

THE IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONISATION ON THE  
DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION  
IN GHANA

by  
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G O L D   C O A S T .



## GHANA - BACKGROUND INFORMATION

### Status and History

Ghana, formerly known as the Gold Coast, was the first colony in Black Africa to achieve independence from Britain on 6th March 1957 and became a Republic on 1st July 1960. Its foundation lies deep in the ancient Sudanic Empire which flourished between the fourth and the fifth centuries.

### Location, Area and Population

Located in the western part of Africa, Ghana lies between latitude  $4^{\circ}$  and  $11\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  North and Longitudes  $10^{\circ}$ E and  $3^{\circ}$ W with the Greenwich Meridian almost separating it into two parts longitudinally. The country lies almost in the centre of the countries along the Gulf of Guinea and covers an area of 239,460 square kilometres. It stretches from South to North 672 kilometres and from East to West 536 kilometres. Ghana is bordered by three West African French speaking countries in the East, North and West, i.e. Republic of Togo, Upper Volta and Ivory Coast (Cote d'Ivoire) respectively. The total population of Ghana is estimated at 10 million by 1970 census.

### Geographical - Relief

Except for a few isolated peaks which may reach about 916 metres, most areas of the land has average height of about 459 metres. The three main highlands are found behind the narrow coastal plain which rises to form the Southern Ashanti Uplands and the Kwahu Plateau while further to the East runs the Akwapim Hills. The main river which runs through Ghana is the Volta, which has tributaries from the North and

and South-Western part of the country. The most remarkable river is the Black Volta, which, after it has been joined by the White Volta, is called simply the Volta. The Eastern plains are watered by numerous streams, most of them perennial, but others dry for part of the year. There are some large stretches of almost pure grass land, but in general the tree growth is much denser and finer than the Northern plateau. Along most of the rivers and streams are belts of monsoon forest. The soil is rich and deep in most places.

On the other hand, the Western plain of Ashanti and the South is densely wooded and well watered by innumerable rivers and streams. The chief rivers in this region have a general direction from North to South and fall into the ocean. The country contains many small marshes, and parts of it are flooded to some extent for short periods during the rainy season. There is only one lake, that of Bosomtwe, South-East Kumasi, the capital of Ashanti.

#### Climate

Ghana has a tropical climate characterised most of the year by moderate temperatures, constant breezes and clear sunshine. Two main systems of winds affect the temperature of Ghana. The North-East trade winds (Harmattan) as they are called locally, blow from the Sahara Desert where temperatures are very high. These winds are hot and dry and therefore bring about climatic conditions of hot temperatures and less rainfall. The other wind, the Equatorial Air Mass (Monsoon) coming from the South Atlantic is generally cool and moist and temperatures in it decrease fairly slowly with height. These winds are the two main air masses that influence the climate of Ghana.

Usually, when the relative humidity of the air is very low in the case of Harmattan winds, people not used to such conditions feel

the effect on their skin and lips which become parched and may sometimes develop cracks. During Harmattan, many plants shed their leaves just as they do in Autumn in Britain, except that most plants do not shed their leaves as completely as seen during Autumn and Winter seasons.

The chief characteristics of Ghana's climate, according to Boateng<sup>(1)</sup> are the relatively high temperatures felt in all places throughout the year, the great variation in the amount, duration and seasonal distribution of the rainfall from South to North, and the tendency of the dry seasons which separate the rainy seasons to grow longer and more intense with distance from the sea. Also the climate is affected by three important elements - temperature, rainfall and humidity. Except for the few highlands - Kwahu Plateau, Akwapim Scarp, Amedwope and Gambaga Scarps where temperatures are reduced by high altitudes, the mean annual temperatures for the whole country range from 79°F to 84°F.

The lowest figures tend to occur near the coast and the highest further inland to the North. Since the Northernmost part of the country lies not more than  $11\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  from the equator, it receives a great deal of warmth from the sun at all times of the year. Daily range of temperature is about 12°F or 13°F near the coast and varies from 18°F to 30°F further inland. The rapid heat lost through radiation at night explains the greater range of temperature inland.

The highest day or monthly mean maximum temperatures occur in March and February whilst the lowest occur in August. The annual mean temperature is greatest (94°F) in the extreme North and least on the coast (85°F to 86°F). On the other hand, the lowest night or monthly mean minimum temperatures occur in January, or, along the coast, in August.

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(1) Boateng, E.A., A Geography of Ghana, Cambridge University Press, 1959, pp.26-27.

Generally speaking, high temperatures occur in February and March just before the onset of the rainy season. From the point of view of rainfall, the moist and warm air required for the formation of rain is supplied by the monsoon winds. The highest rainfall is in the South-Western part with over 86 inches per annum and decreases gradually Northwards to between 40-50 inches yearly in the Northern Region. On average, most parts of Ghana receive annual rainfall of well over 40 inches, although the distribution of rainfall, like the amount during the year, varies considerably. The most noticeable feature of the climate is its great humidity. The Southern part of Ghana is generally humid and records relative humidities of 90-100 per cent on the coast during the night and early morning. Humidity falls during the day to a minimum about noon, reading 75 per cent in the South-West where the vegetation is dense, and 65 per cent in the more open South-East.

The coastal area is predominantly scrub and grassland except in the South-Western corner where a rainfall of over 86 inches per annum has produced a dense forest. Increased rainfall in the central part of the country has created a broad belt of thick forest land covering the interior region of Southern Ashanti, Brong Ahafo and the Akim areas. This forest zone provides most of the agricultural and economic wealth of Ghana.

Politically, Ghana was ruled by Britain for over one century. Ghana has therefore inherited much of Britain's democracy and aspects of British administration, educational organisation and ideologies. Since independence, Ghana has witnessed three civilian governments and four military governments. The present Government is a military one and the Head of State is J.C. Rawlings, whose father is British.

Ghana, like Britain, was broadly divided into three main parts during the period of colonisation. The coastal area which was the first

to come into contact with European merchants and therefore developed a certain sophistication with European practises, corresponds to the Southern counties of Britain. Ashanti which had a highly organised Kingdom before European contact and was reputed for its military victories over the coastal tribes, has a similar situation to the Midlands and the Northern counties; while the Northern Territories far in the hinterland corresponds to Scotland.

Authentic information about the people of Ghana is greatly limited because before European contact the art of reading and writing was unknown. In consequence much of the history of the nation before the 15th century has been derived from obscure traditions with much of it based on memories preserved in tribal tales and folklore. In the absence of any reliable data on which to found a plausible conjecture respecting the origin of the various tribes inhabiting the country, Cruickshank<sup>(2)</sup> has aptly suggested that it would not be helpful to waste many words in curious speculation upon the subject.

Even though Ghana is approximately the same size as Britain, and both countries are divided by the Greenwich Meridian, yet there are major geographical differences between the two countries. Britain, for instance, has insularity as one of the most important geographical characteristics.

The cool and mild maritime nature of climate in Britain contrasts sharply with the hot and humid tropical and sub-tropical conditions in Ghana. Temperature ranges from 39° to 63°F in Britain and it rains approximately 178 days during the year. The four seasons and the climate changes that occur in Britain coupled with the relief of the land offer

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(2) Cruickshank, B., Eighteen Years on the Gold Coast of Africa, Frank Cass & Co., Vol.I, 2nd ed., 1966, pp.296-297.

many contrasting situations to conditions in Ghana. It is these influences which, in a large measure, dictate the nature of activities and life styles of the inhabitants of Britain.

The culture of Britain is shaped largely from the environmental conditions arising out of geographical and other features. In the same way, the ways of life of the peoples of Ghana were shaped by geographic and cultural factors before European contact.

Ghana is divided into many linguistic, cultural and ethnic groups. Many writers<sup>(3)</sup> have acknowledged that, although linguistic classifications of Ghana have undergone considerable amendment in recent years, yet the country can be divided into five principal groupings distinguished not only by linguistic affinities, but also by the possession of common cultural attributes and, to some extent, by common myths of origin. These groups are the Akan, the Ga Adangbe, the Ewe, the Guan and the Gur speaking peoples. A computation of Gold Coast population made by Foster<sup>(4)</sup> indicates that numerically the Akans constitute approximately 44 per cent of the total population, the Ga Adangbes 9 per cent, the Ewes 13 per cent, the Guan speaking peoples about 1 per cent and the Gur 30 per cent.

These groups differ not only linguistically but also culturally. For example, while most Akans follow matrilineal lines of succession, the Ga Adangbe and the Ewe groups adhere to a patrilineal system. In the Ghanaian sense this means that among the Akan speaking people, only brothers and nephews on the mother's side can inherit property,

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(3) For example refer to Ward, W.E.F., A History of Ghana, George Allen & Unwin Ltd., London, 1958, pp.37,40; Foster, P., Education and Social Change in Ghana, R.K.P., London, 1965 (1971 imp.), p.16.

(4) Foster, Ibid., p.16 - computed from the Gold Coast census of population 1948 (Government Printer), Accra, 1950.

as opposed to sons and brothers from the father's side in the case of the other tribes, notably the Ewes. Similarly, there are differences between the system of marriage and the naming (Christening) of children. While some amount of uniformity seems to prevail among the Akan groups, other ethnic groups have different approaches.

Another notable characteristic among the groups in Ghana is that apart from these linguistic and cultural differences, the different ethnic groups are found living in specific areas or geographical regions of the country. Their social and cultural institutions are therefore conditioned or influenced to some degree by their geographical environment. Generally, the Gur peoples are found on the grassland areas to the North of Ghana while the Akans dominate the forest areas to the South West. The Ewes and the Ga-Adangbes live in the open savanna and the coastal scrub and grassland areas similar to the Northerners.

Perhaps it must be mentioned here that the family system in Ghana, unlike Britain, is the extended family. The traditional concept of extended family includes not only the immediate family of father, mother and children, but also a wide range of more distant relatives. The domestic unit is made up of a group of two or more families of several generations who are united by consanguinal kinship ties and a common place of residence. This unit of extended family becomes a grounding within which most of the relationships of daily living take place. Usually, it is a closely-knit organisation under the leadership of a single recognised head, in most cases the senior member in the dominant line of descent. Such a family shares many things in common: they share the same economy, social, cultural and systems of values in common. Above all, their concern for loyalty to the family supercedes loyalty to any other institution.

In conclusion it may be said that the diversity of tribes, languages, geographical location and cultural pursuits of these ethnic groups makes it rather difficult to give a general description of activities they performed. Since the degree of ethnic and cultural homogeneity varied considerably, there were many cultural differences and historical antagonisms between the groups which gave rise to problems of widely varying urgency. These are but a few of the unique features of Ghanaian culture before European contact.

## INTRODUCTION

History bears testimony to the fact that from time to time in living memory, sections of a given community have tried either directly or indirectly to impose or transplant their values and ideas on other societies usually smaller, weaker or less developed comparatively. From the time of the ancient Egyptian, Persian, Greek and Roman Empires, through to the more recent British, French, Russian and other European powers, varying attempts have been made to dominate and transpose foreign systems of organisation, administration and doctrines on some existing societies. The colonization which evolved from these attempts have caused considerable debate and raised many complex issues, particularly in the field of education.

Diverse are the views that have been expressed about the motives and relative benefits and disadvantages of colonization. Fletcher<sup>(1)</sup> sees early colonization as aiming for economic exploitation through isolation and monopoly. More<sup>(2)</sup> argues that the colonies were used for looting and plundering. Lugard<sup>(3)</sup> on the other hand, suggests that Europe was in Africa for the mutual benefit of her own industrial classes and of the native races in their progress to a higher plane. Earle Francis<sup>(4)</sup> has acknowledged that European colonization has had a more

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- (1) Fletcher, A.B., Education and Colonial Development. Methuen, London 1936, p.13.
- (2) More, S.S., Remodelling of Democracy for Afro-Asian Nations. Allied Publishers, Bombay 1962, p.26.
- (3) Lugard, Sir, F.D., The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa. London 1923, p.617.
- (4) Francis, M. Earle, Geographic Influences upon British Economic Policy in West Africa. Ph.D. Thesis, George Washington University, 1929, p.19.

beneficial influence and greater degree of success in Ghana than any other African Colony.

In a more balanced view, Davidson<sup>(5)</sup> concedes that even though the British could have done more for colonial territories, what was done was well done. Davidson further argues that Africans could not necessarily have done better had they been in the same situation as the British.

Crucial to the process of colonization is the establishment of an educational system that would transmit and inculcate the values, knowledge and the skills that are favourable and fundamental to the survival of the dominating society. This is why the British Colonial office actively involved itself in establishing educational systems that would enhance its impact. The role of Britain as the greatest imperial power in the 18th and 19th centuries renders the country as a principal target of attack in colonial educational policies and practices. Criticisms and views expressed on colonial education will now be discussed.

According to Busia<sup>(6)</sup> a general criticism is that the colonial powers failed to accord education the high priority it deserved. Morgan<sup>(7)</sup> observed the lack of clearly defined policies and lack of official publication of policies when they were clearly stated, as one of the ills of colonial education. Scott<sup>(8)</sup> noted that even when good documents

(5) Davidson, N., Africa - A subjective view. Ghana University Press, London 1964, p.52.

(6) Busia, K.A., Purposeful Education for Africa, London 1964, p.21,96.

(7) Morgan, L.G., 'A Note on Colonial Educational Policy', Journal of Overseas Education, Vol.XVII No.4, 1947, p.541.

(8) Scott, H.S., 'The Development of the Education of the African in Relation to the Western Contact', Year Book of Education, 1938, p.711.

were passed for implementation, those responsible for the administration of the Empire often delayed the action. Scott cited as evidence a document which was circulated for action but never saw the light of the day until 'half a century later'.

In support of Scott's allegation, Creech<sup>(9)</sup> in a House of Commons debate remarked that:

From time to time, there has been great deliberations of liberal principles in relation to colonial administration, but we are all conscious that in the case of many of our colonies, those principles are not applied with any degree of consistency.

Further review of the attitudes of colonial powers towards educational policies and objectives reveals a dismal picture. Busia<sup>(10)</sup> has noted that there was no quarrel with the objectives as they were set out, but there was 'a wide gulf between what was stated and what was actually practised and achieved'. He regarded the policies pursued as 'piecemeal, lacking comprehensive view of education and directed towards short term objectives'. In consequence, Busia strongly advocated that 'education must be lifted out of the grooves they (colonialists) carved for it'. The Phelps Stokes Commission<sup>(11)</sup> stated, after a serious study of the school curriculum and its appropriateness for Africans, that:

... the type of education provided has not generally been the best fitted for the masses of the people ... much of what has been called education has been lamentably unrelated to the actual life of the native people.

(9) Hansard, Vol.337, p.151.

(10) Busia, A.K. Purposeful Education for Africa, London 1964, p.21, 96.

(11) Jones, T.J. (ed.), Education in Africa - A Study of West, South and Equatorial Africa. African Education Commission, Phelps-Stokes Report, New York 1922, p.XV.

The general impressions seem to be that colonial education has suffered from a multitude of setbacks. For instance Phelps-Stokes Report<sup>(12)</sup> noted evidence of 'Confusion in education thought and practice'.

Mumford<sup>(13)</sup> states that after a continual contact with the white races, the early Africans 'almost invariably deteriorate in art, morale, and physique, and become discontented or idle'. Busia<sup>(14)</sup> sees West Africa as an unbalanced society in which the old tribal forms are changing 'under the impact of our contact with Europe'. Bradley<sup>(15)</sup> attributes the state of confusion in Africa to 'the old simplicities being overlaid and entangled by the tentacles of an alien civilization'. McElligott<sup>(16)</sup> recognised the main obstacle facing Africans as 'the conflict between the age-old traditions of African life and the influences of modern Western civilization, and suggests that Africans must extract from Western culture only that which can harmoniously be fused with African culture.

On the other hand, views have been expressed to indicate that some of the criticisms made against colonial powers are not wholly their own making. Lauwerys<sup>(17)</sup> carefully examined some of the allegations

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(12) Phelps-Stokes Report, *ibid.*, p.7.

(13) Mumford, B.N., 'Education and Social Adjustment of the Primitive Peoples of Africa to European Culture'. Africa Journal of the Institute of African Languages and Cultures. Vol.II, Oxford 1929, p.139.

(14) Busia, A.K., Educational Policy in West Africa, Overseas Education. Vol.17, No.4, p.344.

(15) Bradley, Kenneth, 'Gold Coast Impressions', Blackwoods Magazine, Feb. 3, 1948, p.18.

(16) McElligott, T.E., Education in the Gold Coast Colony, 1920-1949. Ph.D. thesis, Stanford University 19 (p.ii-iii Introduction).

(17) Lauwerys, J.A. (ed.), Essays in Comparative Education: Education and the Economy. Evans Brothers, London 1969, p.3.

and concluded that:

... the task of translating European methods into another social idiom, of adapting them to a new climate, is more complicated and difficult than was once thought.

Lauwerys' observation raises questions about theories of cross-cultural contact and educational transfer.

In the process of cross-cultural contact Ulich<sup>(18)</sup> has alleged that it is a cardinal rule among specialists that no educational system can be grafted onto another one in toto - it must be modified at its foundations. Rodney<sup>(19)</sup> has also noted that when two societies of different sorts come into prolonged and effective contact, the rate and character of change taking place in both is seriously affected to the extent that entirely new patterns are created. It is further observed that either the weaker of the two societies is bound to be adversely affected - and the bigger the gap between the two societies concerned the more detrimental are the consequences; or assuming that the weaker society survives, then ultimately it can resume its own independent development only if it proceeds to a level higher than that of the economy which had previously dominated it.

Furthermore, it has been suggested that in the process of cross-cultural contacts, the following three things could happen to leave its impress in the life of the society:

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- (18) Ulich, Robert, Some observations concerning the study of Comparative Education in Brickman, W.W. (ed.), The Role of Comparative Education in the Education of Teachers. 1st Annual Conference of Comparative Education, Proceedings of, New York 1954, p.1076.
- (19) Rodney, Walter, How Europe Under-developed Africa, Bogle - L'Ouverture, London 1972, p.18.

- (a) Firstly, there is either fusion of old and new, and the results when they come to be accepted, become part of the technique of home education, or
- (b) Secondly, the new is adopted to the exclusion of the old, although not always in its latest form in the country of origin; or
- (c) Thirdly, there is tension between the old and the new.<sup>(20)</sup>

In order to avoid adverse effects of European contact on Africans, Westerman<sup>(21)</sup> stressed that if the African is to keep and develop his own soul and to become a separate personality, then his education must not begin by inoculating him with a foreign civilization but must be based upon the civilization of each people.

Apart from the possible results that could come through cultural contact, it has been observed that different cultures react differently to various influences. Culwick<sup>(22)</sup> has reported that the same influences introduced into two countries culturally similar, may have entirely different effects. Van Lutsenburg<sup>(23)</sup> has hypothesized that some national societies possess inherently adaptive social structures or cultures which greatly facilitate the 'transfer of institutions' from abroad, while other societies are 'intrinsically resistant to changes inspired from external sources'. Foster<sup>(24)</sup> has also indicated that a

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- (20) Bartels, F.L., The Provision and Administration of Education in the Gold Coast 1865-1965. M.A. thesis, University of London, 1949, p.56.
  - (21) Westerman, 'The place of Vernacular in African Education'. International Review of Missions, Vol.14, No.53, 19
  - (22) Culwick, A.T. et al, Culture contact on the Fringe of Civilization. Africa, Vol.8, No.1, January 1935, p.169.
  - (23) Van Lutsenburg, M., Educational Change in pre-colonial Societies: 'The cases of Buganda and Ashanti'. Comparative Education Review, Vol.14, June 1970, p.174.
  - (24) Foster, J., 'A Comment on Educational Change in Pre-colonial societies. The 'cases of Buganda and Ashanti'. Comparative Education Review, Vol.14, October 1970, p.337.

considerable body of literature has appeared suggesting that different societies have exhibited divergent forms of response to the Western impact.

