and it addresses the issue of inequity and inequality in education like those dichotomy that has been highlighted in the case of access to and quality of education in Ghana.

In view of the above, the paper examines Ghanaian educational evolution in terms of policy and programme from the justice approach. This is done by reviewing some previous studies in line with international policies and programmes in education. The paper does not intend to play down the credibility of these studies but, seeks, to draw attention on issues in the context of Ghana that have not been given the needed attention; especially as far as how Ghana should be positioned to maximise the gains on globalisation.

Educational Challenges in Ghana and its dichotomy

There are many challenges confronting the education sector in Ghana. Some are lack of funds, poor infrastructure, lack of teaching and learning materials, ill-equipped laboratory, lack of quality teachers, poor motivation, poor professional development, and poor monitoring and evaluation. These challenges are microcosm of Ghana's current economic predicaments. According to the International Monetary Fund (2014), Ghana continues to face significant domestic and external vulnerabilities. It cited large fiscal deficit, slow growth, rising inflation, weak revenue performance, rising cost of debt servicing, large depreciation of the local currency, and weak export performance as some of the evidence. These have serious implications on funding of equitable quality education in Ghana.

More worryingly, there is a dichotomy in access of educational opportunities in Ghana between the privileged and the less privileged. First, there is north and south divide in access to educational opportunities. The northern regions of Ghana, which constitute the largest geographical area is very deprived as compare to the regions in the south. Most of the active economic activities and educational institutions, especially the tertiary ones are mostly concentrated in the southern part. The southerners are therefore more able to access education than the northerners. There is also a gender dichotomy as men dominate women in enrolment; completion rate and pursuing of technology base programmes. Lastly, there is a rural and urban dichotomy. The urban centers have more schools which are relatively better equipped in terms of infrastructure and teachers than the rural areas. For example, the proportion of the population which has never attended school in the rural areas (33.1%) is more than two times that of the urban area (14.2%). There is also a marked difference between males (9.1%) and females (14.3%) who have never attended school.

Evolution of education in Ghana and the global

Colonization and its impact on education and development in Ghana

Formal education was introduced in Ghana in the 16th Century by two main groups, Merchants and Christian Churches from Europe mostly Dutch, French and English who came into Africa for the purpose of trading and evangelism. The Merchants aimed at training mulatto children for employment as administrative assistants or soldiers whilst the Christian Missionaries was aiming to create an independent native church with a staff of well-educated local assistants, which was financed by Charity Groups Abroad (Foster, 1963). Hence the type of education placed more emphasis on literacy and numeracy at the expense of vocational and technical training (Adu Boahen, 1975). Ghana became British colony following a British proclamation of the existence of the Gold Coast Colony on July 24, 1874. Between 1821 and 1840 the British Crown authorities took control of the education system by financing a number of government schools, including one for girls. Both government and church-funded schools existed side-by-side and were based on the public 'monitorial' schools system then in England (Foster, 1963:49). Education became the privilege of a small minority, largely elite, male and urban and residing in the South of the country. In general, the social demand for education remained low. However, between the period 1911 and 1937, the enrolment of pupils in government and aided schools increased from around 18,000 to 44,000 (Foster, 1963).

Like that of the pre-colonial education system, the colonial educational system also placed much emphasis on literacy and numeracy acquisition. The aim then was to train people in arithmetic and communicative skills to facilitate trade. There was no attempt on industrialization hence vocational training was not given much attention. This colonial legacy in education still persists in 21st century Ghana as evident in the poor vocational and technical education in Ghana (Adu Boahen, 1975). The effect is that the country continues to be a mere exporter of primary products even after independence (Adu Boahen, 1975; Kay & Hymer). Colonialism - the genesis of globalization in Africa has fiercely been blamed as the bean of not only Ghana but African's socio-economic systemic failure as it laid a very weak foundation upon which the development trajectory of Ghana and Africa has been erected. This position was further reechoed in the recent 23rd Ordinary Session of the African Union Assembly of Heads of State and Government held in Malabo, on 26 June 2014 by the president of Equatorial Guinea, Teodoro Mbasogo. He argues that the neo-colonial domination of Africa had impeded development and has now metamorphosed into unfair pricing and western-imposed barriers to trade (Guardian Africa Network, 2014). However, in sharp rebuttal Barack Obama has told African leaders to stop making excuses for ongoing economic problems in their countries, and to look for solutions within rather than blaming the past. This position seems to be supported by the example of the South Africa who got independence very late yet have recorded significant successes, especially in education.