From the discussion so far, the concept of cultural exchange of ideas and systems can probably be analogized to the transplantation of human organs from one donor to one in need. Even though, in general terms, all men are created equal, yet there are basic differences in physiological constitutions as well as moral and temperamental attitudes. Many people have matching biological components e.g. blood groups, bone marrow etc.; at the same time, differences exist among others.

Without doubt one of the dramatic innovations of the last few decades has been the steady growth of organ transplants from one human to another. Not only has it been possible for a living body to part with part of his organ to another body otherwise declared as doomed, but also, a vital organ like the heart can be taken from people who have suffered from accidents and virtually pronounced dead, to a living being. Whilst statistics about the achievements in heart transplants are not particularly impressive, other areas like kidneys and less vital organs have registered a high rate of success. The question is: what are the factors or conditions that favour successful transplants?

Since this is not a medical thesis, one can only examine the topic rather superficially in order to bring out the predominant factors that influence the transplantation of human organs. Normally candidates for organ transplants are victims of incurable illness; and this method of treatment is considered as the last resort to restore the appropriate functioning of the organ involved. This presupposes that other forms of medication cannot equal the efficiency that the transplanted organ would achieve. In other words, the project becomes not only desirable, but also indispensable, if natural health should be achieved by the recipient.

Before the question of transplant is decided upon, it is a normal practice for a team of experts to assess the patient's condition and the methods open for treatment, in order to ascertain that transplantation is the best among possible alternatives. Ethical issues regarding the consent of the recipient and selection of donors cannot be overlooked. Apart from the careful selection and appropriate matching of donor to recipient to prevent rejection, other medical tests are carried out to measure the recipient's ability to endure the operation. Particularly, efforts are made to increase his resistance and endurance for the operation.

Another important consideration concerns the conditions and place for the operation. Efforts are made to remove all possible sources of contamination long before the actual operation begins.

Even among experts in a given subject, there is always a spokesman; in this case, the credentials of those to undertake the transplant are not left in doubt. Perhaps the most important item of deep consideration after these initial preparations, is the condition of the organ to be transplanted. It is a common knowledge that even though air, warmth and moisture are the three necessities for the germination of seeds, the state and conditions of the seed determines, to a large extent, the possibility of its germination or lack of it. A bad seed or defective seed naturally has a corresponding degree of success. The same conditions apply to organ transplantation.

Granting that all the ideal conditions discussed so far have been fulfilled and that the actual operations regarding the transplant have been successfully completed, the final stage involves a period of observation where additional medication is provided to aid the body to adapt to the new organ, or to fight against possible side-effects. From this description, it would appear that successful transplant of an organ

would depend on these fundamental prerequisites:

- (a) the nature and purity of the organ to be transplanted;
- (b) the psychological and physiological conditions of the recipient;
- (c) the expertise of the surgeons who would carry out the operation; and
- (d) the conditions of the operating area including the availability of the right equipment and adequate medication to fight side effects.

Each of these conditions in turn requires the fulfilment of other conditions in order to make the whole venture productive. First of all, they are inter-dependent on each other for the successful outcome of the whole operation. Secondly, each one is unique in itself, and as such requires some basic and peculiar situations to be present for optimum results. The harmonious development of the individual after this operation basically rests on the amicable co-ordination of all the areas mentioned.

One of the major problems often highlighted as the prime cause of failure in organ transplant concerns the inability of the body of the recipient to adapt favourably to the new organ. Technical reasons are many, but in simple terms, rejection is mainly attributed to the new organ's inability to adapt to the different environmental constitution of the recipient. Sometimes the new organ may be too old or too young to fit into the natural rhythm of the receiver. A mistake in surgery can also be as fatal as infection caused by environmental pollution or an administrative oversight. In any case, many problems are involved and the survival of the individual would depend upon constant observation and the administration of further drugs to counteract the existing problems and side-effects.

From this account, it can be observed that the main objective of organ transplant is to restore or improve a condition which is far from favourable. The conduciveness of the operation is determined by the state of health of the receiver and how far he can do with or without the new organ. The process of restoring the individual's life to normality does not in any way aim at transforming the individual to the point of losing his identity, neither does it critically change the individual. The main rationale behind it is to harmonise a situation which otherwise spells doom. It is with this background information and the rationale behind it that the various debates about the transfer of British educational system into Ghana will be briefly discussed.

If we were to examine the types of colonial education that evolved in Africa in the light of the above discussion, we would find that different reasons and motives prompted their establishment. For instance, Busia<sup>(25)</sup> has indicated that the Portuguese policy was to use the schools as vehicles to spread their language and culture. Hailey<sup>(26)</sup> has observed that the Spanish used education to encourage the spread of patriotism, and the Spanish virtues and culture without uprooting the African, but with a definite purpose of improving his living conditions. Osmsby-Gore<sup>(27)</sup> acknowledged that 'the English nation had no clearly defined attitude to its colonial dependencies in the sense that the French nation or the totalitarian states had.'

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(25) Busia, K.A., The challenge of Africa - 'The challenge of Colonial Experience'. Pall Mall Press, London 1962, p.82.

(26) Hailey, Lord, An African Survey, Oxford University Press. London. (Rev. ed.) 1956, p.1220.

(27) Osmsby-Gore, 'Address of Annual Conference of Education Association in London', Empire Review, February 1937, p.140.

While the French emphasized the teaching of French language and culture, her colonial policy aimed at a kind of union between metropolitan France and its colonies. Portugal regarded its African colonies as extensions of the Portuguese mainland; and Spain maintained close economic integration with its African colonies.

These European powers with diverse motives and pursuing different policies and objectives, established administrative and bureaucratic systems in their respective domains. In consequence, some colonial subjects seemed to have enjoyed more freedom and experienced a greater degree of advancement than others. The main cause is that colonial rule did not mean the same thing in all colonial territories. This is probably the reason why different colonies also reacted differently to the type of changes that were introduced. One thing, however, remained common to all colonial territories and that is they all experienced the superimposition of a new bureaucracy. Furthermore, education in African colonies aimed at goals and objectives reflective of the social, economic, political and cultural experience and needs of the governing countries.

On the other hand, what appears central to an accurate interpretation of the relative benefits of colonial education is the extent to which the prevailing culture of the governed nation is understood and respected in the establishment of the new structure of education. For if one accepts the view that education must be a process of evolution based upon African modes of thought, traditions and environment, and not on an attempt to substitute a European mind for an African mind, then it becomes necessary that the new social institutions established should reflect the attitudes, values and lifestyles of the incumbent natives.

On the contrary, many writers have revealed that with the coming of Western civilization, African boys and girls tended to cut loose from

tribal ties and that in many instances, the educated became neither western nor African, losing the best in both, and often imbibing the worst of both. Dunning<sup>(28)</sup> for instance, has noted that Nigeria is subject to serious cultural and educational problems because of a lack of integration of the varied cultures which have influenced its history. Wallerstein<sup>(29)</sup> has drawn attention to the fact that the installation of a colonial administration with its accompanying trends towards urbanization has had significant impact on the mode of life of an average Ghanaian and has led inevitably to the absorption of Western values. These and other views expressed generally seem to give credulity to Kandel's<sup>(30)</sup> assertion that the educational systems and practices of one nation cannot be transported into another nation or to another people without profound adaptation and modifications.

As far as British Colonial education policies and administration are concerned writers have offered counter views. While Curle<sup>(31)</sup> sees the principles underlying education under the British as the production of useful citizens who would be of benefit to them, Cohen<sup>(32)</sup> views the training of the people to run their own institutions as the main

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- (28) Dunning, D.G., An Historical Analysis of the Role of Education in Nigerian Society with Emphasis upon the problems created by cross-cultural contact. M.A. thesis, Ohio State University, 1963, p.88.
- (29) Wallerstein, M.I., The Emergency of two West African Nations: Ghana and Ivory Coast. Ph.D. thesis, Columbia University, 1959, p.132.
- (30) Kandel, I.L., Comparative Education. Cambridge-Massachusetts, Riverside Press, 1933, p.14.
- (31) Curle, Adam, Educational Strategy for Developing Societies. Tavistock Pub., 1963, p.89.
- (32) Cohen, Sir, A., British Policy in Changing Africa. Northwestern University Press, U.S.A., 1959, p.107.

distinguishing characteristic of the British administration. Wise<sup>(33)</sup> gives a vivid description of British colonial educational approach in the following passage:

... In all the colonies, once the Government had assumed responsibility for educational policy, the old practice of simply transplanting English education to Africa showed itself in all sorts of ways and was applied to all assisted schools. The method of paying grants-in-aid, the treatment of pupil teachers, the annual examination of pupils, the examination syllabus for teachers, the methods of granting teachers' certificates can all be related to similar developments in England, though sometimes an English innovation did not reach the coast till some years later.

Criticisms of this nature abound in many publications that deal with British Colonial Education. Impressions often gleaned from these remarks are that the British transported a carbon copy system of their educational system to her dependencies without due recognition for adapting the system to suit the unique conditions of the natives.

Other points of view expressed on the above accusations seem to suggest that an erroneous picture has been painted about the British attitudes. For, it is often asserted, according to Foster<sup>(34)</sup> 'that the British did make attempts to adapt exported institutions to her colonies'. Foster suggested that the need for adaptation of British concepts to her colonies had been acknowledged by the British since the early part of the nineteenth century. What appears indisputable from the analysis of general trends in colonial countries is that conscious efforts to modify transplanted institutions in Africa varied from one power to another, or from one territory to another territory.

(33) Wise, Colin G., A History of Education in British West Africa. Longmans, London 1956, pp.21-22.

(34) Foster, Philip, Education and Social Change in Ghana. RKP London, 1965, 3rd Imp., 1971, p.3.

So far, this discussion has aimed at bringing out the different critical dimensions involved in the process of European Colonization and the impact it had on the educational development in the colonies. What remains to be done is to examine how issues and concerns that have been expressed are related to Sports and Physical Education.

A review of the literature on Sport and Physical Education in Colonial countries suggest that much of the criticisms and faults of colonial education were related to P.E. Not only has the British concept of P.E. introduced to her colonies been criticised for the nature of its content and its suitability for the natives, but also the colonialists' attitudes to traditional and cultural activities have been bitterly attacked. Questions are also raised on the appropriateness of the methods employed in introducing P.E. in the educational curriculum of the Africans and the motives that channelled its evolution.

Ogunbanyo<sup>(35)</sup> for instance, has accused the British colonization of Nigeria of an endeavour to create an environment which would reflect the British ideology. He did not only criticise the British for making 'deliberate efforts to transplant British norms and mores into their dependencies of which Nigeria happened to be one' but also indicated that 'Sport was one of the instruments used.' Ogunbanyo further observed that because the early administrators and teachers who championed Nigerian sports initiations were essentially products of British Public School system or officials of the British army, 'they carried with them British middle-class life and philosophy into sports.' According to Ogunbanyo, the motives that led the British to introduce Empire Day celebrations into new schools in Nigeria was 'to replace some of the scattered tribal festivals and the celebrations in Nigeria.'

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(35) Ogunbanyo, O.D., 'The Development of Nigeria's Participation in International Sport Competition and its effects on the Nation.' Ph.D. thesis, Ohio State University, 1978, p.41, 42-43.

Another physical educationist from Nigeria, Adedeji<sup>(36)</sup> has denounced the British imposition of her system of P.E. in Nigeria at the beginning of the 20th century. Adedeji was not only against the contents which he found to be 'too militaristic, formal and rigid' but was deeply opposed to the idea that motives that generated its introduction did not relate to Nigerian conditions. For as he noted, the programme was 'designed for European countries where P.E. was used for preparing the youth for wars; a situation that did not exist in Nigeria.'

Instead, Adedeji had wanted the British to devote time to improving Nigerian 'indigenous activities' in order to help solve local and national problems. He confessed however, that what the British introduced to Nigeria helped in preparing the natives for their participation within the allied forces in the first and second world wars.

In a research aimed at identifying the physical activities that are indigenous in origin and sufficiently suitable enough for constructing a P.E. syllabus for Nigerian elementary schools, Ajisafe<sup>(37)</sup> condemns the British 1933 P.E. syllabus that was transposed to Nigeria for containing many parts that did not satisfy the developmental needs of the children of Nigerian culture. Not only did Ajisafe's research findings indicate that indigenous physical activities were more popular and more acceptable to both Nigerian teachers and pupils in the primary schools, but also, it confirmed that such physical activities satisfied to a greater extent the developmental needs of the primary children than did

(36) Adedeji, J.A., The Ascendency of Physical Education 1900-1960. A study of Physical Education as a Teaching Subject in Nigeria Schools. Gymnasium, International Journal of P.E., Vol.17, Issue 3, Fall ed. 1980, pp.23-24.

(37) Ajisafe, M.O. 'An Indigenous Syllabus of Physical Education for the Nigerian Primary School'. Gymnasium, International Journal of P.E., Vol.13, Issue 4, Winter ed. 1976, pp.27-33.

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(37) Ajisafe, M.O. 'An Indigenous Syllabus of Physical Education for the Nigerian Primary School'. Gymnasium, International Journal of P.E., Vol.13, Issue 4, Winter ed. 1976, pp.27-33.

those activities of foreign origin. Ajisafe did not hesitate as a result of his research, in recommending that the whole system of primary school P.E. in Nigeria was in definite need of revision, changes and expansion in order to provide active and total participation by all children in the primary schools.

Reports from other colonial African countries also indicate that cultural activities of the indigenous people were willfully suppressed by European colonialists, particularly the missionaries who championed early education. McWilliam<sup>(38)</sup> has noted that the missionaries attempted to replace the existing African beliefs with Christianity by banishing traditional forms of training for citizenship which they 'regarded as bulwarks of Satan.' On British educational policy in some of her colonial territories, Grigg made this observation:<sup>(39)</sup>

... I cannot persuade myself that the results of our education up to date have been good. The product of our education has fundamental defects to which we cannot be blind. We must establish some new moral basis for the old tribal custom we destroy, and we must concentrate the very best organised scientific research we can upon that problem.

In a more balanced view, Rodney<sup>(40)</sup> put the blame on both Europeans and Africans alike by pointing out that 'the impact of colonialism and imperialism' did not establish in either party 'due regard for the unique features of African culture.' It is only in recent times that efforts are being made to put cultural activities in the perspective that they deserve. Efforts in this regard are being registered in many countries.

(38) McWilliam, H.O.A. et al, The Development of Education in Ghana. Longmans, London. 1st pub. 1959, (New ed.) 1975, p.34).

(39) Grigg, Sir, Edward, 'British Policy in Kenya'. Journal of African Society. Vol.24, No.103, April 1927, p.207.

(40) Rodney, W., Op.cit. 1972, p.42.

It is claimed, for instance, that in Tanzania, 'popular activities of the colonists have been retained and efforts made to revitalize the indigenous games and dances of the past.'<sup>(41)</sup> Attention has been drawn by Heilman<sup>(42)</sup> to the fact that attempts are being made in Nigeria for the revival of cultural heritage. It is also noted that the Nigerian physical educationist or teacher highly regards culture and P.E. as one inseparable item.

In general, Habte<sup>(43)</sup> regards P.E. in Africa as presenting a 'pretty discouraging picture.' He lays the blame at 'planners with narrow concepts of what Africans need most', and attacks both the teaching methods and the content of the P.E. programmes as unrelated to the social and cultural background of the peoples. A similar observation was registered by Coghlan<sup>(44)</sup> who lamented on lack of tradition in P.E. in Africa by posing this question: 'How can successful programmes be developed if, as in many African countries, there is no tradition of physical activity in school?'

A more comprehensive diagnosis of the problems that confront P.E. in Africa has been made by Coward and Lane<sup>(45)</sup>. They observed that P.E. in Africa is too often regarded as a second class subject, either neglected, taught half-heartedly or not at all. Reasons advanced for this situation include: fault in the tradition of teaching, general lack of proper

(41) Fox, N., 'Trends and Progress in P.E. and Sport in Selected Emerging Nations', Bulletin of P.E., Vol.12, No.3, July 1976, p.20.

(42) Heilman, C.L., 'A Look at Physical Education in Nigeria', Physical Educator, March 1976, p.43.

(43) Habte, 'Physical Education in Africa', Gymnasium, (ICHPER), Vol.3, 1965, p.5.

(44) Coghlan, J.F., 'Physical Education Needs in Africa', International Union of Students (I.U.S.), p.4.

(45) Coward, V.R. and Lane, T.C., Handbook of P.E. for Primary Schools (African) Evans, London 1970, 4th Imp., 1975, p.v.

understanding of the subject, and lack of comprehensive teachers' books on the subject. What appeared most worrying to Coward and Lane was the fact that most of the teachers who taught the subject in Africa were still drenched in the old cult and rigidly adhered to the traditions implanted by the colonialists.

In recognition of the problems that confront Africans in the development of Sport and P.E. Anthony<sup>(46)</sup> posed three questions before African delegates in International Meeting:

- (1) Is Africa repeating mistakes in organisation and leadership inherited from past days,
- (2) What steps are being taken to record regional and national histories in Sports? What actions have been made to integrate indigenous games with modern Sports programmes?
- (3) What action is being taken to improve research and documentation?

These questions were among a host of thought-provoking questions put forward for the consideration of the delegates.

In order to give a clearer insight of the problems that face African sports, Adefope<sup>(47)</sup> diagnosed the characteristics of African Sports and P.E. by stating that:

- (a) There is an apparent mental apathy to sport development which is still largely regarded as pastime.
- (b) Education is sadly lacking on the contribution of sport to the mental, physical and socio-economic well-being of a country.
- (c) The present state is also due to the result of influences that have shaped our past history.

(46) Anthony, D. (Organiser) Rabat Declaration on Sport in Africa. The Contribution of Sport to the Construction of Modern Africa', Seminar of I.C.S.P.E., Sponsored by UNESCO at Morocco, April 24, 1971.

(47) Adefope, H.E.O. 'General Characteristics of Sport in Africa'. Rabat Declaration on Sport in Africa. Seminar of I.C.S.P.E., Morocco, April 24, 1971.

Adefope concluded that the characteristics of African Sport are not unexpectedly shaped by environmental and historical factors. In consequence of these setbacks, he pleaded that Africans 'must attempt to analyse the effect of various influences' in order that efforts may be correlated in the best interests of African Sport. This suggestion does not appear to have received the desired attention that it merits. Since the Rabat Declaration, Schmidt<sup>(48)</sup> has queried that:

... unfortunately, much of sport and physical education in developing countries and the concepts and strategies to improve structural deficiencies are virtually unstudied, lacking serious work of research.

While attempts are now being made to give maximum support to research work in P.E., in many African countries, notably Nigeria, indications from Ghana are that attention to academic work in P.E. is dismal. It may not be fair to blame the government completely for this sad state of affairs since demands for expansion in many areas of national life are also suffering from similar predicaments. Nevertheless, there is now a brighter ray of hope for encouragement in research programmes as more scholarships are being offered each year to accredited physical educationists for further studies.

So far, it has been observed that throughout history society has shown a capacity for independently increasing its ability to live a more satisfactory life by exploiting the resources of nature. While all societies have experienced development at one time or another, it is also obvious that the rate of this advancement has varied from one country to another, or from one culture to another. Even though man has always exploited his natural surroundings in order to make a living, nevertheless, at a certain point in time, there also evolved the

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(48) Schmidt, B. 'Towards the Promotions of Sport in Developing Countries'. International Journal of Physical Education, Vol.14, No.4, Winter, 1977, p.20.

exploitation of man by man, in a situation where some acquired greater wealth and consequently lived well through the labour of others. From this development a stage was reached by which people in one community called a nation exploited the natural resources and the labour of another nation and its people. Other reasons, apart from exploitation, have also compelled some nations to dominate other nations.

Through the cross-cultural contact of different cultures many things have happened bringing with them changes which are described as either good or bad, relevant or irrelevant. Many researches have thus been carried out by learned men to explain, explore or analyse how existing situations have evolved. This is partly due to the fact that the best way of understanding what things are is to try and discover how they came to assume their existing form. In the process of finding solutions and answers to existing problems, many theories have been propounded. Conflicting views have been expressed regarding what happens during the impact of an advanced culture on a developing culture. While some writers have misgivings about the wholesale transfer of ideas and practices from one culture to another, some people have argued that, in a primitive culture, Western civilization must replace completely existing practices. Those who take the middle course advocate a sympathetic blending of the two systems or cultures until the new and the old are able to coexist peacefully in the society. Despite all the theories put forward, it has been found that it is one thing theorising and another thing putting those prepositions into practice.

The problem therefore appears to be more complex than dealing with theories alone. It calls for a fuller understanding between theory and practice, reality and illusion, scientific laws and human behaviour. The acceptance or rejection of new systems depend not only on the socio-cultural background of the native culture, but also such factors as

the geographical, political, economic as well as the methods of administration. The incorporation of a foreign type of education to a traditional society, it is further alleged, is dependent not only upon the nature, duration and the intensity of foreign contact, but also on the inherent assimilative capacities of diverse indigenous social structures. Environmental conditions serve as important a part as the social structure of the society. Peculiarities in the structure may produce a marked impact on the rate of development even though development in all phases could be temporary or transient and therefore destined sooner or later to give way to something else.

Furthermore it is often said that men tend to look upon new ideas with scepticism and hostility, particularly if these contain a threat to the established theories upon which the security of their own position rests. It has also been noted that in the process of cross-cultural contact and educational transfer, conflicts can be generated by the existence of competing value systems concerning the proper basis for deciding what to teach. Conflict can occur in many levels - conflict of ideas, conflict among individuals, interests, groups or facilities within an organisation. The balance which education tries to maintain between the transmission of established cultural attitudes and values on the one hand, and the transplantation of new ideas on the other hand, seems to have been swinging towards the pole of adaptation.

The nature of the relationship between the changes that are introduced through cultural contact and changes brought about naturally without external influence is highly complex; and at the present moment, very little is known about the relationship. Nevertheless it has been hypothesized that the success or failure of adopting foreign culture can be determined in part by the attitudes and orientations of those who initiate the transfer, in part by the effectiveness of the course which

introduced the change, and by the inherent potential of the change as perceived by the society where it is to be introduced. As Society is always in a state of flux, so also there have been continual shifts in the emphasis given to the various strands of culture. Just as culture can influence ideas of what is pleasant or distasteful, so also has education occupied a dominant role in determining what is good and progressive for a society at large.

Ghana, in the process of British Colonization, has inherited many practices and ideals, some of which were transferred 'uncontaminated' from the British. Hence, Ghanaian education has been a colonial inheritance which seems to be dominated by the ideals of the British. Since the period of British administration of the country, the systems, the institutions, the curricula and the methodologies that were introduced into Ghana have survived almost unchanged and unchallenged in practice. Yet the call for greater relevance in the educational provision in Ghana dates back to the beginning of this century.

A memorandum published by the Colonial Advisory Committee on Native Education in Tropical Africa has stated, among other points, that education should be adapted to the mentality, aptitudes, occupations and traditions of the various people, conserving as far as possible all sound and healthy elements in the fabric of their social life, adapting them where necessary to changed circumstances and progressive ideas as an agent of natural growth and evolution<sup>(49)</sup>. Fletcher<sup>(50)</sup> has also drawn attention to the fact that education in the Colonial territories was called upon to serve the most diverse purposes, one of which was to mediate the ideas of a foreign culture to a society in a state of transition..

(49) The Colonial Advisory Committee on Native Education in Tropical Africa, Memorandum. H.M.S.O., London 1975.

(50) Fletcher, Op.cit., p.3.

On the other hand, from the situation created by colonization, the response to its challenge and a host of other factors, has come that widening of horizon which is called education, and from which physical education has evolved. Out of the interaction of the indigenous and foreign systems, physical education has come to occupy a more respectable position in the educational curriculum.

Summarising, it can be seen that a review of the literature generally supports the notion that some systems evolved in one society can be successfully implemented in and benefit another society. It is also acknowledged that certain problems are nearly always apparent in one form or another which make the implementation of the ideas difficult.

The review of relevant literature on P.E. and Sport has revealed a catalogue of discontent and misgivings about the value of using some British methods and practices of P.E. in Africa. Consequently, there have been recommendations for the re-orientation of African P.E. to reflect traditional and cultural practices of the African so that maximum interest and satisfaction could be obtained. Since what prevails in Nigeria does not necessarily reflect Ghanaian thoughts and situations even though, to a large extent, both countries have many characteristics in common, it is important that a critical review of the impact of the British system of P.E. in Ghana is made.

The purpose of this particular study, therefore, is not only to portray accurately, and in detail, the development of P.E. in Ghana from pre-colonial to post Independence, but in so doing to examine the feasibility and issues involved in the implementation of a foreign system of education into a society in which it did not evolve. The central theme therefore, concerns the problems of cultural exchange and the extent to which a type of education devised from outside can be practised in another culture.

The broad questions for which it is therefore hoped to find answers, through this investigation concerning the impact of British contact on Ghanaian P.E. are:

- (a) What are the problems associated with the transplant of foreign ideas about education and P.E. in particular, in another society?
- (b) On what levels do these operate and how successfully may they be overcome?
- (c) How valid is the notion that one society may benefit from systems practised in another society as opposed to those developed from within the existing society?

Many needs could be met from this particular study. Perhaps the most important one is its response to calls made by educationists both in Africa and outside for research in this field of P.E. From international and national meetings of all kinds, there have been cries for African countries to research on the various influences that have shaped the course of P.E. In addition to evidence discussed, Semotiuk<sup>(51)</sup> has explained that a true knowledge of the comprehension of contemporary P.E. in any country must take into account the culture and the educational system related to culture. Also Sturzebecker<sup>(52)</sup> has advised physical educationists to leave no avenue unexplored or uninvestigated in terms of discovering the nature and extent of interest and participation in physical activities by all levels of the society in each country.

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(51) Semotiuk, D., Theoretical and Methodological Considerations for Comparative and International Sport and P.E., Gymnasium, 1973, pp.10, 11.

(52) Sturzebecker, R., Comparative Physical Education, Gymnasium, Vol.4, Autumn-Winter, 1967, p.49.

Furthermore, Vendien and Nixon have made it clear that in the light of cross-cultural studies, it is possible to re-evaluate one's own educational system and determine what is best for meeting the goals of one's own society.<sup>(53)</sup> Considering that no serious research has been conducted in Ghana on physical education at this level it is hoped that this study will accomplish the dual purpose of making the material a part of the historical background in the professional literature of Ghanaian P.E., and possibly, by implication, of shedding some light on the current issues and problems in cross-cultural interchange of educational experiences and theories. Perhaps the sheer importance of the issues involved in this study and the fact that no one in Africa has as yet attempted this kind of research in P.E. at this level, makes this work useful and desirable. The need for a comprehensive research in Ghanaian P.E. has been too long neglected. This study would achieve a valuable mission if it could arrive at several important suggestions which would enable African countries to make P.E. totally relevant to their unique socio-cultural background.

As the title of this study indicates, this is not a complete history of P.E. in Ghana in the style usually followed by such works; nor is it the history of education of the ordinary kind, and, yet, it partakes the nature of both. Its individuality consists of its special reference to issues of cross-cultural interchange and transfer of systems and practices from one culture to another.

In order to examine the influence and impact of British contact on the development of P.E. in Ghana, some kind of conceptual structure must be evolved to facilitate a systematic analysis of the available data. The method chosen to analyse and shed light upon the subject is to use a

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(53) Vendien, G.L. and Nixon, J.E., The World Today in Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1968, p.5.

historical perspective to accurately trace development of education in Ghana from traditional through colonial to independent status. Data will be obtained from comments from general text books and research work of historical and comparative education and physical education, Government reports and documents. Some concern is given to documents and publications of national and international organisations as well as Committees of Enquiries.

Basically, the framework of this study consists of three components - Pre-Colonial, Colonial and Post Colonial eras. In each of these phases the examination is centred principally on the evolution of P.E., and the forces that channelled its course. It starts by tracing the traditional development of the subject in pre-colonial times, the changes that occurred as a consequence of, and throughout the period of colonization, and trends in the post colonial period.

The period before European colonization examines the background characteristics of early Ghanaians. Apart from giving account of the geographical, occupational and social conditions of the society, this phase teases out the unique cultural attributes of the traditional society and examines how they were perpetuated. The type of traditional education that existed and the role of physical culture in the traditional set-up of the people are also discussed.

The second phase which deals with the colonial period is divided into two main sections, namely early colonial and late colonial periods. While the first part traces the arrival of Europeans in Ghana and examines the motives and policies that caused the introduction of formal education and P.E. in Ghana, the second phase analyses the growth of education and physical education up to the period of independence. Issues arising out of the development of education in Ghana are analysed under the background of what prevailed both in Ghana and Britain at the period

under discussion.

Finally, the third phase analyses how Ghanaian education and P.E. have been conducted during the post independence period in order to identify those changes, if any that have been introduced, and the reasons behind their introduction. This phase also takes a general look at the extent of British successes and failures in their educational transfer and administration in Ghana. From the acquired data, attempts are made to tease out the various issues and problems that have been created for the future development of P.E. in Ghana. The conclusion sums up the issues discussed and their outcome, as well as their implications for colonial territories. Some suggestions and recommendations have been made with particular reference to the Ghanaian situation.

#### Research Method

Educational research in any field of study is often fraught with many complex problems and issues, and this study is no exception. Perhaps the greatest problem is the fact that P.E. has received the least attention and therefore suffered from limited academic research in Ghana. In consequence, the field of enquiry is as vast as the nature of the subject. Placed in such a wilderness of virgin forest, yet untapped and unexplored with contemporary academic and sustained research tools, the writer had a herculean task in deciding which aspect of the subject needed immediate attention.

A deep reflection of the multitude of topics that came to mind showed that the historical aspect merits the first attention. This decision was reached because of the belief that history not only traces events as they occurred but also explains the 'why' and 'wherefore' of the various concepts and practices that have evolved. It is hoped that the insight gained through the study of the history of a particular

subject could lead to a better assessment of prevailing trends and possibly point to the adaptation of a remedy not yet applied.

The problem of the lack of sustained academic research on the topic in Ghana creates other sub-problems. Unlike Britain where the well-ploughed fields of P.E. makes local studies worthwhile for the sake of bringing out detailed information of a limited area, Ghana's situation called for a more or less national study that would offer a general outlook of the country. Obviously, the problems that confront researchers on national study are daunting as well as innumerable. Firstly, the wide expanse of materials to be covered is usually such that it is impossible to give detailed analysis of all the issues that are likely to be applicable. Consequently, there are occasional glossings over of some issues and topics which, ideally, would require greater coverage or further examination.

Secondly, the absence of written documents on the subject in Ghana, particularly in the period before European contact and the early period of British colonization, makes it necessary to find possible sources other than documentary evidence to illustrate how the traditional society spent their leisure time and what activities catered for their psycho-physical development. This creates historiographical problems. It makes it necessary to draw upon oral evidence of personal reminiscences in order to narrate and interpret past events and developments.

The use of oral history techniques presents many established difficulties. One such problem is that evidence obtained may not always be accurately recalled or expressed because of personal biases and distorted memory. Despite this and other setbacks involved in using this tool for collecting information, W. Baum's 'Oral History from Tape to Type' shows how due consideration can be given to this problem in carrying out research.

Furthermore, Roberts<sup>(56)</sup> has traced the long history of recording oral sources in Africa and outlined how it has been carried out by professional historians in recent times. He acknowledges that oral history has contributed to our knowledge of the African past, and confirms that professional anthropologists had made occasional records of oral history.

There is no doubt therefore that this source of evidence has naturally, but of necessity, been a major feature in uncovering Ghanaian history in many academic circles in the last thirty years. John Fage's work on oral traditions in Northern Ghana in the former state of Dagomba has been cited as evidence by Roberts, of how this approach has become an important trend of late. It has been observed also that micro-studies of colonial rule and its impact at district level have made use of local informants as well as local archives.

However, it is also known that there are many problems involved in interpreting such evidence. The writer has given cognizance to the merits and demerits of gathering materials through oral information as compared with the rigorous evaluation of traditional written evidence. Nevertheless, he believes that if we are to come to any understanding of the historical background of P.E. in Ghana we must utilize the only kind of evidence that is available before even this is lost forever. It may be argued that oral tradition is susceptible to criticisms by almost the same canons of judgement which the historian should apply to any historical sources. Even a traditionally regarded accurate source of evidence - the Colonial Office papers, has been criticised as being a restricted account of what actually happened. The National Association for Multi-racial Education in London observed in one of their documents

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(56) Roberts, A., 'The Use of Oral Sources for African History'. The Journal of the Oral History Society, Vol.4, No.1, Spring 1976, pp.41-55.

that African history in textbooks has been 'presented almost exclusively through European eyes.' (57)

As far as limited documentary evidence in Ghanaian P.E. is concerned, historical literature of various forms concerning Ghana have been read in order to tease out bits and pieces of information that throw light on most materials that were collected by oral tradition. While sources in Ghana were rather limited on the subject, there was copious and virtually inexhaustible literature available on British sources. What became obvious from the perusal of British sources was that, because most aspects of P.E. have been researched into, a great deal of work touches on the same issues often expressing the same arguments in new terminologies or phraseology.

The writer has not been drawn to well-known arguments which have often been repeated in British sources. Where pertinent, both sides of arguments have been presented for the writer to draw his own conclusions. In some cases, most of the familiar theories or conventional wisdom that have been put forward by educationists and philosophers have been accepted after considerable thought. Under such circumstances, attempts have not been made to repeat what has been established merely for the sake of expressing it in different words. Notwithstanding the problems and issues that have been raised and discussed, a great deal of thought and planning has been given to the presentation and the choice of topics so that the maximum justice may be done to almost all the essential aspects of the study.

Perhaps it is pertinent at this point to indicate some sources that were of special help in tracing Ghanaian P.E. during the early colonial

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(57) National Association for Multi-racial Education (N.A.M.E.), African History. What do we teach? Pamphlet by London Branch 16th January 1980, p.1.

period. The account by Cruickshank<sup>(58)</sup> of his eighteen year stay in Ghana, in two volumes, have rich sources of information about early traditional life of the natives. Even though his views or understanding of some tribal practices were sometimes limited, nevertheless his overall account and description of tribal activities and the culture of the Ghanaian during the 19th century is superb. As a distinguished member of the early British colonial administrators in Ghana, Cruickshank's work is generally eurocentric in its judgement, but nonetheless, rich in description. It portrays Ghanaian culture seen through the eyes of an accredited colonial administrator.

One other source that proved very valuable in Ghana was the Diploma dissertations of the Specialist Training College, Ghana. These dissertations which were started in 1965, cover many areas of P.E., especially the historical aspect. Although generally most of them seem to lack academic quality and sophistication, they contain much useful information. One of their strengths is that many of them are local studies that give adequate and often extensive coverage of traditional culture before European contact. While some of the descriptions lack lustre because of obvious limited powers of expression, the variety of views and subjects written about gives the reader ample food for thought. On the basis of raw materials, these diploma studies provide a starting point for anyone who wants to venture into this field in Ghana. A comprehensive bibliography of these dissertations appear at the end of this study.

Outside the sources described, there exist a few studies at post-graduate level that deal either in part or completely in Ghanaian P.E.

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(58) Cruickshank, B., Eighteen Years in Gold Coast of Africa. Op.cit.

The first attempt seems to be made by Nicholson.<sup>(59)</sup> This work, which is a comparative study of Britain and Ghana, devotes its greater part to the history of P.E. and Education in England without any appreciable account of similar topics in Ghana. Without any attempt to trace traditional P.E. in Ghana, the writer was not placed in a safe position to make any sound judgement on British influence. He was able to observe some problems without any insight into how those problems evolved. Under such a situation, some of his recommendations did not appear useful in the light of the evolution of the subject in Ghanaian society. Much of his study will be dealt with at the appropriate quarters. Suffice here to state that useful as it may be, it does not appear to have much to offer to the historian of P.E. in Ghana.

A pilot study by Asare<sup>(60)</sup> concerning the Ghanaian P.E. teacher gives some useful comparison of the sources of conflict in the Ghanaian schools. This study, which employed many instruments to test the role of Ghanaian teachers, appears to be the only work that has looked at the Ghanaian teacher of P.E. and the problems that face him from the national point of view. As a pilot study based on a limited sample of the Ghanaian population, some of the findings may not be completely reliable. The main merit of the work lies in establishing a basis from which more detailed study can be conducted in the future.

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(59) Nicholson, R.R., Physical Education in an Emergent Territory - Influences of British Traditions and Changes Following Independence. M.A. thesis (part-fulfilment) University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1966.

(60) Asare, E., A Sociological Study of the Sources of Role Conflict of the Ghanaian P.E. Teacher. Adv. Dip. P.E. dissertation, Leeds University, 1976.

Another study which touches on aspects of P.E. in Ghana and three African states was undertaken by Cross.<sup>(61)</sup> His account of the training of P.E. teachers in Ghana and the comparison drawn from the influence of Britain are very thoughtful. Valuable as his study of Ghana is, there is evidence to show that lack of time did not offer him the benefit of any serious study of problems that militate against the P.E. teacher and the whole P.E. establishment in Ghana. This is shown by the shallow way deductions were made from the limited information he received during his research in Ghana.

For instance, Cross alleged that Ghanaian P.E. teachers were unwilling to teach in Primary schools, because it would lead to a reduction in their salaries. Apparently he was unaware that salary scales for P.E. teachers are fixed at the completion of specialisation. This makes where one teaches immaterial to the actual salary. However, owing to the extra-curricular demands in teaching P.E. in Secondary schools and Training Colleges, the government introduced an extra bonus for those who taught in these schools. It must be stated here that in Ghana over ninety per cent of all Secondary schools and all the Training Colleges are residential. This incentive was to help all specialist teachers in such higher institutions to meet incidental expenses.

A fuller explanation of the reluctance shown by P.E. teachers to teach in elementary schools would include the concept of status. Teaching in primary schools does not carry the prestige accorded to secondary school teaching in Ghana. Strange as it may seem, in Ghana, teachers' prestige and status are assessed from the level being taught.

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(61) Cross, A., Comparative Physical Education. An Investigation into the Training of Specialist Teachers of Physical Education in the Commonwealth Countries of Middle Africa. M.Ed. dissertation, University of Leicester, 1979.

Within the elementary school itself, teachers who teach in the higher forms are usually looked upon by their pupils and some parents as academically more brilliant than those teaching in lower forms. Happily, this trend of thinking is fading fast, but even though this attitude is not expressed openly these days, it nevertheless persists psychologically.

Cross's account of P.E. Teacher Training in Ghana was rather superficial, as he never examined any of the External Examiner's reports of the P.E. department in order to gain the necessary insight into the problems of the institution. Perhaps his treatment of Ghana is understandable considering the fact that he had very limited time to go through the essential documents in all the African states he visited on his research project. Within the limitations in which he worked, it is only fair to say that, shallow as his work on Ghana was, it provided much useful information about general trends in the P.E. department.

In summary, this study is primarily concerned with the examination of British colonisation of Ghana as a case study in the transmission of one system of education and particularly P.E. into another society. It is both historical and comparative; and touches on issues of cross-cultural transfer of educational objectives. The study was based upon evidence collected and interpreted over a four year period, whilst registered as a full-time Ph.D. student at Leicester University.

Fieldwork was undertaken prior to and during that time. The author has been acquainted with P.E. teaching in Ghana for over one and a half decades and has lectured in the P.E. Institution in Ghana for some time. The experiences acquired from this association served as a background to intimate understanding of some of the problems and issues that plague the profession in Ghana. Perhaps his Advanced study of P.E. and subsequent

Master's study of the same subject at Leeds University, has exposed him to British concepts and how they evolved; and therefore has placed him in a situation that facilitates this comparative study of the subject in both countries.