Post- colonial era and education

After independence in 1957 the focus was on making Ghana an industrialized country. A robust programme dubbed 'The Accelerated Development Plan for Education' was therefore set into motion in the mid- 1950s by the first president of Ghana-Dr. Kwame Nkrumah (Little, 2010). The aim was to provide rapid development of education at all levels. University of Science and Technology, and Polytechnics were established to train high technically skilled manpower for industry. At the secondary school level several model Senior Secondary Schools were established across the nation, and they were fairly distributed. Also in order to bridge north-south divide the government introduced the northern scholarship as part of the program to increase access of the

poor communities in the northern regions of Ghana to Secondary School. This scholarship covers boarding and feeding fees of students that hail from the three northern regions of Ghana. At the basic level, education was made compulsory and free and it was geared towards access. There was also an introduction of free text books at the primary and secondary levels. Many teachers' training colleges were established to produce qualified teachers for the basic schools. 'The Teacher Trainee Allowance', a cash transfer policy, was also introduced in the mid 60s to attract more academically brilliant students into teaching. The Ghana education trust fund and the Cocoa Marketing Board were established in the 60s to provide funding for education in Ghana (Kay & Hymner, 1992). The results were positive as there were increases not only in infrastructure, but also in enrolment and access at all levels. For example, the enrolment at basic level increased by approximately 150% by 1965 (Kay & Hymner, 1992). Also, many middle level personnel as well as teachers were turned out to fill gap in education and industries that were created by the exit of the British. The Accelerated Development Plan for Education and the Education Act of 1960 were birthed out of relatively wider consultations with stakeholders and with support from foreign experts. This may account for the success story. However, a number of challenges emerged. First, there were inadequate numbers of teachers to cope with the rapid increase in enrolment in the basic schools and the enrolment also outpaced infrastructure expansion. These affected the quality of education (Pimpong, 2006). Therefore, before 1970s Ghana educational policies had an orientation that seemed to be consistent with human capital approach of investing in people in order to produce a knowledgeable and skillful manpower to drive the wheel of socio-economic development. This in a way created inequality in development as well as in educational experiences between the rural and the urban milieu as most of the major infrastructures, school, teachers and factories were cited in the core centres of Accra, Tema, Takrodi and Kumasi. However, latter remedial programs like the introduction of the 'Teacher Trainee Allowance' and the policy of equitable distribution of model senior secondary schools countrywide, the northern scholarship and free basic school education are good examples of the justice approach to education as it expanded access in education. Another significant feature of the early post-colonial education system was that the nation has sufficient autonomy on the choice and the direction of policies and programmes as compare to recent times. This was due to the fact that education was mostly funded internally with little foreign support.

In 1966, the first military government (NLC) instituted the Kwapong Educational Review Committee which brought into the middle school system a two-year pre-vocational continuation classes (continuation schools) based on the industrial and farming needs of the country (Poku, Aawaar, Worae, 2013). This was envisaged to prepare the middle school graduates for the world of work. The academic track system was still based on the British system. However, this policy failed woefully as the students in those schools were keen to enter into secondary schools rather than vocational schools. The reason for the failure may be attributed to lack of sufficient consultation with stakeholders, including students and teacher before the rolling out of the policy. The, total expenditure in education during the NLC regime declined and there was also marked drop both in the school aged children in schools and trained teachers (Poku, Aawaar & Worae, 2013). This may be attributed to the unstable political, and the fact that the government refused to cooperate with the international players.

In 1978, Ghana introduced full structural adjustment policies supported by the Bretton Woods institutions. Public funding to education was massively cut and there was an increasing burden on parents to fund education. The effects include a further drop in enrolment and trained teachers. For examples, the high score of 75% of school enrolment for 6-14 years old and the 90.8% of trained teachers in schools recorded in 1965 dropped to 69.9% and 72% respectively in 1979. Ghana's GNP

per capita fell by 23% between 1975 and 1983 (Poku, Aawaar & Worae, 2013). Severe economic hardships and harsh revolutionary zeal of the military regime in 1981 caused many trained teachers in both primary and secondary schools to leave the country.

Another reform occurred in 1986/87 that shaped the structure of basic education in Ghana even up to today. The reform changed the basic and secondary education system from 17 to 12 years, with six (6) years of primary school, three (3) years of junior secondary school (JSS), and three years of senior secondary school (SSS). Basic education was reduced from eleven (11) to nine (9) years, but still in tandem with the British educational system (Poku, Aawaar & Worae, 2013). The reforms was intended to prepare the products from the JSS for further education, skill training, and to pursue self- determined paths of interest to enable them play a functional role in the society as informed, participatory citizens, and economic producers to improve the quality of their lives, the reforms was not successful for want of sufficient resources for practical work at the JSS level (Ministry of Education, 1996).

In recent times, the government's commitment towards achieving her educational goals line with the global (MGDs and the EFA strategies) has been expressed in several policy frameworks documents, text and reports including:

- Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I) 2002 – 2004 & (GPRS II) 2006 -2009
- The Government's White Paper on the report 2004
- Meeting the Challenges of Education in the 21st Century. (The report of the President's Commission on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, ERRC, October 2002).
- Education for All (EFA, UNESCO, Dakar, 2000) – international paper
- The Education Strategic Plan (ESP) covering 2003-2015 & 2010-2020

One of the three main thematic areas of the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS I & II) is the development of the nation's human resources base through the creation of competent manpower for development of the country whereby education is seen as an obvious impetus of meeting the MDGs by aligning its educational policies to the EFA strategies (Ministry of Education, 2005).

In 2004 the Government of Ghana White Paper on Education Reform outlines a new portfolio of major reforms and objectives aims to link schooling to the job market through alliances with private and public sector agencies. The innovation of the Reform is the inclusion of Kindergarten Education to the main stream of basic education in Ghana in line of the EFA strategy of improving early childhood education. The Reform also proposes that the medium of instructions in Kindergarten and Lower Primary were to be Ghanaian language complimented by English, where necessary (Ministry of Education, 2005). This is also in line with the EFA action plan and the 2008 Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous people which advocate for the rights of indigenous people and children to be taught in their mother tongue at least in the early stages of their education. The implementation of the reform objectives culminated in the Ghana Education Strategic Plan (ESP).

From this historical accounts, Ghana educational evolution has been continually shaped by a number of policy makers (mostly motivated by change in governments) and donors working together and compromising their original intentions in order to develop policies and programmes that are compatible to the Ghanaian context. Her history points to the fact that there were greater successes in policies and programmes that were based on wider consultations and inclusion of all

global partners. Another feature found is that Ghana educational evolution is ingrained in the human rights approach as most of her policies seek to widen the frontier of education by hooking every child anywhere in the country, especially the marginalized, into at least basic formal education. The Accelerated Education Plan of the 60s and the FCUBE show that even before Jomtiem (2000), Ghana had committed herself to universal access to basic education. However, it must be noted that the issue of quality which is also pertinent to the rights approach to education has not been sufficiently addressed for want of sufficient resources.

The Interplay between Ghana and the global in policy making strategies

The major stakeholders that shape educational policies at the national level according to Dale (2007), include public consultations, parliamentary debates, governing parties, commissions and councils, trade union representatives, employer organizations, professional associations, sectors of civil society, bilateral cooperation and international organizations. At the international level the major players are the UN and its specialized agencies, The World Trade organization(WTO), The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, multinational corporations/organizations, regional and professional, organizations, International NGOs, bilateral cooperation, national governments, research institutions, and individuals (Crossley & Watsson, 2003). Comparisons of the two suggest that there is a reciprocal relationship between the national and the global as each has a stake and interest in the other. However, the global seems to have the upper hands as it can amass resources more than the local. For example, being the first UN agency, UNESCO through its long standing in championing the course of universal basic education and functional literacy, has had a profound influence on global educational policies and thinking, especially as a right issue (Crossley and Watsson 2003). According to Crossly & Watsson (2013), there is a strong collaboration among donor organizations and national government with respect to educational development. For example the association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA), which was founded as Donors to Africa Education, brings together national, international and private donor agencies to formulate policies and these policy directions are then disseminated through several publications. Globalization, therefore, plays important role in national level policy making in term of funding and technical expertise as nations response to the global changes in order to become competitive and also (in the case of developing countries) to attract more funding from donor agencies (Jacobi 2012; Carnoy, 1999).

Dale (2007), suggests that the national education policy makers and planners interact with the global through two main general policy mechanisms. These are the traditional approach to policy making and planning which includes: Policy borrowing and Policy learning. The second one is externally induced mechanisms such as Policy Harmonization as evident in the EU- Bologna declaration; Policy Dissemination as seen in the OECD indicators- PISA; Policy Standardization as exemplifies in the UNESCO EFA goals; Policy Interdependence as evident in the global commitment in fighting climate change, global warming and terrorism. The last one is Policy Imposition as seen in the IMF and the World Bank's structural adjustment policies such as cost sharing, full cost recovery and privatization in education. The mechanisms of influence of the global on the local come in the form of policy advice, technical assistant, common policies and architecture for educational system, indicators, ranking, declarations, recommendations, guidelines, conventions, regional agreements, loans linked to programmes and policies and conditioned aid (Jacobi 2012; Dale, 2007). In terms of Policy Option and target setting, Ghana educational policy and reform goals are greatly influenced by international and sub-regional policy frameworks and declarations. Ghana's participation in, and endorsement of, international agreements like the EFA, the Declaration on the Rights of the Child, the Beijing Declaration on Women's Rights, the Lome Convention; the African

Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights and; the Convention on the Rights of the Child have greatly inform her educational policy strategies and goals. This means that the government tries to draw a balance between local interests and the bilateral and multilateral negotiations it had taken part in, as a guide to her policy making. The broad policy goals of Ghana Education Strategy Plan (ESP) lay strong emphasis on increasing access, equity and quality in education in consonance with the MDGs 2 and the EFA framework. The specific strategic goals relating to basic education are: to provide equitable access to good-quality child-friendly universal basic education, by improving opportunities for all children in the first cycle of education, that is, kindergarten, primary and junior high school levels (Government of Ghana, 2010). The specific targets stated in the ESP 2003-2015 are that: children everywhere, boys and girls alike will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling by 2015; to eliminate gender inequalities by 2015; and to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005 (Government of Ghana, 2003). From the above, we can say that education is viewed by both the global and local policy makers as welfare and right issues as they are premises on access, equity and quality.