The author utilized evidence drawn from a wide range of sources - official documents such as the Colonial Reports, Publications of the Education Department of the Government of Ghana, Reports from Select Committees of the Government of Britain, Reports of British and other Commissions, Historical Records of the Ghanaian Government and many others. In addition, secondary sources such as books, theses, dissertations, periodicals, magazines and conference reports of various types have been used. Oral evidence was used in some parts of the study.

#### Definition of terms

For the purposes of this study:

- (a) Physical Culture means all the physical activities and exercises of the traditional society, which were organised or unorganised, involving gymnastic, athletic and recreational values, as well as all forms of socially desirable and playful activities which contributed to the psycho-motor development of society.
- (b) Social Change is the resultant of the interplay and the final equilibrium achieved between the drive toward novelty, exerted by the transplanting of new knowledge, and the drive to hold fast to the old and familiar, exerted by tradition.
- (c) Cultural Change is the process by which the existing order of a given society, its social, spiritual and material civilization, is transformed from one type to another.
- (d) Schooling and Formal Education refer to what is taught in

school and school-related experiences, such as sports teams.

- (e) Education without an adjective, refers to learning that takes place outside the school as well as inside.
- (f) Informal education refers to organised learning.
- (g) Non-formal education refers to organised educational activities that occur outside the school.
- (h) Ghana used before the period of Independence refers to Gold Coast, a name given to the country by the early European explorers and merchants, due to the copious reserves of gold to be found, which formed the basis of trade. Thus Gold Coast and Ghana are interchangeable in reference to the pre-independence period.

## CHAPTER I

### TRADITIONAL EDUCATION AND PHYSICAL CULTURE

#### IN GHANA BEFORE EUROPEAN CONTACT

One of the setbacks that education in colonial territories appears to have suffered is that, of all the areas and subjects that have been researched into, none appears to have received the least attention as the subject of Native or Traditional education. The neglect of this area of research has unfortunately led to some misconceptions and assumptions of the role of indigenous education. Not only has it been assumed that the traditional society did not possess any form of education by virtue of the lack of knowledge of reading and writing among the natives, but also, it has led to some confusion whereby education has often been equated to schooling. It is probably in the light of this misconception and lack of understanding of the traditional society that Blyden<sup>(1)</sup> was encouraged to remark that the great peril to Africa lies in the ignorance of African character on the part of those who attempt to exploit the new field, or assert responsibility for the government of the people.

This phase of study examines the role of native education and physical culture in Ghana before the colonial period. It seeks to find what traditional or native education and physical culture were, what purposes they served, and what were their potentials and drawbacks. It is hoped that the information that will be acquired will serve as a backcloth for the subsequent examination of the subject of colonial and post colonial education in Ghana.

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(1) Blyden, E.W. 'West Africa Before Europe'. Journal of the West African Society, No.8, July 1903, p.362.

Native education in Ghana before the colonial period differed significantly from the modern concept of education. In the pre-colonial period, tribal education or traditional education had unique characteristics. For instance, there was no regular educational institution as existed in Europe, and the art of reading and writing was unknown. In consequence, the type of education was predominantly informal as well as non-literate. The home represented the school and provided the ancient tradition and custom of learning. Many writers<sup>(2)</sup> agree that traditional education aimed at moulding the natives to the stream of the general tribal life of the society. Busia<sup>(3)</sup> has stated that:

... traditional education sought to produce men and women who were not self-centred; who put the interest of the group above their personal interest; whose hearts were warm towards members of their family and kinsfold; who dutifully fulfilled obligations hallowed and approved by tradition, out of reverence for the ancestors and gods and the unknown universe of spirits and forces, and a sense of dependence on them.

Even though such knowledge and experience that were gained from this type of education were mainly oral and traditional, they ensured the survival of the offspring and also safeguarded the continuity of the community.

The systems of education and instruction by which culture was perpetuated and the young were brought up to take the mantle of responsibility of adulthood in the society, had clearly spelt out objectives. Fafunwa<sup>(4)</sup> has identified what he terms as 'the seven cardinal goals of

(2) For further details consult: Rattray, R.S. Capt., *The African Child in Proverb, Folklore and Fact, Africa*, Vol.VI, 1933; Cruickshank, B., *Eighteen Years on the Gold Coast of Africa* (Two Vols.) 1st published London, 1853.

(3) Busia, K.A., *Purposeful Education for Africa*. Mouton & Co., London, 1964, p.17.

(4) Fafunwa, B.A., *History of Education in Nigeria*. George Allen & Unwin. London, 1974, p.20.

African traditional education' as:

- (1) To develop the child's latent physical skills,
- (2) To develop character,
- (3) To inculcate respect for elders and those in positions of authority,
- (4) To develop intellectual skills,
- (5) To acquire specific vocational training and to develop a healthy attitude towards honest labour,
- (6) To develop a sense of belonging and to participate actively in family and community affairs,
- (7) To understand, appreciate and promote the cultural heritage of the community at large.

It was the unyielding responsibility of the parents and the older generation to pass on to the young not only the accumulated knowledge of the society, but also such knowledge that comprised traditional beliefs, general skills, rules and bye-laws that ensured effective social living. In this regard, the training of the child covered virtually every department of life and aimed at enhancing a successful living first as an individual, and then, as a member of the community or society.

Education of the youth in tribal society therefore began very early in childhood. The home represented the school with members of family and the society, regardless of age, acting as teachers. In this regard, the education of the youth in the society was regarded as a joint enterprise engaged in by both the young and the aged. Wallas<sup>(5)</sup> aptly described the traditional society as 'a race of unqualified teachers.'

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(5) Wallas, G., Our Social Heritage, Allen & Unwin, London, 1921, p.145.

Bartels<sup>(6)</sup> has listed three main areas where parents taught their children as:

(1) Maintenance of Health:

- (a) Food Production and Preparation.
- (b) Development of Physical Strength - Games, Wrestling, Trial of Strength and Dieting.
- (c) Medicine: Preventive - Innoculation Curative - Herbs, Poisonous and Non-poisonous.

(2) Customs:

- (a) Conventional Manners e.g. Salutations.
- (b) Celebrations - Birth, Marriage, Death, Family Festivals, Community Festivals.
- (c) Oaths.

(3) Activity - Individual and Communal

- (a) Leisure - Toy making, Games, Dancing.
- (b) Swimming.

It can be seen that Bartels' three areas of traditional training encompass the objectives that have already been outlined by Fafunwa.

The training of the child from infancy to adulthood was undertaken with caution and due regard to the natural age and environment of the child. Busia<sup>(7)</sup> has vividly described how right from infancy, the new offspring were taught how to cope with their surroundings in fascinatingly undefined, but in very progressive steps. The parents took into active consideration the standard and maturity of the child in deciding the type of activity to be engaged in and the degree of participation. Such knowledge and activities includes all the aspects that have been outlined by Bartels and Fafunwa. In addition, the knowledge about basic

(6) Bartels, The Provision and Administration of Education, Op.cit., 1949.

(7) Busia, K.A., Op.cit., p.16

household chores, fundamental beliefs, environmental hygiene and various occupational activities of the parents and the community were given him verbally, by observation, and participation.

Even though training methods were mostly informal, there were times when parents formally instructed their children about some aspects of language and manners that were generally acceptable to the society. The child developed desirable health attitudes, and the ethics of community living through exposure (either actively or passively) alongside his more mature parents, relatives, friends or the environment. From this situation, the various forms of tribal and traditional modes of life were studied.

The following three representative descriptions of the methods of traditional upbringing recorded by foreign and native writers may elucidate the points raised. Cruickshank<sup>(8)</sup>, a Scotsman who spent part of his life in Ghana and became a member of the first Legislative Council set up in 1850, has written two volumes on the social history of the natives. He describes the traditional initiation of the child into all the practical concerns that occupied the attention of the parents and the tribe in these words:

... if the parent be engaged in agricultural pursuits in which man and woman alike take part, they were always accompanied to their plantations by their child, who has a small hoe placed in its hand to assist in the labour at an age when its services can be of little moment.

... if the father was a fisherman, his child is to be seen at sea with him in his frail canoe, handling a paddle, which he has as yet scarcely the strength to lift ...

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(8) Cruickshank, B., Eighteen Years on the Gold Coast of Africa. Vol.I, pp.204-205, Vol.II, p.270, London 1853.

It happens that a perfect knowledge of the customs and practice of his country grows up with the growth of each individual; so that at whatever moment, after the years of maturity, the responsibilities of office arising from birth and position devolve upon any, he finds himself perfectly at home to assuming them.

Busia<sup>(9)</sup> a Ghanaian, has written about the various channels through which the young gained their knowledge about tribal life in this passage:

... They were constantly made aware of the community to which they belonged, in and for which they were trained through work and play and religious rite, through song and dance and folklore, through customary services received or given within all the embracing network of family and kinship ties.

Rattary<sup>(10)</sup> concludes his study of the Ashanti group of the Akan tribe of the Gold Coast by pointing out that:

... In nine cases out of ten, the result of the primitive African child's upbringing was to produce a type of man or woman anyone would be proud to call a friend - brave without thinking they were brave; patient without a thought that they possessed Job's virtue.

One remarkable feature of the youth in the traditional society was that they followed and imitated closely the pattern of living that existed in the community, particularly within one's own family. The systematic training imposed on the individual helped in a large measure to shape him in 'right behaviour' and adequately prepared him for the 'right duty' at adolescent period.

Another point worthy of note about the traditional society is that because of their peculiar social circumstances, the male and the female were really two cultures and their life experiences were also utterly different. This was created by the common belief in the society that the female's role was that of a wife and mother, and the male's role

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(9) Busia, A.K., Op.cit., p.16.

(10) Rattary, R.S. Capt., Op.cit., p.14.

that of a husband and bread winner. These assumed dominant sex roles were attributable to the innate biological differences between the sexes. The female was therefore expected to be passive, subordinate, submissive and an excellent cook. Indeed she was expected to exhibit some feminine qualities such as gracefulness, tolerance and compassion.

On the other hand, the male was supposed to be physically fit and active, dominant, aggressive and assertive. As a protector of the female and the children, the desire for physical fitness was the prime need that the traditional society expected every man to possess. This expectation emphasized the high premium that was placed on various aspects of physical culture before colonial period. Children were therefore socialized to conform to these stereotyped sex roles. They carried these roles along with them in the practise and performance of all traditional and cultural activities. The average child living within one cultural environment therefore was educated to become a conforming member of this enduring, complex and highly organised village or tribal society. He was in turn expected to perpetuate the culture by passing on the same tradition to his own offspring.

Apart from the methods so far described for the transmission of knowledge and experience in the traditional society, there were other methods which were more formal. Although not confined to the four walls of the school, the people employed a more formal kind of education to transmit the tribal culture. This consisted of oral history, music, dance, games and art. All were not evident in all tribes but each tribe played an important part in instilling pride in self, tribe and fitness for survival.

The only type of formal education in the traditional society which had some resemblance to what was practised in European communities

was carried on in the 'Bush Schools'. These schools, which existed long before the early missionaries set foot in Ghana, were peculiarly African and were described by Watkins<sup>(11)</sup> as places where 'over successive generations, the young and unassimilated members of a group are incorporated by their sharing of the social heritage.' These schools were the citadels of the adolescents' moral and civic training.

In Ghana, such schools were located usually at reserved forest areas in the tribal areas. It was recognised as a form of initiation where the successful completion of training raised the status of the youth in the community. The training, which lasted often between six to eighteen months, comprised of various activities and lessons which built up good character, desirable attitudes and endurance to cope with the vicissitudes of life in the society. Watkins' account of this school indicates that age and ability grouping divided the students for their classes in arts, crafts, native lore, history, swimming, canoeing, hunting, singing, drumming and wrestling. Strict adherence to the curriculum is reported and the impressions are that much of the training in these bush schools involved strenuous physical activities designed to test the total fitness of the individual, particularly his endurance to different types of hardships from different elements. Aggrey laconically described the bush school in the following passage:

... Africa itself in old times, and still today in its less-developed areas it must be remembered, has had its educational systems. These were not so perfect as those in the West, but they filled a most important place in African life. I refer ... to the 'coming of age' or Bush Schools. Here ... the place of the old and the future of the young were taught. Here the exploits of our African heroes and heroines and the history of the tribes were handed down to us through tradition in songs

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(11) Watkins, M.H. 'West African Bush School', American Journal of Sociology, May 1943, p.666.

and poetry of the rarest beauty. Our duty to society, to our tribes and to all things African, was ingrained in us ... with the coming of Western civilization ... our very names were designated as pagan and were given European or American names. Our dances were tabooed, our games stopped, our customs were forgotten, with baneful results. (12)

What appears to be the real meaning of the Bush schools is that the boys who were sent there were being freed from childhood and admitted to the full life of the tribe or society, with all the responsibilities, dangers and duties that belong to adult manhood. Prior to receiving training from these bush schools, the adolescents were recognised in the society as mere irresponsible children who have yet to grow to maturity.

Corresponding to the type of training for boys, there was also special training for girls at the age of puberty. Although there were no bush schools for the girls on the pattern of the boys', yet the type of training and customary rites that were performed at the age of puberty adequately prepared the girls to assume the roles that society expected from them. The transition from boyhood to manhood or from girl to womanhood was also characterized, in the tribal society, by special and unique ceremonies and rites. In all these rites, for both sexes alike, instruction was always given and a somewhat elaborate code of ceremonies which formed part of the native culture, was performed. As well as one can tell, these methods of educating the young seemed to meet the needs of the individual as well as the society.

Despite the fact that literacy, which has become the hallmark in present developed and developing countries was relatively unknown in the early traditional society, the home provided the ancient tradition

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(12) Sampson, M., Gold Coast Men of Affairs, p.66.

and custom of learning from elders through the various senses. The duties and obligations of the society were learnt through the constant interaction between parents and their children and the community at large. Following and imitating closely the pattern of living that existed in the community became the main guiding principle of the youth.

Training at infancy was not limited to what is mentioned above; they were exposed to occupational activities of the parents and the community. It included how to farm, till the land, hunt or fish, build houses and besides, how to defend oneself against the hostile nature of his habitation. The youth learnt most of his life lessons through contact with nature within his environment. In most cases, he was ill-protected from accident, handled crude tools and learnt to fend for himself through constant struggle against the different elements that constituted his area of abode.

Taking part in occupations predominant in the society, the early children learnt how to hunt and snare birds, how to make traps for different kinds of animals using different materials that nature provided within their environment. They are taught a great deal of other methods of producing food necessary for human consumption and survival. Above all, they learnt how to hew down big trees for the preparation of new houses, canoes and the manufacture of other useful implements that enhanced the continuity of their existence. Through these exposures, they were able not only to differentiate between soft woods and hard woods and the types of woods necessary for what types of jobs, but also lessons that trees, rivers and unfriendly animals could teach children who were left free to approach them.

Traditional education was a deliberate attempt at adjusting the people to their environment with increased concern for training them in social activities and practical endeavours through which they became

useful and responsible members of the society. Traits of character that were deliberately encouraged through these means were self-reliance and the will to persevere and improve at all costs. There appears to be no doubt that traditional education was capable of producing men and women who had great ability to remember and recall things and events in addition to its potential power to develop moral, practical and vocational approaches to life.

Like any other method of education the traditional approach had its disadvantages too. It seems to have laid greater emphasis and almost total reliance on group training and development. By adhering rigidly to traditional modes of life, the tendency to develop passive attitudes towards life was encouraged. Such a system does not encourage change and renders diversion from accepted principles as a taboo and total abuse to tradition. As if the world was in a static position, it did not appear to make much room for a state of flux.

Despite this apparent setback it appeared to adequately satisfy the needs of the time.

### Traditional Physical Culture

Historians have reported that Physical Education and Sports activities traditionally reflect the ideals and beliefs of the culture of which they are part. Vendien<sup>(13)</sup> and others have asserted that primitive culture placed central emphasis upon physical education as a basis for improvement of everyday practical living. Deobold et al<sup>(14)</sup> have

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(13) Vendien, L.C. and Nixon, J.E., The World Today in Health, Physical Education and Recreation. Prentice-Hall, New Jersey, 1968, p.27.

(14) Van Dalen, D.B. et al, A World History of Physical Education. Prentice-Hall, 1953, p.640.

also maintained that 'P.E. reflects the very society that fosters it.'

A better summary of various views of P.E. could hardly be put than

these words of Fiering<sup>(15)</sup>:

... Physical Education bears an ancient heritage. Its sources rise out of the nature of man, its variations reflect the changing economic, industrial, religious and cultural environments of all people, and its purposes demonstrate the dominant ideas of the time and the place.

Views expressed by different writers indicate that societies where security is threatened, P.E. becomes an instrument for survival and is often associated with military, while under more favourable social conditions, it is directed to healthy recreational and creative pursuits.

Furthermore, studies conducted by Stumpf<sup>(16)</sup>, Dunlap<sup>(17)</sup> and Cozens<sup>(18)</sup> have reported that vigorous physical activities were employed in the cultures studied for the purposes of educating the young, preparing for war, recreational pursuits and religious rituals. Many societies in different historical periods have exhibited various forms of P.E.; at the same time, varying factors influenced the success, types of objectives, participating level, and the emphasis that different cultures placed on the development of the subject.

(15) Feiring, J.W., The Principle of Physical Education. W.B. Saunders Co., 1927, reprinted in 1964.

(16) Stumpf, F. and Cozens, F.W., 'Some Aspects of Games, Sports and Recreational Activities in the Culture of Modern Primitive Peoples: II The Fijians'. Research Quarterly, Vol.20, 1949, pp.2-20.

(17) Dunlap, H.L., 'Games, Sports, Dancing and other Vigorous Recreational Activities and their Function in Samoan Culture'. Research Quarterly, Vol.22, 1951, p.298.

(18) Cozens, F.W. and Stumpf, F.S., 'Some Aspects of the Role of Games and Sports and Recreational Activities in the Culture of Modern Primitive Peoples'. Research Quarterly, Vol.18, 1947, pp.198-218.

Bucher<sup>(19)</sup> has cited many examples from ancient societies to support these views. For instance, he explains that because the topography of the land of ancient China protected her from external invaders, China was able to concentrate on developing physical exercises for healing diseases which were believed to be caused by organic inactivity. On the other hand, a country like Persia who lacked the advantages of China, and was susceptible to outside aggression, aimed at building its empire through military aggression and followed ideals which had as its goals destruction, conquest and aggrandisement. Further examples cited by Bucher<sup>(20)</sup> show that in ancient Sparta, the main objective of P.E. was 'to develop their bodies for the aesthetic values and to live fuller and more vigorous life.'

Historically then, the origin of P.E. has been associated with many factors and considerations. Societies in different historical periods have exhibited various forms of P.E. for a variety of reasons, mainly geographical, sociocultural, economic and political. The participating levels, and the emphasis placed on these activities by these cultures were reflective of the unique conditions and demands of the period. It is from the culmination of thoughts and objectives from these ancient societies that P.E. has become inextricably linked to culture. It is not surprising therefore, to find that in explaining the relationship of physical activities to culture, Barrow<sup>(21)</sup> has defined culture as:

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(19) Bucher, C.A., Foundations of Physical Education. The C.V. Mosby Co., St. Louis, 1960 (3rd ed.), p.218.

(20) Bucher, C.A., Ibid., p.219.

(21) Barrow, H.M., Man and His Movement: Principles of His Physical Education. Lea & Febiger, Philadelphia, 1971, p.189.

... a mosaic comprising the whole of man's learned and expected activities including ideas, knowledge, beliefs, laws, morals, traditions, art, customs and habits as well as invented physical things like tools and buildings.