In term of strategies the Ghana's ESP is greatly shaped by the global goals. The UN seeks to achieve the MDG2 & EFA targets by promoting EFA policies within a sustainable and well integrated sector framework clearly linked to poverty elimination and development through: ensuring the engagement and participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of strategies for educational development; developing responsive, participatory and accountable systems of educational governance and management; implementing an integrated strategies for gender equality in education and; enhancing the status, morale and professionalism of teachers in order to achieve the MDGs (UNESCO, 2000). Further, Johannesburg, 1999 also identified good practices and successful policies that are more appropriate to the African context to include: policies that seeks to accelerated access, with particular reference to policies of equity and female enrolment, including affirmative action; community involvement in school decision-making and administration; employment of teachers in their own community of origin; curriculum reform toward locally relevant subjects; the use of mother tongue as the language of instruction; evaluation based on an action-research paradigm and; management/statistical information systems in planning among others (UNESCO, 2000). Similarly, in the Ghana the guiding principles and strategies on basic education, for example, is to eliminate gender and other disparities that arises from exclusion and poverty; cater for excluded children in mainstream schools whenever possible; improve the quality of learning and teaching, and to promote the culture of lifelong learning at all levels and for all ages; develop an effective, efficient and properly rewarded teaching service; devolve delivery and fiscal systems of 1st and 2nd cycle of education to District Assemblies; ensure periodic review of education grants and allowances; and to strengthen monitoring, accountability management and planning in the education sector (Government of Ghana, 2010).

Furthermore, the principle of consensus building in decision making at the global level has influenced Ghana policy making process in recent times. According to Verger (2014), policy making in education is a complex process that seeks to include regional interests and views of all major stakeholders in international education, including businesses and private institutions. It involves several underground preparation and consultations. As evident by the deliberations of the Secretary-General's High-Level Panel of Eminent Persons on the Post-2015 Development Agenda:

The deliberations of the Panel were informed by the broad consultative process ... This includes national and global thematic consultations under the aegis of the United Nations Development Group (UNDG), regional consultations undertaken by the Regional Commissions, consultations with businesses around the world under the guidance of the UN

Global Compact, and the views of the scientific and academic community as conveyed through the Sustainable Development Solutions Network ...more than 5000 civil society organizations and 250 chief executive officers of major corporations who shared their valuable ideas and views during a series of consultations, both in person and online (UN, 2013)

Likewise, the Dakar Framework of Action (2000) was birth out of amalgam of ideas and reaffirmation of international stakeholders to commit themselves to the ten (10) EFA goals. Also, in the Johannesburg 1999 Regional Conference on EFA for Su-Saharan Africa, governments and representative of civil societies as well as the international development partners and agencies came together to reaffirm the EFA goals for Su-Saharan that education is a basic rights and a basic need for all African children hence the need of stakeholders to play their respective role in achieving the MDGs and EFA goals. Ghana's policy making process has also been greatly influenced by the high level of consultations and consensus building that occurs at the global level. For example, the 2006 educational reform process started with initiation of policy by Government (Ministry of Education). This was followed by District and Regional consultation meetings to gather inputs from the local people. This was followed by national forum where all stakeholders including international players converge to discuss and make inputs. An improved draft was then approved by cabinet. This was laid in parliament for the representatives of the people to make some inputs. Here Parliament Special Committee on Education was very active. The document went to cabinet for final considerations and the presidency issued a white paper on it to become the final policy document.

As a follow up to the recommendation of the 2006 reform Ghana Education Strategic Plan was drawn to cover the period 2003 to 2015, According to Government of Ghana (2010), the two volumes of the Ghana ESP are the outcome of year-long discussions and consultations between numerous stakeholders in the education sector, particularly those in District education offices, those in NGOs and our development partners. This interaction has provided assurance and confidence in the plan. Also, as a further followed up of the ESP, Ghana has set up Education Sector Annual Review (ESAR), which provide the opportunity for all stakeholders in the sector to work together and participate in the review of the education sector performance annually. This is to ensure the involvement of all stakeholders in the review and pool of resources to ensure harmonisation of programs and activities for the realization of the goals and objectives of the education sector. This is also to enhance accountability and transparency with the education sector (Government of Ghana, 2010). Therefore, as Haddad (1995) observes education policy making process in Ghana like that of the international level take into account the interests and inputs of the various stakeholders in education both at the national and international level. Hence the policies tend to enjoy high level of popular support which is key to its successful implementation.

In term of the policy implementation process the influence of the global on Ghana is very evident. UN and its specialized agencies and donor countries, have supported decision-makers in Ghana to develop solid and relevant education policies and strategies (such the GPRS, ESP the School Feeding Programme among others) and in managing their effective implementation. These supports come in the form of technical assistance in education policy analysis, the design of education sector development plans, and donor mobilization in support of educational priorities. The support also come in the form of institutional capacity-building in policy formulation, sector analysis, educational planning, policy simulation and dialogue, resource projections, sector management, programme monitoring and evaluation, and development cooperation (UNESCO, 2014). In Ghana, the implementations of educational policies are, therefore, highly supported and dependent on aid and loans from the global, hence they have a say in the direction of education in Ghana. The Ministry of

Education (MOE) is responsible for the formulation and implementation of educational policies in Ghana. The Ministry ensures that the national policies on education harmonise with the overall national development goals taking into cognizance the international paradigm on education. A minister of State of Cabinet Status heads the Ministry. The MOE is followed by the Ghana Education Service (GES) on the management structure which is the main agency for implementing approved pre-tertiary education policies and programmes under the GES Council, in accordance with the GES Act 1995 (ACT 506) (Republic of Ghana, 2002). The feature of Ghana educational policy evolution is, therefore, greatly influenced by the global through policy imposition, borrowing, harmonization and dissemination.