On the other hand, the key ideas that have affected the development of physical activities in different cultures have been manifold and as a result, various theories have been put forward to explain the relationship of these activities to culture. For instance, White's<sup>(22)</sup> evolutionary theory conceives the development of culture as the progressive adaptation of man to the physical world. White thinks that 'the function and purpose of culture are to make life secure and enduring for the human species', and sees culture as a self-determined system whose guiding principle is that of utility.

Another view is put forward by Honigmann<sup>(23)</sup> who believes that culture 'designates man-made artifacts, the activities that people perform, and ideas and feelings.' In this concept, culture is equated with artifacts, activities, thoughts and feelings that are socially standardised and suggests further that the best comprehension of cultures is achieved when one examines all the relevant characteristics present in a situation at a given period. Boas<sup>(24)</sup> has also acknowledged that every culture is strongly influenced by its natural environment; and that each culture has a complex history.

The culmination of thoughts and ideas expressed by these writers and others unmentioned, seems to indicate that the concept of culture

(22) White, L.A., The Education of Culture: The Development of Civilization to the Fall of Rome. McGraw-Hill, New York, 1959, p.8.

(23) Honigmann, J.J., Understanding Culture. Harper & Row, London 1963, p.3.

(24) Boas, F. (1) Anthropology and Modern Life, W.W. Norton & Co., (Rered), New York, (b) Race, Language and Culture, Macmillan, New York, 1940, p.256.

exhibits many characteristics which are in most cases unique. To achieve a reasonable understanding of any bit of culture viewed in context therefore demands answering two questions - the purpose and meaning of that behaviour or artifact, and its functions. The function may be determined by finding whatever difference it makes in the whole realm of life being studied.

In this phase of the study, attempts are made to find out the purpose, meaning and functions of traditional physical activities in the Ghanaian society before the institutionalisation of formal education as opposed to traditional or native education. Particularly, greater emphasis would be placed on the examination of the forces and factors that shaped and determined its growth and development.

Implications from views expressed about culture so far suggest that every culture is not only unique, but also reflects the society it fosters; and that a fuller comprehension of any culture depends on answering questions related to its purpose, functions and meaning. Physical culture in this study, in the light of our discussion would be defined as the various psycho-motor activities people in traditional society performed in order to progressively adapt themselves to the physical world within their natural environment. From this standpoint, physical culture may be used inter-changeably with the modern concept of physical education, sport and recreation.

Physical culture in Ghana before the advent of European influence and civilization comprised many activities which were derived from two main sources - occupational and cultural. The occupational sources consisted of activities that provided the economic needs of the people and the cultural aspect included activities outside the realm of occupational engagement.

Occupational activities were largely influenced by geographical factors like climate, vegetation and the topography of the area. Home people occupying the coastal areas and along big rivers generally were engaged in fishing; those on the forest belt were predominantly arable farmers while those who inhabited the grassland were usually pastoral farmers. Some areas undertook a mixture of these employments in addition to others, like hunting, and all types of arts and crafts - weaving, sculpture, pottery, which were not so much controlled by geographical features.

As far as these activities were concerned, indications are that the traditional society lived a hazardous life. Many factors contributed to this situation. Firstly, the hostile climate with its blazing sunshine and abundant rainfall meant that in some areas, particularly in the forest zone, the tropical forest offered severe challenges for survival. The second challenge concerned the nature of equipment available for providing the necessary conditions for survival. As far as it is known, the ability of the society to face the challenge of survival was the greatest test at that period..

The problems that confronted traditional society in relation to the climatic conditions of the country were many and complex. In the grassland areas, scarcity of rainfall meant that vegetation was poor and in consequence the growth of food was greatly hampered. In the event of severe draught, occupants of these areas were forced to travel miles in search of food and water. Nomadic life became the necessary antidote to ease the pressure of survival. Such a life, on the other hand, exposed the society to numerous dangers and exposure to extremes of climatic conditions. Many hardships were encountered in the search for food and water.

If one considers the effects of the conditions of the forest areas

on the development of the individual, one finds that their situation appeared worse than those in the north. Here the impenetrable forest thronged with deadly animals and insects presented a challenging situation where only the strong and hardy could survive. With crude missiles, the dwellers of this area had to fight against the tropical surroundings and also protect themselves against unfriendly local tribes. For their food, they had to climb long and big trees for fruit and nuts, or look for roots from the dense undergrowth of the forest. Hunting was as dangerous and energy consuming as running a marathon. Often, one got lost in the forest and had to wander long distances with life always at stake from unexpected attack by any of the enemies that made up this area of abode.

Labour during this period consisted of the multitude of activities that demanded the use of his limited tools manually. Apart from the need to manufacture basic tools for its survival, the traditional society used these tools to construct their huts as well as making the facilities necessary for their occupation. Making boats for fishing and travelling along the rivers required, like other activities, participation by all members of the family. Work was shared among the group according to everyone's ability and interest. By the end of the day, everyone would appear exhausted as a result of the intensity of the physical demands that the occupational obligations compelled. Repetition of the daily activities meant that the physical and mental aspects of the man was constantly under pressure. One had to plan where to get food for the whole family in the same way as one had to be ready to protect and defend his family or tribe.

Considering those who lived along the coast and whose main occupation was fishing, conditions were by no means easier. Sometimes, in their frail boats, their ability to manoeuvre these boats over the lofty

billows of the rough sea were over-taxed and demanded physical power, endurance, courage and determination of the highest order. Those who used canoes in the lagoons and the sea often struggled with the wind to maintain their course or pay the price of being devoured by the boisterous sea. In the light of these occupational hazards, it was expected of every youth to be physically strong in such a way that he could face the problems and perils associated with their profession or work.

This was the period when man's only means of transport on land was either by foot or by the use of beasts of burden. While horses and donkeys were available in the north, they were not so common in the south. The use of slaves or paid carriers was the only means available for merchants who travelled to sell their goods. Commodities like dried or smoked fish and salt were carried by traders from the coast to the forest areas where they were exchanged for smoked meat, cola and other crops not readily obtainable on the coast. The dangers associated with carrying precious goods through thick forests and grasslands can only be left to the imagination of the reader. The sum total of all these experiences was that the quest for physical strength was imperative and strength was acquired consciously or otherwise. Farmers, hunters, fishermen, builders, porters, weavers, carvers, all these people out of necessity had to possess the skills associated with their jobs as well as the determination and strength to pursue them in the face of innumerable odds, and adverse conditions.

It is obvious that those members who could not survive the ordeal of coping with the tensions associated with the occupational needs of the society did not survive for long. The daily tasks demanded iron nerves and so those who lived naturally developed all the qualities that were necessary to enhance the effective perpetuation of the society.

In regard to the remarkable ways in which the early men coped with the various influences that shaped their lives and physical development, many writers agree with Emmett<sup>(25)</sup>, in admitting that physical perfection was the only feature in primitive life that is 'comparable or superior to that of civilized man.' Referring to Ghana in particular, Cruickshank<sup>(26)</sup> has testified that the people 'possessed high physical qualities' and 'were capable of enduring the severest toil and greatest privations.'

On the other hand, cultural activities had different influences as well as helping in physical development of the society. Cultural activities consisted of many traditional celebrations and festivals, religious rites, amusements and games. These activities had not only social and cultural values, but also influenced the moral and political stability of the society at the time. The various aspects will now be discussed.

Talking about rites and ceremonies it is pertinent to mention that the tribal society had a multiplicity of rites and rituals for all the important events of life. For instance, there were rites for child-naming ceremonies, puberty rites, rites for marriages and deaths and many others. At the same time, there were seasonal festivals and ceremonies which were performed at different times in different localities and tribes in varying ways. In almost all the functions mentioned, music, drumming or dancing played an important role.

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(25) Emmett, M.R., A Brief History of Physical Education. Barnes & Co., New York, 1926, p.3.

(26) Cruickshank, B., Op.cit., Vol.II, p.253.

Songs that were sung were either secular or religious. While religious songs usually praised particular gods, secular songs varied a lot. The words of secular songs could teach morals or current affairs, some could trace one's history, or could be deliberately insulting, casting insinuations at rival parties; and others philosophised about death and other events of life. Some were used when at work to alleviate strain and boredom. The role of music and dance in the traditional society will be fully discussed later in this chapter.

Even though physical culture pursuits of the traditional society were to a considerable extent tied up with their economic life, nevertheless there were definite arrangements made in regard to recreational activities. Games and sports of various kinds were engaged in during the evenings and off-season periods of planting. Foot racing as a competitive sport was very widespread, wrestling and boxing were popular, throwing at a target with weapons such as bow and arrows, spears and stones was a favourite sport. Also, swimming and diving as well as canoe competitions were common along the coast, lagoons and rivers, while fencing with sticks and spears was widespread, particularly in the North.

Apart from the various games and sporting activities mentioned, there were numerous minor games which were played especially by the young folk of both sexes at different times and places. Some of the games were local and varied according to the environment and geographical location. In this regard, those who lived near the sea enjoyed mainly aquatic sports and games and those in the interior activities peculiar to their area of habitation.

A brief description of some of the activities performed along the coastal areas will serve to illustrate the concern and interest that the traditional society placed on recreational pursuits. Along the rivers,

lagoons and the sea, where swimming, diving and canoeing remained the natural sport, other games were played by those who did not wish to participate in the activities mentioned. Gymnastic activities were one of the favourite sports for the young and the youth. They included cart wheel, back-somersault, flic-flac and other forms of acrobatic displays which were learnt along the beach and exhibited during traditional festivals. Racing against each other was as popular among the youth as wrestling was for the older people. In addition, some minor games played by both sexes included jumping over obstacles, hide-and-seek, cock-fighting and numerous indigenous games. Some of these games were often accompanied by songs and dancing. The youth found great enjoyment in participating in these activities.

Sports and games played in the forest zones were rather different. Even though those who lived near big rivers enjoyed some of the aquatic sports of the south, owing to the rapids in many of the rivers, and the fact that the big ones were often infested with dangerous animals like snakes and crocodiles, participation in such activities were restricted. However, swimming against the current and retrieving objects from rivers were favourite sports in this area. Diving was practised from the banks of the rivers in areas where the water level was deep.

In the forest regions, there were many indigenous games but the most popular recreational activities were drumming and dancing. Bowdich<sup>(27)</sup> has confirmed that some games were played in Ashanti during the early part of the 18th century and names the two principal ones as 'Worra' and 'Drafts'. In his description of the games, Bowdich states:

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(27) Bowdich, T.E., Mission from Cape Coast Castle to Ashantee. Frank Cass, 1966 (3rd ed.), p.303. (First published 1819 by John Murray).

... Their method resembles the Polish: they take and move backwards and forwards, and a king has the bishops move in chess. They have another game, for which a board is perforated like a cribbage board, but in numerous oblique lines traversing each other in all directions, and each composed of three holes for pegs; the players begin at the same instant, and he who inserts or completes a line first, in spite of the banks of his adversary, takes a peg from him, until the stock of either is exhausted.

This vivid description of Bowdich is one example of the many traditional games that were played in Ghana before the colonial period.

Indigenous games that were played by people who lived in the Northern Territories of Ghana included 'Din-Daro', 'Anyee', 'Bua Gehe', 'Mbombom' and 'Zo-Dangtaa'. Many of these games had social benefits and involved varying levels of jumping, hopping, running, chasing and clapping of hands. Most parts of the body were exercised incidentally the most affected areas being the legs, trunks and arms.

Among the Ewes in the south-eastern part of the country, both sexes played games like 'siti', 'Kantata', 'Akotavui', 'Sabla' and 'Yeye'. These tribal games were noted mainly for the recreational values, they relaxed the children after hectic activities during the daytime and they were played mainly in the evenings. These games were different from those played by the Fantis while the Ewes shared similar occupations, the Fantis played tribal games such as 'Odzimdzim', 'Osibir', 'Nankor', 'Adande' and 'Apepantwer'. Their women and girls played less vigorous games like 'Anto-ekyir', 'Asow', 'Kyekyekule', and many others. As it has been rightly emphasized by Ackon<sup>(28)</sup> the people in this region set the evenings aside for games to recreate themselves and forget about difficulties met during the days work.

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(28) Ackon, H., Some Changing Phases of P.E. in the Ghanaian Society. Diploma dissertation, Specialist Training College, Winneba, Ghana, 1973, p.8.

Significant among the recreational acts of the traditional societies were singing, dancing, cultural drumming and ceremonial observances to mark important events of the community. Such events included religious rituals like special ceremonies to solicit the blessings of the gods for the progress of specific types of occupations and the participation in cultural pursuits that gave identity to the tribe. These activities were well integrated into the recreational life of the traditional society and occupied an important part of its traditional music, dancing and drumming.

As Rodney has aptly stated:

... music and dance had key roles in 'uncontaminated' African society. They were ever present at birth, initiation, marriage, death etc., as well as appearing at times of recreation ...

Because of the impact of colonialism and cultural imperialism, Europeans and Africans themselves in the colonial period lacked due regard for the unique features of African culture. (29)

The diversity of roles that dances performed in the African culture is outlined by Gorer<sup>(30)</sup> in the following passage:

... Africans dance. They dance for joy and they dance for hate; they dance to avert calamity; they dance for religion and they dance to pass the time. For more exotic than their skin and their features is this characteristic of dancing; the West African Negro is not so much the blackish man or the cannibal man or the primitive man as he is the man who expresses every emotion with rhythmical bodily movements.

Many accounts of Ghanaian dances are recorded in the memoirs and writings of European merchants and explorers in the 19th century. James Alexander<sup>(31)</sup> for instance, observed Ghanaian traditional dances in the 1830's and

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(29) Rodney Walter, *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa.*, London 1972, pp.41-42.

(30) Gorer, G., *African Dances*, Hazel, Watson & Viney, London (1st pub. 1935), 1945, p.191.

(31) Alexander, J., Sir, *Excursions in West Africa*. Narrative of a Voyage of Observation Among the Colonies of Western Africa. Henry Colbum, London, 1837, pp.171-172.

gave a lucid account of the exhibition of agility of the performers who came from Cape Coast.

Even though detailed information about the different dances that were performed is limited, writers like Gorer<sup>(32)</sup>, Primus<sup>(33)</sup> and others have indicated that dance was the major medium of social expression as well as religious ritual. Ottenberg<sup>(34)</sup> has confirmed as well that 'dance has been a driving welding force in African cultures for a long time.' It was admitted that the movements of dancers involved considerable co-ordination, stamina and strength and often served to express the quality of everyday life. It was further suggested that the elements of pleasure and physical release on these dances were related to psychological and physiological needs.

The vast array of traditional and cultural dances in Ghana can be explained by the diversity of the origins of the ethnic groups in the country. They are said to have originated during the periods of inter-tribal wars in the country when it became necessary to raise big families for work, protection and manpower pool in order to replace the victims of infant mortality, war and disease. In consequence, any form of physical activity that preserved health was encouraged in the absence of equipment and facilities for physical education.

Dancing became accepted as the main medium for the propagation of social people. To a large extent, the habits of work and the nature

(32) Gorer, G., African Dances, Ibid., p.191.

(33) Primus, P., 'Out of Africa, in Walter Sorell, The Dance has Many Faces, The World Pub. Co., New York, 1951, p.260.

(34) Ottenbert, S. and Ottenberg, P., Cultures and Societies of Africa, New York, 1960, p.67.

of the economy of the people were responsible for putting considerable prominence on the forms of tribal dancing that existed in all localities. Both the spiritual as well as the physical rewards of this cultural drumming and dancing were acknowledged.

Tribal dancing and drumming used to be a common feature in the traditional society. Its main usefulness was in the social values derived from their performances; but its incidental gain was the healthy mental and physical development that was the resultant of the nature of dances performed. The bodily training which gave health and activity to the human frame was imparted in the tribal society by dancing and drumming that had an inborn culture handed from generation to generation. They reflected, reaffirmed and strengthened the customs and traditions of the society. In consequence, some dances were preserved for special occasions and times of the year. They portrayed the beliefs, attitudes and values of the community which could only be gauged by the frequency of their occurrences and the popularity given to them, as well as the general enthusiasm that manifested itself during their performances. Unlike the British system where participation in some forms of dance were identified with class i.e. high class, in the traditional society participation was not limited to any class of the society, and age was no barrier either.

In a more sophisticated environment among the older folk, tribal drumming and dancing were times for gestures and actions which portrayed the hidden secrets of the indigenous tribes. In some respects, therefore, tribal dances served also as a means whereby a tribe could keep some of their secrets through related, relevant and significant movements. Chiefs and kings were reputed in this art of dancing since custom did not permit them to speak directly to the people, much of his messages were shrouded in gestures and actions in the act of dancing. Every arm action,

movements of any part of the body to the sounds of the talking drums could be interpreted. Tribal dancing was not self expression exhibited without reading meaning into the music or the sound of the drums; they were meant to express feelings and stimulate actions that were interpretable to only those who were acquainted with their culturally defined meanings.

Interpretation of dances and the gestures of the performer was as important as the act of taking part. For this reason, those who watched the dancers were expected to judge them not only from the light display of co-ordinated movements and high skill of agility or stamina involved, but also the ability to portray concepts in gestures and specific allusions that could be made from them. Since gestures could be used to pay homage to chiefs or benefactors, to tease, warn or even propose to someone, their usages were part and parcel of the dance. Like facial expression which spells sorrow, joy, depression, anxiety, anger, frustration and so on, dance gestures in the traditional society had many connotations. A dance without appropriate gestures to signify the occasion was regarded as a sea without fish. It was in appreciation of the inherent qualities of these dances that encouraged Primus<sup>(35)</sup> to make the following observation about the traditional dance:

... dance was and still is of critical importance. Every phase of life is accompanied by dance. Here people use their bodies as instruments through which every conceivable emotion or event is projected. The result is a strange hypnotic marriage between life and dance. The two are inseparable. Love, hatred, fear, joy, sorrows, disgust, amazement, all these and other emotions are expressed through rhythmic movement.

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(35) Primus, P., Out of Africa, in Sorell, W., The Dance has Many Faces, The World Publishing Co., New York, 1951, p.260.

Since traditional dances were not stereotyped in their expressions, movements were unrestricted like the waltz and quick-step. The scope for creativity was unlimited and formations were mostly free. Mass dancing was a common phenomena, and the nature was such that no one could predict the kind of movement a performer was going to do at any phase of the dance. The rhythm of the music and the interpretation of it by the performer, coupled with the atmosphere of the dance - merry making or death, ultimately decided body movements and facial expressions that were to accompany the dance.

The distinguishing features of tribal dancing as opposed to present day forms of dance are that those dances were more creative, unrestricted and expressive of emotions of all kinds, conveyed through a host of body movements, gestures and facial expressions which reflected the nature of the ceremony involved.

The social values derived from tribal drumming and dances were incalculable and comparable to those generated by present day sports and Physical Education activities. Apart from the recreational benefits which are doubtlessly important, the socialising elements encouraged cohesion and cultural identity in a country worn out by inter-tribal wars. The fact that the lame, the young, old and feeble were unlimited and unhampered from participation, served as a safety valve for cultural unity and patriotism to one's motherland. It offered a period of relaxation from daily work and rekindled the emotional fulfilment of their bonds with their ancestors. Serving as a period of self-expression and union with nature and the elements as well as a period of union with friends and neighbours in which any feelings of depression or antipathy were relegated to oblivion, tribal drumming and dancing played a distinguished role in the lives of our ancestors.

Unfortunately, some of the early explorers and traders as well as

missionaries did not seem to understand the cultural context of traditional drumming and dances. Some saw them as curious and others pronounced them as pagan and uncultured. Captain Thomas Philips<sup>(36)</sup> an explorer, described some Gold Coast dance performed in 1964 in this passage:

... they went to dance by turns, in a ridiculous manner, making antic gestures with their arms, shoulders, head, their feet having the best least share in the action.