Discussion of some specific educational programmes in Ghana

The Directive Principles of State policy in Ghana envisages that basic education should be free, compulsory and universal and higher education should be made progressively free (Ministry of Education, 2008). This principle is rooted firmly in the rights approach and it is influenced by the numerous international declarations on education as a rights. Although there is no tuition fees at all level of public education, however, other fees, including hidden ones, made the issue of affordability the main blockage to access. Due to the dichotomy in the Ghanaian society as highlighted earlier, the Ghanaian educational programmes tend to focus more on the problem of access and equity. Two major examples of educational programmes that have been introduced to address the issue of access and equity in basic level are discussed below:

The Free Compulsory Universal Education Policy (FCUBE)

The 1992 Republican Constitution of Ghana promulgated free compulsory universal basic education. According the specific provision (Article 38 (2)), states that the government “shall within two years after Parliament first meets after the coming into force of this Constitution, draw up a programme for implementation within the following ten years, for the provision of free, compulsory and universal basic education” (Constitution of the Fourth Republic of Ghana, 1992). This provision added new impetus to the human rights approach to education Ghana.

The main objective was to improve access to basic education, especially of girls, improve the teaching process, learning outcomes and school management through better planning, monitoring and evaluation (Pimpong, 2006). The five strategic and integrated elements designed to remedy these four deficiencies of access, equity quality and relevance were infrastructure development, management reform, curriculum change, community participation and improvement of quality of personnel who support basic education at all levels (Little, 2010).

The successes of the programs are that gross enrolment ratio (GER) in primary education has improved steadily. Prior to the FCUBE, between 1987 and 1991, the GER in primary education was averaging 77% and it fell to 73% in 1995. By 2001 it had increased to 80%, but however, decline again to 78% in 2003 (Little, 2010). An evaluation of educational progress undertaken by the World Bank suggests that between 1988 and 2003 there was a ten per cent (10%) increase in enrolment at the basic level, a reduction in dropouts and an increase in girls’ enrolment. Primary school graduate rates of illiteracy in English also declined from 66% to less than 20% while school infrastructure and the availability of textbooks and other learning materials increased remarkably over the same period (World Bank, 2004). Notwithstanding, many children were still not in school since the FCUBE only covers tuition. The schools were permitted to charge other fees up to a ceiling amount approved by the District Assemblies [Local Governments in Ghana] (Little, 2010). The abuse of this arrangement led to the proliferation of all kinds of fees. In order to eliminate that government in early 2000s

introduced the capitation grant policy. This grant was to pay for all the other fees. The capitation grant r pushed the enrolment figure further up. The programme was mainly founded by donor support.

The FCUBE unfortunately, does not seem to have produced the overall expected outcome so far. One of its important goals of making educational planning and management more effective has not been achieved. Poor monitoring and evaluation persists and this has been blamed on the poor performance of public Junior High Schools (JHS) in the Basic Certificate Examinations (BECE) as compared to the well monitored private schools. Generally, the achievement level of pupils at the JHS level, especially, in public schools has been abysmal and the trend keeps deteriorating. For example only 46.93 per cent of out of the 375,280 candidates who sat for the 2011 BECE met the criteria for placement into SHSs and Vocational Institutions in Ghana. Also, between 2001 to 2011 the performance of pupils who sat for the BECE dropped from 60.40% to 46.93% (Government of Ghana 2013). There is also a problem of supply of qualified teachers to cater for the increasing number of students. The student to trained teacher ratio in primary school worsen from 43: 1 to 63:1 and that of the Junior Secondary School 23:1 to 26: 1 between 1997 to 2006 (Little, 2010). The dropout rate remains high as only few students end up at the SHS level.

Increase in access seems to have compromised the quality of education in Ghana. This has brought about increasing in the number of private basic schools across the nation. From the human capital point of view it may be argued that privatization of basic education in Ghana seem to be a better remedial strategy to the low quality of basic education in Ghana as it is yielding a positive results in term of pupils' educational achievements express in examination scores, hence may give Ghana the highest returns in terms achievement and possibly increase the completion and progression rates among students than public education as evidenced by the far better performances of private basic schools than the public ones in the BECE every year. However, as argued by Tomasevski (2003) human beings are the ultimate ends of educational goals and not the returns. Privatization may deny many people the rights to education and the cost of that will be unbearable in the future. What the government and stakeholders need to do is to expand infrastructure, teaching and learning materials, and motivate teachers to accept postings into deprived areas. There must also be an establishment of special monitoring and evaluation units within Ghana Education Service (GES). These will improve the quality. Privatization may not be the answer for quality given the inequalities that exists in the access to educational opportunities in Ghana.

The Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP)

The Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) was birthed through the New Partnership for Africa Development/Hunger Task Force Initiative (NEPAD/HTFI) with the support from Dutch government. The School feeding programme was introduced in 2005 as a follow up to the FCUBE (MOE, 2012). It was basically targeted at the poor communities, especially, the rural areas and urban slums. It aims at not only increasing enrolment, but more importantly attendance and retention. The programme can be describe as a success as it has not only increase the enrolment and retention levels, but it has also expanded from an initial number of 69,000 beneficiary students in 2005 to 697, 496 by the end of the first phase of the programme in 2010 (Lynch, 2013). At the beginning of the 2013/14 academic year the coverage rate figure stood at 1,600, 000 pupils from 49,920 public schools (Modern Ghana, 2013). However, the programme is now bedeviling with funding problems following the withdrawal of the Dutch government support in 2011 (Modern Ghana, 2013). From the justice perspective government has an obligation to her people to provide the means to

education no matter the cost. The government must therefore look for more innovative ways of raising funds to sustain the programme as its impact has been very positive.

Funding, Aid Dependency and Vested Interest in Ghana's Education

Educational policies and programmes in Ghana are largely donor funded. Perhaps one of the positive impacts of Globalization on education in Ghana has been the inflows of funds and technical assistance into the education sector. However, there seem to be overreliance on external support at the expense of raising and prudent use of resources. The evidence is that any time there is a delay or a withdrawal of such funds it triggers a stunt in the implementation of educational programmes in Ghana. As noted by Samoff (2013), perhaps there is an internalisation within Africa countries, including Ghana that improvement and change can only flourish on external support.

The donor organizations and countries have vested interest and expectations. For example, the over liberalization of the Ghanaian economy through Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) was as a result of conditionality attached to grants and aid accessed by the country (Pimpong, 2006). This has led to the influx of foreign goods and the gradual collapse of local industries due to unfair competition from the West, as well as privatization of key state-owned industries most of whom are now controlled by foreign and multinational companies. One of the effects is the current problem of graduate unemployment in Ghana. Bonal, X. (2014, September 15) in a Globed lecture at the University of Oslo summarizes the negative effects of 'the global' as evident in the impact of SAPs on Africa countries to include decrease in educational funding at the expense of debt servicing, increase in the opportunities cost of education, increase in dropout rates as a result of increase user-fees, decrease in staff recruitment and salaries which further worsens the teacher-student ratio, and even more alarmingly, the emergence of a new retreat towards the economic function of education. Another concern observed by Pimpong (2006) is that most often Ghana must use the funds from aids and loans to fulfill goals set by the loaning agency. These goals may not be aligned with the goals of the nation. Although being aware of these hidden agenda most often government accept, and even request for them as they want to be seen doing something having the next elections in mind. The impact of the global on the education is therefore very real when it comes to funding of education in Ghana in recent times, even to the extent that donor partners have to make inputs into the national budget of the country. As observed by Meyer, J. W. et al. (1997), the local is indeed gradually ceding its power and sovereignty to the global. From the rights perspective loans and aids into educational programmes is good only when it seeks to broaden the frontier of access and quality. However, it must be resisted if it comes with strings that seek to espouse neoliberal agenda such as privatization, cost sharing and full cost recovery in education.

The Current State of Affairs in Ghana: Success and Challenges

After many years of educational trajectory in Ghana masterminded by the global, the nation has chalked some modest gain, especially, in access and equity in education at all levels. The Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) for primary school has improved from 76% in 1987/88 to 80% in 2002, 88% in 2005, 95% in 2008 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). The GER gender gap in favour of boys decreased from 10% in 1996/97 to 7% in 2012 (UNICEF, 2013). The literacy rate has increase from 54% in 2000 to about 72% in 2010 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). The number of out-of-school children (aged 6 to 11) fell by 46% from 513,000 in 2006 to 278,000 in 2011 and the completion rates increased at both Primary and JHS, now at 112.4 and 70.1 respectively. Gender parity is almost achieved at the Primary level, with a GPI of 0.99 (Government of Ghana, 2013). Overall Ghana has attained the EFA on gender parity in primary education and is on the verge of attaining that of the access by the end of 2015. These improvements are attributed to the strategies adopted in line with

'the global' such as the EFA and MDG goals and the inflow of support from donor countries and the UN specialized agencies.

However, there is a still serious challenge which further needs attention. Ghana is still far a way in achieving parity at the secondary and higher educational levels. For example, at the Junior High School (JHS) the GPI is 0.93(Government of Ghana, 2013). Also, the country has not been able to achieve her specific targets on equity in access, quality and outcome. For example, many more children (about 23%) [of the population aged three (3) years and older have never been to school (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). The inequality between the rural and the urban; and male and female in terms of access still persists. According to 2010 Census report, the proportion of the population which has never attended school in the rural areas (33.1%) is more than two times that of the urban area (14.2%). There is also a marked difference between males (9.1%) and females (14.3%) who have never attended school. Also the quality of education is low. The quality in education is very low due to lack of adequate infrastructure, resources and personnel. For example, the number of core textbooks per pupil stands at 1.2 and 0.9 for Primary and JHS public schools respectively which is still some way off the target of 3 (Government of Ghana, 2013). Also achievement level has been very low as evident in the dwindling performance of pupils in the Basic Certification Examination (BECE). For example, the performance of pupils who sat for the BECE dropped from 60% to 47% for the period 2001 to 2011(Government of Ghana, 2013) and many of the schools who are in rural areas are among the poorly performed schools. Given the above challenges and the inequities, the human rights approach to education will continue to be appropriate in the Ghanaian context as she revamp her strategies in addressing the trends of the new challenges.