The writer describes the actions very well but appears incapable of reading meaning into the dance because he lacked insight into the culture of the people. Cruickshank<sup>(37)</sup> also wrote about the fetish dance in Ghana and noted that the novice fetishman possessed 'great endurance in dancing, which formed a prominent part of the service' because it was from violent dancing to the sound of drums that he looked for inspiration. Even though cultural drumming and dances had their spiritual as well as physical rewards, it was not so much the violent nature of the dances that instilled the required spiritual attribute rather than the personal involvement signified by interpretation of the music supported by one's innermost feelings in relation to the task being performed; all these aspects together dictated the height of one's spiritual upliftment.

Fraser<sup>(38)</sup> seems to have gained greater insight into the role of traditional dances in Africa. His passage below aptly describes the Ghanaian traditional society:

(36) Thompson, R.F., 'African Art in Motion'. Icon and Act, in The Katherine White Collection. Los Angeles, U.C.L.A., Art Galleries, 1974, p.34 (quoted by Thompson).

(37) Cruickshank, Op.cit., Vol.II, p.142.

(38) Fraser, Dr. D., Dances in Nyasaland, in International Review of Missions, January 1921, pp.110-117.

... Dancing is inbred in African nature. They dance when they are merry and they dance when they are sad. Dances express their anger and their passion, their joy and contentment ... After a fight with a wild beast, he will dance in graceful pantomime the whole action of the struggle. When the sun goes down and the earth cools, all the children of the village frisk and dance in the energy that has come to them.

The above passage confirms the belief that tribal dancing and drumming enhanced the cultivation of morale; a situation that usually occurred in times of stress and excitement, in a period when community life needed to be lifted to high levels of thought and action. Unlimited numbers of performers and participants coupled with free personal expression to the drums and music, encouraged people of any life situation to participate, unhampered, to the tunes of the drums and other musical instruments.

On the whole, traditional drumming and dancing helped people to forget about their fatigue after a hard day's work and offered opportunity to enjoy fun and recreation in order to rekindle the emotional fulfilment of their bonds with their ancestors. Participation was regarded as a period intended for self-expression and union with nature and the elements; as well as a time for meeting friends and neighbours to share in a common traditional and cultural heritage in which any feelings of depression or antipathy were relegated to oblivion. In order to understand how the traditional society protected themselves against the invasion by hostile states or tribes a brief description of the political set up of the people is essential. This is partly because many of the festivals and ceremonies for which physical culture played a significant role came under traditional political organisations and partly because their state institutions were military in origin.

The native state in the traditional society was comprised of a number of communities which had combined and expressed allegiance to a

central authority called the 'Omanhene' or King. In the Akim Abuakwa traditional area of Ghana, the Omanhene, usually called the paramount chief, was the supreme commander of the state. Next in importance to the King were the Chiefs called 'Ahene' who ruled the provinces or districts in the state. In smaller villages, 'Odikuro' or head-chief ruled and owed allegiance to the chief, who in turn owed allegiance to the Omanhene.

Chieftaincy was therefore a very popular and powerful institution. In order for any state to have effective internal security, portfolios were allocated to some sections called the divisional chiefs who comprised the 'Adontenhene' (leader of the main body of the army), the 'Nifahene' (leader of the right wing), 'Benkumhene' (leader of the left wing) and the 'Oseawuhene' (captain of the stool guard). These principal bodies defended the state from all sides - north, east, west and south, with the paramount chief usually in the middle. Another portfolio was the 'Gyasehene', captain of the Omanhene's main body guard who also was the controller of the King's household.

From the above description, it is obvious that traditional political organisations were military in origin, with each of the major or divisional chiefs responsible for producing and leading a portion of the tribal army in time of war. This type of organisation was common among the tribes in Ghana with few variations.

The chiefs occupied stools called 'Black Stools' which were believed to contain the spirits of the departed ancestors and at the death of each chief, the stool he occupied was made sacred and named after him. It was then kept at 'Nkonguafieso' (stool-room) where at specific periods, the king sacrificed and performed ceremonies to sanctify the stool and the state.

During the olden days of tribal wars, the Black Stool of a warring

king was carried to the war front to give the warriors the incentive to fight to win. In addition to the black stools, there were others which were created for the occupants of the state, either in appreciation of their prowess in wars or in recognition of the statuses which they were given to hold. Nearly all the Black Stools had been handed down from the forefathers who lived centuries before European contact. They were therefore considered as symbols of authority and the very existence of the occupants. Every stool had some interesting history behind it, and very good reasons for its creation.

Traditionally, there were many festivals in Ghana. The people in the North celebrated the 'Damba', 'Golgo' and the 'Kobine' festivals; the Ashantis observed 'Adaekese', the Akims had the 'Odwira' and 'Ohum', the Effutus had 'Aboakyere', the Gas had 'Homowo', the Krobos had 'Mmayem', the Fantis had 'Fetu', 'Ahoboa', 'Akwanbo' and 'Bakatue', and so on and so forth. These festivals commonly involved countless artistic forms and actions, songs, dances, ritual cultures. They could be seen as distinct, but their separate natures were subsumed in such festivals by the impact of the whole as a continuous and unified event. They often possessed surpassing beauty and their richness was of great cultural significance.

One such festival of the Akims was the 'Odwira' which translated literally means 'purification'. It embraced such related purposes as thanksgiving, eating of the new yam, sacrificing to ancestors and other deities, remembering and mourning of the dead, and, above all, the re-affirming of political loyalty and traditional allegiances to the stool. In addition to these the Odwira celebrations marked the period for re-establishing the people's military order which then served only political, social and economic purposes.

On the whole, celebrations of most of the festivals in the traditional

society ranged from three days to one week even though some of them could be compressed to a couple of days or less. During the period of festivities, each day that passed brought in its trail many events of great significance and enjoyment such as public displays. In some cases a kind of mock battle was arranged among the young men. A general characteristic of almost all these festivals was that the performance of sacrifices to the deities were followed by times or days of feasting and merry making, amidst drumming and dancing.

Grand durbars were usually held to crown the activities of the festival. It was during this period that the king and his elders paraded through the principal routes of the locality in their traditional costumes. The king and the elders were usually clad in rich and colourful regalia with the king carried in palanquin or hammock, while the lower chiefs followed with their entourage. In all the celebrations, drumming and dancing played significant roles. Bowdich<sup>(39)</sup> describes how the chiefs were accorded protection by their body guards during some of their celebrations:

... behind (the chief) are soldiers and drummers, who throw their white-washed drums in the air and catch them again with much agility and grimace, as they walk along.

It is pertinent to mention here that different drums had varying purposes in the traditional society. In the same way, certain types of drums were preserved for specific duties. Drums in this sense served as the main medium for transmitting information to the people. Different drum-beats dictated not only the message of the occasion but also commanded the type of response to be accorded to it. Thus, one could

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(39) Bowdich, T.E., Op.cit. p.276.

interpret whether a type of drumming was for merry-making or vice-versa. Furthermore, every chief had his set of drums which marked his rank in the hierarchy of the state. Children were taught from an early age to interpret the messages that the various 'message drums' or 'talking-drums' transmitted. Apart from these special drums, there were ordinary drums used by groups, for entertainment or providing traditional music.

One group which also had its own drums and performed important political, social and cultural functions was the Asafo Companies. In the absence of regular soldiers and police forces during the period, the stability and defence of the state remained the responsibility of the Asafo Companies. They were fighting men grouped together in every town or village and trained in various tactics of warfare. Membership of every child to any particular company was drawn from the ward in which his father lived, and there could be two or more such wards in any community. Companies of this nature existed at local levels as well as community and state levels.

Training of the Asafo Companies was intensive; it took many forms, and had many phases. Batels<sup>(40)</sup> explains that if a child's father was one of the body guards or a captain to any Asafo group, then the child learnt at close quarters the discipline of the office of captaincy which might one day devolve upon him. He was given every encouragement to follow his father's footsteps in sharing the responsibility of citizenship in an educational process which was summed up in the proverb: 'no-one teaches the Smith's son the father's crafts.' The office of his father opened to him and his brothers alike and the best qualified

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(40) Batels, Op.cit.

emerged and assumed it when it became vacant.

The nature of training that the youths were given in the Asafo Company was similar to the training that was given in the Bush schools. During these training sessions, contests were usually arranged among the group for practising mock-wars of attack and counter-attack and also to test strength endurance and various skills. In addition, organised hunting expeditions were held to help the youth to master the art and strategy of invasion. To achieve military efficiency, all types of physical activities involving jumping, leaping, running over obstacles, striking and many other gymnastic activities were included in the training. The child's physical and mental developments became immense and incalculable as a result of his training.

The nature of training and the prestige that was attached to statuses in the community, enhanced the unquenchable desire to excel in any activity that the youth engaged in. This competitive spirit which was always encouraged at the time, produced hardy and sturdy personalities whose common aim was always to serve the state with all the resources he could command. It was uncommon therefore to find a youth who could not manipulate all types of war implements with ease or who could not defend himself with reasonable strength and skills in a sudden attack.

By the time the youth had completed participation in various Asafo Company activities his repertoire of war experience would include the art of throwing spears and arrows, horsemanship in some areas in the north of Ghana, development of muscular strength, agility and co-ordination, endurance, courage and, above all, a strong spirit of patriotism and the willingness to sacrifice his life for the traditional, cultural and political development of the company, tribe and state. It was the effectiveness of the Asafo Companies and their unflinching loyalty to

the state which made the Ashanti nation such remarkable warriors in the early colonial periods in their struggle against the British.

In addition to training for war, these companies performed different ceremonies at traditional gatherings and festivals where drums and music played leading roles. Furthermore, the associations or clubs that the Asafo Companies formed in their respective areas provided social activities which offered opportunities to share the cultural heritage of their ancestors. Some of these Companies were so powerful that they took prominent part in political matters like disputes relating to the management of the stool revenues or conflicts between rival candidates for the chieftdom. Since they participated either directly or indirectly in all aspects of life that affected their community, their power was recognised and accepted as dynamic in settling issues that related to the safety and security of the community. These Asafo companies also discharged numerous other social duties, and held annual customs for the purposes of ceremonial road clearing and a grand parade.

Before the introduction of guns and gunpowder by the Europeans, it was customary to rely on the brute force and physique of the Asafo Company in tribal wars. Victory in war during that period was associated more with physical strength and tactics rather than anything else. It was the burning desire at that period of every youth to develop his physical capabilities to the optimum. This he acquired as a member of the Asafo Company. With European contact reliance upon human strength was replaced by guns.

In contrast to what prevailed in Ghana in the period under discussion the English child was exposed to conditions far less severe and arduous than his Ghanaian counterpart. The pressures created by the presence of equatorial climate were eased by the calm and severe of the temperate climate. Instead of hot tropical sun and dense forest swarming with

dangerous beasts and insects, the British population lived in an environment where practically all animals and insects were not only friendly but mostly pets. The effects of climate on the growth of vegetation was such that one could stay for years without weeding around his surroundings because the winter months, even though severely cold for human comfort, offered the natural method of getting rid of uncleared weeds and bushes.

The insulated position of Britain removed the constant danger of foreign attack which proved to be a perpetual thorn on the flesh of Ghanaians. Furthermore, the apparent lack of diversity of tribal and ethnic groupings in Britain meant that internal strife and antipathy to arouse tribal wars were virtually non-existent in the country. In the absence of these potential dangers, the average Briton was compelled to focus his attention on other demands and pleasures that his apparent security had brought.

Added to these benefits was the fact that the average British family acquired the necessities of life such as food, clothing and shelter almost already made. They were blessed with possessing tools and materials available for the development of the faculties supplied abundantly from shops and other places. Even in the absence of wholesale schooling for all the population during the period, the average child had the opportunity of receiving home training and formal education if the parents were rich enough. The school child could often acquire much knowledge ready-made and sometimes far remote from the real life of effort and action.

Transportation which proved tedious and dangerous in Ghana was comparatively easy in Britain. People were not obliged to travel long distances carrying heavy loads on their head nor did they have to struggle hard to get their basic food items. Even though life was by

no means easy for the British, in relation to the condition in Ghana, their situation could be described as living in paradise.

Summarising, one can conclude that even though schooling did not exist in the traditional Ghanaian society as it prevailed in Britain, yet the traditional methods of bringing up children was systematic and appeared not only pedagogically effective according to modern trends, but also proved to be psychologically sound. It was pragmatic in line with the philosophical conception and theory propounded by Dewey. While Ghana carried on most of the education of the child through traditional initiation rites and ceremonies, the British employed formal education which added to home education.

The British philosophy advocated for the imagination of situations whereby the boundaries of knowledge became enlarged to an infinite extent. Good as this method was, it encouraged rote learning as opposed to learning from experience which was the main philosophy behind the Ghanaian traditional approach.

The learning situations of the two parties had marked influences on their culture. The Ghanaian child was limited in his learning habits and therefore seemed to have learnt whatever was taught him through experience and from the parents more perfectly and permanently

Apart from aspects of learning, the games and recreational activities that the British child participated in were of a different nature for a variety of reasons. While it was uncommon for Ghanaian youth to engage in games of adventure - related to war attack and counter attack, the British youth participated in games that were almost purely for recreational purposes. Competitiveness was not a mark that characterized British games as it did for Ghanaians. While friendly rivalry was the glorious philosophy that crowned English games and sports, strong

desire to excel and win was the only note that was worthy of acceptance in the Ghanaian context. This, however, does not mean to say that Ghanaians did not relax and enjoy non-competitive games; far from that. The truth is that behind the mind of the average Ghanaian, playing to win was a common desire as opposed to the average Briton.

Furthermore, during this period, Britain was in the process of rapid industrialisation. The progress and advancement in scientific and technological development had no parallel in the rest of the world. Not only was Britain's economy growing rapidly as a result of the industrial revolution but also industry started to crop up with amazing rapidity. Industries being established in many areas, especially textiles, started to make the society more urbanised. In consequence, cities were being created with a corresponding destruction of traditional rural lifestyle.

Urbanisation in England at a time when scientific machinery was unknown in Ghana, meant that the British were faced with some problems that were reflective of its advancement. For instance, in the mines and some of these industries, it was becoming increasingly necessary for a higher degree of literacy in order to allow industry to expand and provide support services. Thus education became more popular in Britain in the 19th century; a situation which did not exist in Ghana during this period.

Furthermore, in England at this time, people could survive without knowing how to catch animals or how to grow food. The geographic situation did not provide as hostile a challenge to the inhabitants as prevailed in Ghana. Money from the mines and industries was used to purchase food and clothes; and money could purchase many other things in a system that was different from Ghana. This was the situation in both countries.

In summary, it has been seen that before the institutionalisation of formal education, the traditional society of Ghana possessed effective ways of moulding their offspring to assume responsibility in the general life of the community. Traditional education as has been described, appeared quite effective and proved both psychologically and pedagogically sound in comparison to other existing forms of transmission of knowledge. The main value of traditional education was that it provided special kinds of association through which the young obtained training for the future from the old and mature members of the society. Furthermore, it aimed at inculcating in the children proper behaviour towards both older people and their equals.

Perhaps its greatest disadvantage in relation to modern demands was largely due to its deeper concentration and almost total reliance on the group training as opposed to a more balanced approach to both. Even though its adherence to tradition would appear to be an obvious hindrance to development in our present times, yet it was capable of producing men and women who had great ability in remembering things and recalling things and events in the absence of written history. The other disadvantage is its tendency to develop passive attitudes towards life and the lack of incentive to change one's environment. These apart, there can be little doubt that it had great potential for the development of moral, practical and vocational approach to life.

Ghanaian educational systems before European contact were doubtlessly far from perfect in comparison to what prevailed in the Western world; nevertheless, the bush schools helped the youth to contribute to the social heritage of the community. It was a period when the people were under native rule and a time when social and political relations were customary, not legal. Authority at the time was personal, based on the will and not law; and also, custom and authority were closely bound.

Furthermore, social order was based on personal authority and customary obligations and authority instead of impersonal law and individual rights which existed in Western countries. This was the phase of history when customs derived their sanctions from religion rather than reason. It was between these two systems based on the European and Native beliefs, reacting against each other in the course of history that the present educational and system of physical culture of Ghanaians has evolved.

This review has also shown that participation in indigenous physical activities was a common phenomenon among the different ethnic groups. Most of these activities were determined, like many other parts of the world, by geographical, cultural and socio-economic factors. It has been established that in Ghana in particular, the environment - ecology, relief and climate played a very dominant role in the activities of the traditional society. The various surroundings ranging from mangrove forests to the Sudan, Savannah, emerging into the Sahara Desert, strictly limited the activities of people in various belts. Nevertheless, according to Rodney<sup>(41)</sup> by the 15th century, Africans everywhere had arrived at a considerable understanding of the ecology - of the soils, climate, animals, plants and their multiple interrelationships. The practical application of this lay in the need to trap animals, to build houses, to make utensils, to find medicines and, above all, to devise systems of agriculture.

In so far as the physical culture that existed at this period was meant to help the natives to resolve problems related to everyday needs and healthy living, it would appear that the methods employed were not only desirable, but also adequate at that time. However, since the world

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(41) Rodney, W., Op.cit., p.48.

is in a state of flux and conditions do not remain static, one would anticipate that any future changes would take into consideration the existing factors that had nurtured the prevailing practices. Without doubt, the study of traditional ways of life and education has shown how inherited social textures were perpetuated in the historical setting of the early natives of Ghana. Sports and physical culture may aptly be described as the institutional vehicles that were capable of preserving particular aspects of tradition and transmitting them to the present, perhaps in somewhat altered forms. There has been ample evidence to support that the culture element, which has been identified as sports, games and recreational activities, also played vital and indispensable roles in maintaining equilibrium in pre-European Ghanaian society.

Such activities were integrated with the social, economic and religious life of the people, and their discouragement and suppression by the early missionaries appear to have created problems, some of which still linger on. The installation of a colonial administration with its accompanying trends towards urbanisation, seem to have had a significant impact on the mode of life of an average Ghanaian. Perhaps this account seems to support McPhee's view that before European contact for the purpose of trade in Africa 'the natives lived a self-sufficing life with few needs that the European traders could supply. It is with the knowledge acquired from this discussion that one considers the validity of the statement made by Creighton<sup>(42)</sup> that 'traditions are very good things, but when you are without them, they are not worth importing artificially.'

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(42) Creighton, M., 'A Plan for Knowledge' in Thoughts on Education Speeches and Sermons. Creighton, L. (ed.), Longmans, London, 1902, p.204.

## CHAPTER II

### THE EVOLUTION OF EDUCATION AND P.E. IN GHANA

#### FROM THE PERIOD OF EUROPEAN CONTACT TO THE

#### END OF THE 19TH CENTURY

This phase of the study seeks to examine the evolution of formal education in Ghana from the period of European contact to the end of the 19th century. The chapter is divided into two main sections: the period before 1800 and the period from 1800 to 1900. The former covers early European contact and British relations with Ghana, and discusses the establishment of formal education in the country.

The second phase deals with the period of British stronghold and formal administration of Ghana as a colonial territory. British influence on the development of education and P.E. in Ghana is discussed in the light of prevailing trends in both Britain and Ghana. The examination of how and why British educational policies and concepts were transferred to Ghana is undertaken in order to determine the extent to which British administration coped with the needs of the country, particularly in the domain of physical culture of the natives. Furthermore, it is hoped to find out how far foreign concepts and practices, introduced into Ghana, reacted with established traditional methods.

Briefly then, this phase of the study is undertaken in recognition of the wisdom inherent in Foshay's statement that:

... In many disciplines, the history of the discipline itself is of importance ... the more deeply one understands the history of one's own field, the more nearly one can be in control of the effectiveness of one's

own efforts. (1)

Furthermore, Smithells has aptly reiterated that:

... there is no way of getting totally rid of the past personally or professionally, nor the attitudes which we inherit from it.... Old attitudes even if fallacious, die hard. (2)

From these two writers, it is inevitable that this chapter fulfils a valuable part in our understanding of the various forces that shaped the course of P.E. in Ghana, and gives greater insight into why P.E. evolved in the school curriculum.

#### Early British Contact with Ghana

Opinions about when the first British contact with Ghana was made differ. One source states that the first recorded English expedition to Ghana was made in 1553, in the reign of Queen Mary, by Thomas Windham.<sup>(3)</sup> Another authority argues that, as far back as 1482, when Edward IV was King of England, some enterprising Englishmen did a very profitable trade to their entire satisfaction at Cape Three Points on the Gold Coast.<sup>(4)</sup> What is certain, however, about Ghana's early European contact is that the Portuguese were the first nation to land in the country in about 1470. They traded with the natives in gold, ivory and spices and built their first fort at Elmina in 1480.

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- (1) Foshay, A.W., 'Knowledge and the Structure of Disciplines'. The Nature of Knowledge. Implications for the Education of Teachers. Jenkins, W. et al (ed.) Uhrig Foundations, 1961, p. 22, 30
  - (2) Smithells, P., 'The Choices Before Us'. Report of Proceedings: British Commonwealth & International Conference on Health, P.E. and Recreation. New Zealand Association of Health, P.E. and Recreation, 1974, p.139.
  - (3) Colonial Reports: 'Gold Coast', H.M.S.O., London, 1949, p.63.
  - (4) Sarbah, J.M., 'The Gold Coast When Edward IV was King. Journal of African Society, No.X, January 1904, p.194.

Abundant evidence exists to confirm that the enterprising merchants of Europe were attracted by the wealth of Ghana more than they were to any other part of the Western Coast of Africa bordering on the Gulf of Guinea. For instance, Ghana was described as a region:

... where a man could gain an estate by a handful of beads and a pocket full of gold for an old hat; where a cat is a tenet, and a few fox-tails a manor, where gold is sold for iron and silver given for a brass and pewter. (5)

These accounts of the early commercial potentials of Ghana stimulated many Europeans to come and trade in the country.

As trade between Ghana and Portugal grew in importance, other European nations also attempted to obtain a share in it. The Danes, Dutch, French and the Prussians were among the European sea-going nations which participated in West African trade. The British turned their attention to the advantage of a trade with Ghana, because she was 'impelled by similar spirit of self-interest as the Dutch contemporaries.'<sup>(6)</sup>

Increased commercial rivalry between foreign traders in Ghana made it desirable for these nations to build forts and castles along the coast as centres for conducting their trade with the natives. Apart from providing protection for European traders, these forts also served as storing places for the commodities that were being traded in. Special companies were set up by these nations for the purpose of conducting trade in Ghana.

The Dutch arrived in Ghana in 1580 and established the Dutch West Indian Company in 1629 to trade in West African goods. The Swedes came in 1640, and possessed the Osu Lodge at Christianborg in 1645; the Brandenberges came in 1682, built three forts and left in 1708. After settling in Ghana by 1618, the British built their first fort at Cormantine in 1631. Under the patronage of the Duke of York, the

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(5) Sarbah, Ibid., p.194.

(6) Cruickshank, B., Op.cit., VolI, p.19.

British formed a chartered company in 1662 to conduct the African trade in a systematic manner.<sup>(7)</sup>

By the middle of the 18th century, West Africa had developed into a very prosperous and highly profitable commercial arena for European merchants and traders. As Earle<sup>(8)</sup> aptly remarks, the four detached British West African countries - Gambia, Sierra Leone, Ghana and Nigeria were valued for their production and export of agricultural and forest products as well as their ability to consume increasing quantities of British manufactured goods. In consequence, British interest in trade with West Africa forced her to take a keener interest in establishing conditions that would encourage successful trade and understanding with the natives. This desire seems to partly account for the widely held view that the British Empire is 'the offspring of trade.'<sup>(9)</sup>

In line with this belief, Knorr<sup>(10)</sup> argues that the expectation of finding new sources of supply in the colonies must be regarded as the most potent of all arguments offered in favour of English colonization. While this explanation favours the early British motives for colonization, it is also acknowledged that in the course of history, this fundamental objectives underwent modifications in response to changing trends. In the case of Ghana, British colonization was prompted by additional complex reasons.

(7) Cruickshank, B., Ibid., p.20.

(8) Earle, F.M., Geographic Influences upon British Economic Policy in West Africa. Ph.D. dissertation, George Washington University, April 6, 1929

(9) See: Lucas, Sir C., 'The Partition of Africa', Oxford 1922, pp.98-99; Tilby, A.W., 'Britain in the Tropics', 1527-1910, London 1912, p.83.

(10) Knorr, K., British Colonial Theories - 1570-1850, London 1920, pp.24-25.

During the 17th century, slave trade in Ghana became the predominant commercial activity of European traders. The rivalry that characterized this trade was not among the European nations in the country alone; it was also extended to the native population. Wars and hostilities dominated the country's political history. While the causes of the inter-tribal wars that plagued Ghana were widely local, Wright<sup>(11)</sup> has disclosed that in the old days of the slave trade, 'it was the custom of the traders to foster rivalries and wars among the native tribes by which they profited.'

However, before the end of the 18th century, vigorous attempts were made to abolish the Slave Trade. In the pursuit of this objective, the British, who had earlier taken a very active role in the trade, also became one of the prominent architects for its abolition. They became involved as allies of the coastal tribes against the powerful Ashanti Kingdom in the interior, who took a lion's share in the Slave Trade. Struggle between the Coastal tribes and the Ashantis continued to the 19th century, even after the passing of the Act of 1807 to abolish the Slave Trade. By this period, all the European countries in Ghana had departed leaving only the Danes, the Dutch and the British.

The British Government assumed more practical responsibility of Ghana in 1821, exactly fourteen years after the abolition of slavery, and a period when the *raison d'etre* of the trading stations in the country had gone under fundamental change.<sup>(12)</sup>

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(11) Wright, F., 'The System of Education in the Gold Coast Colony'. Board of Education Special Report on Educational Subjects. Vol.13, Part II, H.M.S.O., London, 1905, p.4.

(12) Board of Education - Special Reports on Educational Subjects. 'The System of Education in the Gold Coast Colony'. Vol.13, 1905, p.3.

The government took over the forts from the African Company in 1821 and used them as centres from which the campaign against the slave trade could be conducted.<sup>(13)</sup>

Actual official British relations with Ghana began in 1843 when the Colonial Office decided to take over the administration of the forts on the seaboard from the Committee of Merchants.<sup>(14)</sup> By 1844, a bond signed between the local chiefs and the British acknowledged the authority of the British Queen and bound the natives to abolish some of the tribal practices considered repugnant by the British. In some part of the 1844 Bond, apart from the signatories agreeing and acknowledging the jurisdiction of the British Government, it was further agreed that serious crimes and offences should be brought before the government's judicial officers, in order that the customs of the country might be moulded to conform with the principles of British law.<sup>(15)</sup>

It must be remembered, however, that it was in 1874 that the whole of the Gold Coast area was declared to be a British Colony as a result of the issue of the letters Patent and the Order in Council which created the Gold Coast Colony.<sup>(16)</sup> The Colonial Office, according to Wolfson, 'accepted its mission on the Gold Coast as commercial, and

(13) Ghana - A Survey of the Gold Coast on the eve of Independence. Royal Institute of International Affairs, London, Jan. 1957, p.8.

(14) Wolfson, F., 'British Relations with the Gold Coast, 1843-1880', Bulletin of the Institute of Historical Research, Vol.24, 1951, pp.205-207.

(15) Wolfson, F., 'British Relations with the Gold Coast 1843-1880', Ph.D. thesis, University of London, 1951, p.3.

(16) Letters Patent, 24th July 1874, and Order in Council of 6th August 1874.

its primary function as the maintenance of order.'<sup>(17)</sup> British colonization of the Gold Coast therefore opened a new chapter in the country's history. From early association until the period of independence, Ghana has been greatly influenced by British ideology and practices. Through systematic efforts, Ghana has been helped to climb higher up the ladder of Western civilization. One of the agents for the propagation of Western thoughts and civilization was formal education. British colonization heralded formal schooling organised under central government control, and the introduction of new currencies and items of trade in the country.

Inheriting institutions through which the state administrations function were nearly all foreign importations ideologically, Ghana witnessed changes that eventually transformed the country in many ways. Since the British possessed executive, legislative and judicial powers, the country was subjected to laws enacted, decisions taken and prerogatives exercised by the British Government. Criticisms have been made against aspects of British Colonial administration and organisation but there is no doubt that symbiotic benefits resulted from this contact.

Lugard<sup>(18)</sup> aptly presents the two-sided benefits in the following passage:

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(17) Wolfson, F., Ibid., 1951, p.355.

(18) Lugard, Sir, F.D., The Dual Mandate in British Tropical Africa, London 1923, p.617.

... let it be admitted at the outset that European brains, capital, and energy have not been, and never would be, expanded in developing the resources of Africa from motives of pure philanthropy; that Europe is in Africa for the mutual benefit of her own industrial classes and of the native races in the progress to a higher plane; that the benefit can be made reciprocal, and that it is the aim and desire of civilized administration to fulfil this dual mandate.

One cannot speculate, even to a limited degree, as to what the nature of development in Ghana would have been, had there been no British colonization.

So far, the patterns of colonial penetration, the process of the natives moving from independent tribal status into colonial status, the extent to which Britain was involved in Ghana until it became a Crown Colony, have been outlined. Attention will now be focused on the development of education, particularly physical education from the early times until the end of the 19th century.

#### The Period Before 1800

Reliable records concerning the evolution of formal education in Ghana at the early periods of European contact are scarce. Nevertheless, historians of education generally agree that the genesis of western education in the country is credited to the Portuguese.

Evidence cited by Graham<sup>(19)</sup> indicates that King John III of Portugal instructed his governor at Elmina in 1529 'to provide reading, writing and religious teaching for African children.' It is also known that soon after the capture of Elmina Castle from the Portuguese by the Dutch, the Castle school was restarted in response to instructions

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(19) Graham, C.K., The History of Education in Ghana, Frank Cass, London 1971, P.I. quoted from Antonio Brasio, Monumento Missionaria Africana, Vol.I, Lisbon 1952, p.502.

contained in the Dutch Charter of 1621 (renewed in 1640), which requested them to set up Christian schools wherever they traded, in accordance with the teaching of the Dutch Reformed Church.<sup>(20)</sup>

Further sources quoted by Foster<sup>(21)</sup> confirms that King Joao III of Portugal, in a series of instructions to the captain of Elmina, advised his representatives to 'take special care to command that the sons of the Negroes living in the village learn how to read and write, how to sing and pray while ministering in church.' Foster concludes that the school the Portuguese established was in existence in 1572 even though their general educational efforts were unknown up to the period of the abandonment of the coastal possessions in 1764.

The early explorers and missionaries recognised the need for educating the natives from different motives. Graham attributes the urgent need for literate interpreters as the main motive that induced the Royal African Company to set up a school at Cape Coast Castle in 1694.<sup>(22)</sup> Martin<sup>(23)</sup> records that the first recorded effort by the officers in the African Service to introduce education in Ghana was made in 1787 to provide for their half-caste (Mullato population) the benefit of education.

(20) Graham, C.K., Ibid., P.I. quoted from Burr, N.R., Education in New Jersey, (1630-1871), Princeton, 1942, p.6.

(21) Foster, J., Education and Social Change in Ghana. R.K.P., London 1965, 3rd Imp. 1971, p.43, quoted from Wiltgren, R.M. Gold Coast Mission History, 1471-1880, Divine Word Pub., Techny, III, 1956, p.21.

(22) Graham, C.K., Ibid, p.2.

(23) Martin, C.E., Early Educational Experiments in the Gold Coast, Journal of West African Society, Vol. XXII, No.XCII, July 1924, p.295.

Even though Wise<sup>(24)</sup> is convinced that the missionaries used schools among other purposes 'as a field of selection for likely African assistants', McWilliam<sup>(25)</sup> has argued that the establishment of 'Christian communities isolated from pagan influences' was the main motive of missionary education in Ghana. He also contends that the missionaries realized that they could not replace the existing beliefs by the Christian faith unless they banished some traditional and cultural activities they regarded as 'bulwarks of satan'. Carnoy<sup>(26)</sup> on the other hand, suggests that schools in Africa were intended to convert Africans from barbarians to civilized humans to prepare them to fill the role of agricultural producers instead of slaves in the European-run world economic system. Much of the early colonial education, both missions and officials, according to Embree<sup>(27)</sup> aimed at making the native people follow European patterns; and that the combined efforts of administrators, missionaries and businessmen were directed to making 'little Europeans of all native pupils.'

From the views expressed both for the religious and non-religious organisations, it is obvious that the introduction of formal education was primarily a practical and indispensable necessity. This view is shared by Fafunwa<sup>(28)</sup> who has argued that even though the primary motive

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(24) Wise, C.G., A History of Education in British West Africa, Longmans, London 1956, p.31.

(25) McWilliam, H.O.A., Swamena-Poh, The Development of Education in Ghana, Longmans, London 1959, New ed., 1975, p.34.

(26) Carnoy, M., Education as Cultural Imperialism, David McKay Co., New York, 1974, pp.81, 82.

(27) Embree, R., 'Objectives of Colonial Education', Political Quarterly, Vol.4, Nos.1-4, 1934, p.222.

(28) Fafunwa, B., History of Education in Nigeria, George Allen & Unwin, London 1974, p.81.

of the early missionaries was to convert the heathen to Christianity, yet there was no way of achieving this objective without the aid of formal education. A similar motive was harboured by the private organisations. The difference between the motives of these two main organisations that championed the course of formal education was that, whereas the interest of the trading companies was focused on educating clerks first and foremost, the missionaries were rather concerned with training teachers, artisans and preachers.<sup>(29)</sup>

The curriculum of the schools reflected the traditions that existed in Western education. Wise<sup>(30)</sup> confirms that the first schools in West Africa were 'modelled with as little modification as possible on European schools.' He also admits that the curriculum was the same as in England except the one important difference - a foreign language, and concludes that it was the English Charity schools that supplied the model for the Castle schools and the mission schools in West Africa.<sup>(31)</sup> In support of this view, Fafunwa<sup>(32)</sup> acknowledges that the earliest Christian missionary school in Nigeria was without doubt 'a replica of similar development in Britain during the Dark Ages.'

Referring to Ghana during the same period, Graham<sup>(33)</sup> points out that in the colony generally, and in the Castle schools in particular, the curriculum corresponded to the instructions in contemporary English schools for the poor, and that emphasis was placed on religious

(29) Graham, C.K., Op.cit., p.56.

(30) Wise, C.G., Op.cit., pp.11-13.

(31) Wise, C.G., Ibid., p.13.

(32) Fafunwa, B., Op.cit., p.81.

(33) Graham, C.K., Ibid., p.33.

instruction. The core of the work in the schools was concentrated on the 3Rs generally, but in the Mission schools, Religious Instruction occupied an additional prominent position.

In general, rudimentary practical education was provided, but as Scanlon<sup>(34)</sup> aptly points out, it soon became apparent that the production of indigenous leaders required the importation of the sort of academic education provided in the metropolitan countries. Hence the system of British education was introduced. Formal education on the lines of European concepts served as a means of helping the merchants and the missionaries to establish a common means of communication with the natives, and a means of bringing up pupils to acquire the skill of gathering information from written print.

From the review of literature on the subjects that were taught in schools before the 19th century, there is no evidence that P.E. was recognised as a subject in the curriculum. After an exhaustive review of the subjects that were taught in Ghanaian schools up to 1850, Graham<sup>(35)</sup> admits that 'available records do not indicate how far English games were played.' The only evidence about how far P.E. was recognised during this period is supplied by Scanlon<sup>(36)</sup> who reports that the early missionaries were aware of the fact that 'field games and social recreations and intercourse were influences at least as important as classroom instructions.' This information, admittedly, does not go far enough and does not indicate what types of field games were engaged in.

(34) Scanlon, D.G., Traditions of African Education. Bureau of Publications, New York, 1964, p.5.

(35) Graham, C.K., Op.cit., p.36.

(36) Scanlon, D.G., Op.cit., p.95.

It may be right to assume that, in the light of the evidence discussed, physical education did not have any official recognition in Ghanaian schools up to the end of the 18th century. The tradition that prevailed could be similar to what existed in England, where field games were played in the public schools. Indeed, if the early merchants introduced formal education of European style to give their children similar opportunities and benefits as in Europe, then the probability that English games and sports were transferred to Ghana is greater than one would imagine.

In this regard, it may be safe to conclude that even though formal P.E. was not in practice, some European games were played, in conformity to existing British traditional concepts of recreation. Furthermore, since the officers from these European countries played their traditional games in their free time, it is possible that those games were introduced to the schools in order to offer the offspring the chance to acquire basic skills in them. Owing to lack of any documental evidence relating to early participation in P.E., one can only speculate, in the light of the facts produced, that even though institutionalised P.E. was not in existence in Ghana, nevertheless some games were engaged in before 1800. How far some of the games were traditional is also unknown.

On the whole, it can be seen that educational development in Ghana until the beginning of the 19th century was slow and depended on private enterprise. Lack of zeal during this period was due to the preoccupation of the Europeans in their lucrative slave trade and hunting for gold, on which much of their energies and attention were concentrated. Recruitment of children to existing schools was very slow

and according to Foster,<sup>(37)</sup> selection was from mullatoes and from children of African traders who were ultimately involved with the emergent coastal economy.

Among the natives, greater esteem was accorded to members of the community who adhered meticulously to traditional concepts and practices. For this reason, those connected to prestigious offices such as chieftaincy and elders of the community did not want to adhere to alien cultures which appeared to be in conflict with traditional principles and norms. In consequence, the demand for education was low and remained so until towards the end of the 18th century. The relevance of formal education to the needs of the traditional culture had not been fully realised. There were no people with adequate power to compel children to enter school, nor did the schools appeal to the needs of the natives.

In order to attract pupils to their schools, the missions were obliged to adopt any means possible; but reports indicate that their efforts were frustrated in many ways. In the passage below, Raum explains how lack of educational zeal in the natives was combated by the missions:

... the difficulties experienced by early missionaries in attracting buyers for their educational wares is shown in the desperate attempts made by them to induce children to attend. Bribes in the form of food, clothes, even money payments, were common; chiefs had to be persuaded to accept education for children. (38)

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(37) Foster, J., Op.cit., p.45.

(38) Raum, O., 'The Demand for and Support of Education in African Tribal Society.' Year Book of Education, Evan Bros., London, 1956, p.537.

Available literature does not indicate the extent of missionary involvement in Sports and Games in Ghanaian schools before the dawn of the 19th century. What appears certain is that the missions were willing to use any possible incentive to draw many natives to their fold. It is not unlikely that sports and games were among the tactical strategies employed.

Whatever happened it is certain that games and sports were not institutionalised in the Ghanaian school curriculum at the time. What appears possible is that the prevailing system of unstructured games and sports in English public school at the end of the 18th century might have gained some recognition in the existing schools at the time. If as it has been said, the early schools in Ghana were to offer similar opportunities in Europe to mulatto children of European officials living in the country, then it seems highly probable that conscientious efforts were made to introduce the old tradition of 'all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy' in the schools that were established.

Up to the end of the 18th century, Ghana had been the scene of a long series of migrations and tradings by foreigners from many western European nations. Each group was attracted to the country by self-interest: economic, political, military prestige, and Ghanaians to varying degrees accepted their presence. The influx of increasing numbers of European explorers, merchants and missionaries brought a significant new tide of forces from Europe: such as industrial expansion and mercantilist concepts, abolitionist sentiments and projects of foreign missions, doctrines and practices of European culture etc. These inquiring explorers, benevolent missionaries and the well-meaning merchants who were all products of European milieu, served as precursors of foreign games and sports to Ghana. Even though their impact on Sports and Games was not recognised in Ghana at the early stages of

educational development, it became obvious during the next century.