Discussion of the research findings

Our discussions so far show that Ghana educational evolution, policies and programmes are dictated by the global educational paradigm as evident in the MGD2 and EFA goals which approach is tilted toward the justice approach to education. Our discussions further show that the quest of achieving access, equity and quality have been the cardinal principles of Ghana's quest to meet global targets of EFA. Funding of education in Ghana has been on major challenge in achieving access, equity and quality although this is the area where the impact of global partners has been felt. Notwithstanding, the fact that the country seem to be donor dependent, the role of global partners in supporting education in Ghana is still crucial. However, for Ghana to maximise the positives of globalisation requires a new approach to cooperation. The first of this should be t a deliberate effort of forming stronger equal partnerships. This should first start with rallying support for stronger sub-regional and regional integration and cooperation in education. Educational standardization and unification across Africa will induce efficiency and massification of education and knowledge production. This will create the needed wealth to fund education in Africa. A united and stronger Africa will be able to strike a better and fair deal for the individual states in Africa in the global competition, than the individual countries within Africa. However, there is the need for further studies as how a borderless Africa can be achieved, given it diversity and history of colonial history and its current neo-colonial nature which is hindering educational cooperation and integration in Africa.

Conclusion

Education programmes and policies in Ghana have largely been shaped by global issues especially, the world's paradigm's shift to education as human rights as espouse in the Educational for All goals. The dichotomy between the relatively privileged and the less privileged in the Ghanaian society as regards access to educational opportunities tend to give credence to this approach. The

policies and programmes in Ghana are mostly geared towards achieving at least universal access to basic education. The genesis of the global influence on the Ghana's education is traced to colonization and latter to global cooperation and internationalisation and its several declarations on education as a rights. In recent times, funding of education in Ghana has been the arena in which the impact of the global is being felt most. Ghana educational evolution in the past was greatly influenced by global stakeholders through policy imposition and borrowing. However, in recent times, policy dissemination base on wide sectorial approach seems to be the main driver. The discussions so far further widens the thesis of this paper: thus, having identified the features and influences of globalisation on national educational policies how should Ghana or Africa position herself within the global community in order to minimize the negatives and maximize the positives of this intricate relationships and dialectics between the global and the local? Given the characteristics of globalization that have been highlighted in this paper, especially, its borderless nature; suggests that it is difficult for a country to thrive individually in this globalised world. As postulated by Lauder et al. (2006), the nation state must reinvent itself, but a new global framework. The way forward for Ghana and for that matter Africa is therefore the need to push for more economic and educational cooperation within Africa. A united Africa, where all social, economic and political borders are nonexistent such that member states have access to a wider and even market as well as educational opportunities will ensure that globalization breeds a new form of relationships where there will be no losers but all winners.

References

- Arnove, R. F., Franz, S., & Torres, C. A. (2013). Education in Latin America from Dependency and neo-liberalism to Alternative Paths to Development. In: Arnove, R. F., C. A. Torres & S. Franz (Eds) *Comparative Education. The Dialectic of the Global and the Local*. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers
- Adu Boahen, A. (1975). Ghana: Evolution and Change in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries. Longman Group Ltd.
- Africa should stop blaming history for its economic problems' – is Obama right?. (2014, July 30). *Guardian Africa Network*: Retrieved from: <http://www.theguardian.com/world/2014/jul/30/-sp-obama-africa-colonial-excuses-poll> [Accessed 26.09.2014]
- Bonal, X. (2014, September 15). Competing Paradigms in Education and development [PowerPoint Presentation]. Oslo: GLOBED lecture, University of Oslo
- Crossley, M. and K. Watson (2003). *Comparative and international research in education: globalization, context and difference*. London: Routledge Falmer
- Ozga, *The Routledge Falmer Reader in Education Policy and Practice*. London: Routledge, (pp.48-64)
- Dale, R. (2007), Specifying Globalization Effects on National Policy. In: Lingard, Bob and J. Ozga, *The Routledge Falmer Reader in Education Policy and Practice*. London: Routledge, (pp.48-64)
- Declaration of Rights of the Child (1959). Retrieved from http://www.unicef.org/malaysia/1959_Declaration-of-the-Rights-of-the-Child.pdf
- ECOWAS Protocol on Education and Training (2003). Retrieved from http://documentation.ecowas.int/download/en/legal_documents/protocols/Protocol%20on%20Education%20and%20Training.pdf
- Foster Philip, Education and Social Change in Ghana, 1965
- Government of Ghana (2003), Education Strategic Plan, 2003 to 2015, VOLUME 1.

- Policies, Targets and Strategies, Ministry of Education, Accra. May, 2003.
Retrieved from:
<http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Ghana/Ghana%20Education%20Strategic%20Plan.pdf>
- Declaration of Rights of the Child (1959). Retrieved from
http://www.unicef.org/malaysia/1959_Declaration-of-the-Rights-of-the-Child.pdf
[Accessed on 24.09.2014]
- ECOWAS Protocol on Education and Training (2003). Retrieved from
http://documentation.ecowas.int/download/en/legal_documents/protocols/Protocol%20on%20Education%20and%20Training.pdf [Accessed on 09.24. 2014]
- Government of Ghana (2013), Education Performance Sector Report, August, 2013
- Government of Ghana (2010), Education Strategic Plan 2010 to 2020, VOLUME 1. Policies, Strategies, Delivery and Finance. Ministry of Education. December, 2010. Retrieved from
:<http://www.moe.gov.gh/docs/ESP%202010-2020%20Vol%201%20Final>
- Haddad and Demsky (1995), *Educational policy-planning Process: and applied framework*; Paris, 1995 UNESCO: IIEP. Retrieved from:
http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/11_200.pdf on 15.11.2014
- International Monetary Fund (2014). IMF Staff Concludes Visit to Ghana. Press Release No. 14/439. Retrieved from: <http://www.imf.org/external/np/sec/pr/2014/pr14439.htm>
[on 29. 09. 2014]
- Jacobi, A. P. (2012). Implementing Global Policies in African Countries: Conceiving lifelong Learning as basic education. In: Verger, A., M. Novelli and H. K. Altinyelken Global education policy and international development: New agendas, issues and policies. London: Bloomsbury Publishing, 119-136
- Lynch A. (2013). Inaction or In Action, The Effectiveness of The Ghana School Feeding programme: The Case of Ntranoa School, Cape Coast, Ghana (Masters' Thesis, University of Limerick, Ollscoil Luimnigh Retrieved from:
http://www.ul.ie/ppa/content/files/Amy_Lynch.pdf [Accessed on 09.24. 2014]
- Less than 50% pass BECE; GES says it is normal. (2011, August, 27). *Myjoyonline*
Retrieved from : <http://edition.myjoyonline.com/pages/education/201109/73676.php>
[Accessed on 24.09.2014]
- Pimpong, E. (2006). *Interactions between education, economy and politics: a case of Ghana's Educational system from a historical perspective*. (Master's thesis, University of Bergen. Retrieved from: <http://brage.bibsys.no/xmlui/handle/11250/167511> [Accessed on 09.24. 2014]
- Ministry of Education Ghana [MOE] (2012). Education they say is Equalizer of Life's Chances. Retrieved from <http://www.ghana.gov.gh/index.php/2012-02-08-08-32-47/features/4593-education-they-say-is-equalizer-of-life-s-chances> [Accessed on 24.09.2014]
- Ministry of Education Science and Sports (MoESS) (2008) Education Sector Performance Report 2008, Accra: MoESS
- Meyer,
Boli, Thomas and Ramirez (1997). World Society and the Nation-State. *American Journal of Sociology*, 103 (1), 144-181. Retrieved from:
<https://vpn1.uio.no/+CSCO+00756767633A2F2F6A6A6A2E77666762652E626574++/stable/10.1086/231174>
- Lauder, J., P. Brown, J-A. Dillabough and A.H. Halsey. 2006. *Education, globalization and social change*. Oxford University
- Little, A. W. (2010). Access to Basic Education in Ghana: politics, policies and progress. Project

- Report. CREATE, Brighton, UK. Retrieved from:
http://www.create-rpc.org/pdf_documents/PTA42.pdf [Accessed on 09 22, 2014]
- Robeyens, I. (2006). Three models of education: rights, capabilities and human capital. *Theory and Research in Education*, 4(69), 69-84.doi:10.1177/147787850606083
- Samoff, J. with B. Carrol. 2013. *Education for All in Africa: Not Catching Up, but Setting the Pace.* in: Arnove, R. F., C. A. Torres & S. Franz (Eds) *Comparative Education. The Dialectic of the Global and the Local.* Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers
- Silova, I. (2012). Contested Meanings of Educational Borrowing. In Steiner-Khamsi, G. and F. Waldow (Eds.) *Policy Borrowing and Lending in Education.* London: Routledge,
- UNESCO EFA global Monitoring Report (2003/4). Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001325/132513e.pdf> [on 09. 28. 2014]
- Tomasevski, K. (2005). Girls' education through a human rights lens: What can be done differently? what can be made better? : Right Action. www.odi.org.uk/rights Retrieved from <http://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/4349.pdf> [Accessed on 09. 28. 2014]
- Universal Declaration on Human Rights (1948): Retrieved from <http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/> [Accessed on 25.09.2014]
- World Bank World Development Report (2000/2001). *Attacking Poverty:* Oxford University Press. New York. Retrieved from: <http://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/events-presentations/703.pdf> [accessed on 24.09.2014]
- World Bank (2004) *Books, Buildings, and Learning Outcomes: An Impact Evaluation of World Bank Support to Education in Ghana.* Washington DC: World Bank, Operations Evaluation Department (OED). Retrieved from [:http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTISPMA/Resources/Training-Events-and-Materials/report_28779_basic_education.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTISPMA/Resources/Training-Events-and-Materials/report_28779_basic_education.pdf) [Accessed on 07.10.14]