### The Period from 1800-1900

At the beginning of the 19th century, it had become apparent that Ghana was beginning to experience dramatic changes in all spheres of life. Politically, the country was being plagued by inter-tribal wars and a lot of unrest. The powerful Ashantis who were expanding and extending their control rapidly towards the coast, posed many daunting problems to the coastal tribes who were obliged to seek British protection. Furthermore, the British attempts to abolish the Slave Trade brought them into confrontation with the Ashantis who realised that their main source of economy was being cut.

Problems that faced the British included giving protection to the coastal tribes and at the same time safeguarding their own interest and possessions in the country. They also faced the arduous task of setting up administrative steps to amalgamate the native tribes who differed linguistically, and, to some extent, culturally, into one administrative unit. The government started to show active interest in the general welfare of the natives by participating in the educational work that had been in the hands of private and religious organisations.

The impact of European civilization was beginning to effect significant changes in the social and cultural lives of the society. This situation was greatly enhanced by the unprecedented influx of missionaries into the country towards the end of the 18th century. Increased missionary activities meant a corresponding expansion of educational opportunities to the native population. In response to this missionary endeavour the Crown demonstrated its concern for the welfare of the people by establishing schools which functioned hand in hand with those hitherto controlled by the Missions and Trading Companies.

Foster<sup>(39)</sup> described the Crown's involvement in education as 'a rare feature in British Africa' and as a 'complete departure from early English educational practice.' It is known that from 1821, the Crown authorities provided a number of schools in Ghana financed directly from public funds. This was an endeavour which had never been practiced in Britain until after 1833, when the Educational Committee of the Privy Council was empowered to administer grants-in-aid to voluntary schools.

Unlike Ghana, the British government's home policy at the time, aimed generally at maintaining political and social stability without venturing into anything that was likely to disturb this balance. Education in Britain therefore remained the responsibility of private organisations and societies until Lord Brougham introduced the subject of National education in the House of Lords in 1835. The Crown was compelled in the case of Ghana to participate early in education because the Missions and private organisations who were involved in it were not as rich, influential, well-established and financially self-supporting as in England. Consequently, early government involvement was meant to establish solidarity with the natives.

During the first two decades of the century, the surge for formal education was greatly improved as a result of the political, social and cultural transformation that was becoming daily observable in the society. In response to this tidal wave of change, the chiefs, Kings and their elders who had up till then held steadfastly to traditional methods of upbringing of children in the society started to have a change of heart. Their interest in education was made manifest by a Treaty

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(39) Foster, P., Op.cit., p.49.

that was signed by the Kings of Ashanti and Juabeng in 1817 of which Article 9 stated that:

... the Kings agree to commit their children to the care of the Governor-in-chief for the education at Cape Coast Castle in full confidence of the good intentions of the British Government and of the benefits to be derived there from. (40)

This treaty revived not only the existing native confidence in the British educational system, but also confirmed the conviction of the chiefs of the values that education could bring to them and the nation as a whole. Encouraged by this demonstration of support and appreciation, the Colonial administration directly or indirectly attempted to transfer aspects of the educational principles and methods into Ghana. Indications are that the schools that were built, particularly by the colonial government, conformed to, and adopted the traditions of the prevailing English system.

Foster, for example, confirms that the 'institution at Cape Coast compared not unfavourably in standards with the Charity Schools of England' of the period.<sup>(41)</sup> Other evidence shows that as early as the first two decades of the 19th century, current English methods were encouraged in the schools in Ghana. For instance, on his appointment as a chaplain and schoolmaster to a school at Cape Coast in 1815, Rev. William Philip was said to have been explicitly instructed to 'render himself sufficiently master of the Madras system to be able to remedy any defects in his school.'<sup>(42)</sup>

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(40) Claride, W.W., A History of the Gold Coast and Ashanti. (2 Vols.), John Murray, London, Vol.I, 1915, p.297.

(41) Foster, P., Op.cit., p.53.

(42) Crooks, J.J., Records Relating to the Gold Coast of Africa, Browne & Nolan Ltd., Dublin, 1923, p.114.

The Madras system of monitoring teaching was being used successfully in England particularly in the charity schools. Even though it had some disadvantages, its usefulness was recognised in those schools where inadequate qualified teaching staff was a perennial problem. In the circumstances of Ghana during this period, the recommendation of this system seems to have been worthwhile.

As interest in education gathered momentum, so also the concern about what was taught in the schools and how it was being taught became more apparent. Towards the end of the first half of the century, people started to express concern about the contents of the syllabus and the methods of teaching that were being employed. These aspects came under attack because they did not appear to meet the needs of the natives. Evidence of the type of education that was being given in West African schools was contained in a report submitted by the Commissioner for the Select Committee on West Africa. Among other things, the report observed that:

... there was too much time employed in the school in the mere exercise of memory, too much of a mere teaching of words, and neglect of the knowledge of things, too little employment of the faculty of thinking and of instruction in the habits of industry. (43)

This confirmation of the undue emphasis placed on mental training was a characteristic of English education at the time. The three Rs were the main subjects in the curriculum, and P.E. as a subject had not been officially mentioned in Britain, let alone to be recommended in the Ghanaian school curriculum.

As far as the evolution of P.E. in the English educational system

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(43) Great Britain, Parliamentary Papers, Vol.XII (Reports) 1842. 'Appendix to the Report of the Committee on the West Coast of Africa', 1842, p.19.

was concerned, the subject did not receive official recognition until the second half of the 19th century. Before this time, the only passing reference that had been made on P.E. had come as a result of the Committee of Council on Education's investigations in 1839. This investigation sparked off what appears to be the first official statement on P.E. in England. It observed:

... The Physical Training of the children may therefore be usefully provided for on other grounds than its tendency to develop the muscular powers, and to render the scholars robust and vigorous. The physical exercise of the playground extends the moral influence of the teacher, by encouraging the children to remain under his care during the hours of recreation. (44).

Even though the Committee made only brief reference to physical exercise, yet it recognised its potential for improving the physique of the individual and also its contribution to the moral education of children.

So far, no official statement had been made about P.E. either in Ghana or in any of the British colonial territories in West Africa. It was not until 1847, that a Memorandum of the Privy Council on 'Industrial Schools for the Coloured Races' made what is believed to be the first official colonial government pronouncement on P.E. It dealt with the established subjects like English Religious subjects, and others, and made reference to the inter-dependence of moral and physical training. It also spelt out the school's relation to the community in regard to health and diet, cleanliness and sanitation. The document outlined the teacher's need to study the native culture in order to adapt the material of the lessons to their near environment.

It is obvious that the recognition accorded to P.E. in the Privy Council document of 1847 was a reflection of the existing British concepts and beliefs first expressed in the Minutes of Committee of

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(44) Minutes of Committee of Council on Education, 1839-1840. Great Britain, pp.22,26,31.

Council on Education in 1839. Scott has described the Privy Council document of 1847 as 'the first considered statement of the British government on educational policy among the Africans.'<sup>(45)</sup> Even though P.E. as a subject was not officially recognised during this period, in either country, yet different concepts of physical culture were eminent in British schools.

Of the British Public schools at the time, it has been said that all the machinery for the school life was 'designed for a toughening, extending process where your character was forged like steel in the fire.'<sup>(46)</sup> Mangan<sup>(47)</sup> has also revealed many aspects of the Victorian and Edwardian public schools in support of the belief that the concept of 'social Darwinism' was practised. He saw the schools as 'a Godless world of cold, hunger, competition and endurance', as well as an initiation ceremony lasting several years of which the testing rites involved food, accommodation, heating, punishment and above all, exercise. The Games field was also described as the location for 'continuous and calculated Darwinian effort' and a place where boys developed and perfected daily courage, stamina and ruthlessness.

If one accepts Bannister's definition of 'social Darwinism' as the theoretical predisposition 'to describe and explain phenomena in

(45) Scott, H.S., 'The Development of the Education of the African in Relation to Western Contact'. Year Book of Education, Evans Brothers, London, 1938.

(46) Honey, J., 'The English Public School. Its Dismal Past and Doubtful Future'. Proceedings of the Conference of Boarding Schools Association, University of Oxford, January 1979, p.25.

(47) Mangan, J.A., 'Social Darwinism Sport and English Upper Class Education'. Paper delivered at the Conference on the Social History of 19th century Sport, Liverpool University, March 1982, pp.10,24.

terms of competition and conflict,<sup>(48)</sup> then one has no difficulty in accepting that this concept was upheld in the English schools. Indeed, this concept has often been related to biological concepts concerning the survival of the fittest. In this sense, Mangan has again pointed out that what frequently characterised the English Public Schools was an implicit, if not explicit, crude Darwinism encapsulated in simplistic aphorisms: life is conflict, strength comes through struggle and success is the prerogative of the strong.<sup>(49)</sup> It may be recalled that similar views were uppermost in the minds of the elders of the Ghanaian traditional society before European contact. The methods they used in training the youth to the age of puberty including all the ceremonials, were aimed at propagating the concept of social Darwinism.

Furthermore, the concept of 'athleticism' described by Mangan as a profound belief in the value of physical exercise, especially team games, for developing instrumental and expressive skills which did not necessarily require a religious dimension,<sup>(50)</sup> was a characteristic of English schools in the 19th century. It was from their belief in this concept that led the Committee of the Council on Education's Investigations in 1839 to make the first official statement on P.E. in England. It is also possible that the Privy Council's Memorandum on 'Industrial Schools for the Coloured Races' was also formulated with the values of this concept in mind.

(48) Bannister, R.C., Social Darwinism: Science and Myth in Anglo-American Social Thought. Philadelphia, Temple University Press, 1980, p.4.

(49) Mangan, J.A., Op.cit., p.10.

(50) Mangan, J.A., Ibid., p.1.

Closely allied with the two concepts discussed was another concept which was popular in the religious organisations: 'muscular Christianity' or 'manly Christianity'. Of this concept, Newsome states: a man's body is given him to be trained and brought into subjection, and then used for the protection of the weak, the advancement of all righteous causes, and the subduing of the earth which God has given to the children of men.<sup>(51)</sup> Abundant evidence exists, in the history of the Christian Missions to Ghana, that this concept was actively propagated in the country during the 19th century.

For instance, when the Basel missionaries in Ghana started to advance from the coast inland - Akuapem, Krobo, Akyem, Kwahu and Ashanti, they had to build their own houses. The mission houses which were at first built with stones but later changed into framework with bricks, were carried out with the help of the congregation and the school children. The nature of activities that were given to the children were not only aimed at producing men and women with good morals and discipline, but also muscular Christians.

Official Report<sup>(52)</sup> concerning the work of the Basel Mission in Ghana during the 19th century indicates that 'by stern discipline, requiring the strictest obedience, they were trained in habits of punctuality and order.' It was also alleged that the pupils had each day, 'two hours healthful exercise in manual work', regarded as being 'of great physical benefit.'<sup>(53)</sup> There were six Higher Schools of the

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(51) Newsome, D., 'Godliness and God Learning', John Murray, London, 1961, p.214.

(52) Rottman, W.J., The Educational Work of the Basel Mission on the Gold Coast. Board of Education Special Reports, H.M.S.O., London, Vol.13, 1905, pp.297-307.

(53) Rottman, W.J., Ibid., pp.300,304.

Basel Mission, all Boarding Schools under direct European superintendence. These Middle (Grammar) Schools were quoted as having 'attendance very regular', 'instruction effective', and 'discipline very strict.'<sup>(54)</sup>

Since government participation in Education in Ghana was not very active as compared with the Missions during the first half of the 19th century, it was this medieval chivalrous value derived from the concept of muscular Christianity that was widely practised in Ghana. The extent of manual training which the pupils received from the missionaries is partly described in the following passage:

... The missionaries had to teach the natives all the masonry work, the sawing of boards and beams, the splitting of shingles, and all the carpenters' work. Besides the Mission houses, spacious chapels, school-houses and teachers' houses were erected, solid swish buildings with doors, windows and single roof. (55)

Despite the many good things that the Missions did to promote growth, development and the civilization of the natives, they have been accused of destroying many aspects of the traditional Ghanaian culture. In particular, they have been blamed for introducing doctrines that challenged traditional concepts and interpretation of the universe and for advocating for some social practices that enhanced tensions and conflicts within the society.

As a result of Missionary influence, Wallerstein<sup>(56)</sup> has argued that many Africans, especially the educated elite, renounced their cultural heritage on the grounds that everything of African origin was

(54) Rottman, W.J., Ibid., p.299.

(55) Ibid., p.304.

(56) Wallerstein, I., Africa: The Politics of Independence. Vintage Book, New York, 1961, pp.121,135.

self-defeating, including African music and dance. MacWilliam has stated that their teachings and educational programme 'tended to produce two worlds, separating the literates from the rest of the community.'<sup>(57)</sup>

Reporting about missionary activity in Ghana, Amoako<sup>(58)</sup> concluded that generally the missionaries frowned upon Christians who took active part, if at all, in the traditional celebrations or watched African drumming and dancing. The leading forms of Ghanaian dances which were the pantomime, the war dance, the exorcising of spirits (fetish dance) and many forms of initiation dances, were all declared unsuitable for Christians either to perform or participate in.

This attitude was doubtlessly inimical to the cultural development of the Ghanaian society, especially when one considers Rodney's assertion that:

... music and dance had key roles in 'uncontaminated' African society. They were ever present at birth, initiation, marriage, death etc., as well as appearing at times of recreation. (59).

The importance that the early traditional society placed on music, dances and drumming cannot be over-emphasized. It was the life blood of the traditional culture. Indeed, it has been established that at the turn of the 18th century, 'the Asante empire was at the height of its fame and glory', and that 'it was at the courts of the Asante Kings that the culture of the Akan, their language, music, dancing and art -

(57) MacWilliam, Op.cit., p.34.

(58) Amoako, O.S., 'The Political Institutions of the Coastal Areas of the Gold Coast as Influenced by European Contact', M.A. thesis, University of Chicago, 1954, p.73.

(59) Rodney, W., 'How Europe Underdeveloped Africa', Love & Malcomson, London, 1972, p.41.

had a chance to flower and develop.'<sup>(60)</sup>

It is clear from oral traditions as well as from the records of published sources in English, that the missionaries' attitudes to Ghanaian traditions during the 19th century were, to say the least, destructive. MacWilliam<sup>(61)</sup> has established that they attempted to replace the existing Ghanaian beliefs with Christianity by banishing traditional forms of training for citizenship which they regarded as 'bulwarks of Satan.' What Migeod<sup>(62)</sup> finds detestable about these missionaries was their aim 'to put a new mind into those they sought to convert.' He saw that 'their labours were unceasing' in their determination to transplant their own minds into the natives, in all their purity.

On the other hand, many writers have defended the missionaries by suggesting various reasons to account for their methods of dealing with the native society. Batten,<sup>(63)</sup> for instance, has explained that the early missionaries in common with the Europeans working in Africa, judged the value of African customs and institutions by what they had known in Europe. In consequence, their chief aim was to bring them as closely as possible to what was accepted as good among white people of Europe. It was based on this belief that they attempted to introduce into Africa for Africans, the same education that was provided for English children in England.

(60) Adu Boahen, 'The Rise of the Akan' in The Middle Age of African History. Roland Oliver (ed.), Oxford University Press, 1967, 2nd imp. 1968, p.26.

(61) MacWilliam, H.O.A. et al, op.cit., p.34.

(62) Migeod, F.W.H., 'Some Aspects of Thinking Black'. Journal of the African Society, No.LX, Vol.XV, July 1916, p.348.

(63) Batten, R.R., 'Problems of African Development', University of London, 1960, p.28.

Malinowski<sup>(64)</sup> has offered a different explanation of the attitudes the missionaries held against some traditional African dances.

He writes:

... the truth of the matter is that the early missionary was frightened of the dances without ever coming near them. He believed, for reasons which were spurious, that all dancing must lead to fornication.

The two examples cited above give some indications about some of the problems that the early missionaries confronted in dealing with the native population. While they had good motives for educating the natives, they seemed unwilling to do this without resisting traditional practices that were not in tune with their principles and practices.

What went wrong at the time in relation to missionary education was outlined in the 20th century by the Phelps Stoke Commission. After observing that:

... amusements in primitive society are usually connected with tribal ceremonies. Judgement as to their significance must be made on the basis of a thorough understanding of tribal history and usage. (65)

The Commission further explained that the application of the standards of civilised society might easily do real injustice to the purposes, motives and the influences of the ceremonies because what appeared indecent, harmful or foolish might change its guise when considered in the light of tribal history. The Report advised that the prime concern of everyone should be the significance and values of the ceremonies rather than justification on merely historical basis which might easily be overdone.

(64) Malinowski, B., 'Native Education and Culture Contact'.  
International Review of Missions, No.25, 1936, pp.480-515.

(65) Phelps Stoke Commission, Op.cit., p.82.

Meanwhile, it had become apparent to the natives after the establishment of missionary schools that the teaching of the missionaries was creating rival definitions of social situations in the country. As well as propagating anti-traditional sentiments through open and subtle condemnation of some aspects of the Ghanaian culture, the missionary schools were nourishing a new breed of youths who were more critical and less involved in the cultural activities of their ancestors. Furthermore, other influences such as European rule and administration, enhanced by the effects of the Industrial Revolution, ushered in radical changes in all aspects of Ghanaian life - economic, political, socio-cultural and recreational.

These dynamic forces together with increased missionary educational establishments started to shake the foundations of every aspect of Ghanaian traditional culture. Admiration and appreciation for the improvements that had resulted from British colonization, left no one in any doubt that European power and culture were slowly, but steadfastly, usurping traditional modes and mores.

A prominent colonial official described the country during the middle of the 19th century as follows:

... At the present time the Gold Coast (Ghana) essentially exhibits all the symptoms of progress in every phase of its existence. There is a vitality of change diffusing its innumerable currents throughout every class of society, and giving expansion and force to an entirely new class of ideas affecting the moral, religious, social and domestic condition of the people. A taste for many of European necessities and luxuries of life, and a partial assimilation in the construction of their houses, in dress, in manners and in religion, are becoming daily more observable, and even where little external change is perceptible, there is nevertheless going on an extensive modification of ideas, feelings and customs, paving the way for a more general conformity to the usages of civilized life. (66)

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(66) Cruickshank, B., Op.cit., Vol.II, p.280.

Before these changes became widespread, the traditional society had relied solely on their own efforts to provide the things that made up their living, from their own environment. Crude though their methods seemed, their physical culture or psycho-motor development had greatly hinged on their ability to overcome and struggle with the hostile climate that comprised the environment. The nature of the daily activities had hardened the natives physically and mentally to meet any type of eventuality.

At this stage, however, the imports from Britain to the country had started to shift the emphasis and premium that was placed on some aspects and necessities of life. British imports, according to Cruickshank, included cotton goods, silks, velvet, woollen stuffs, spirits, wines, tobacco, iron, brass, copper, lead, hardwares, provisions, house furniture, and an endless variety of the ordinary articles of consumption.<sup>(67)</sup>

At the same time, the socio-economic and political changes that were taking place provided what appeared to be the last straw that weakened traditional culture. Foster<sup>(68)</sup> refers to this period as a 'real testing time for traditional and cultural practices and beliefs in the face of missionary frontal assault on traditional society.' What was taking place can aptly be likened to removing from a medicine precisely those ingredients which have genuine therapeutic properties. The main basis upon which the physical and mental development of the tribal society was built and maintained was being gravely impaired.

It was from this background that during the Governorship of

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(67) Cruickshank, B., Ibid., p.280.

(68) Foster, J., Op.cit., p.51.

Stephen Hill, the first Education Ordinance (No.1 of 1852) was passed. This Ordinance aimed at providing 'for the better education of the inhabitants of Her Majesty's forts and establishments on the Gold Coast.'<sup>(69)</sup> This, also, was the first official attempt by the British government to enter the field of education directly through the provision of schools. Prior to its passage, it was the policy of the Crown to ask Governors of the Colonies to meet most of the development needs of the country through local revenue. The unwillingness of the Crown to meet most of the expenses of the Colony was reflected in the answer given to the request by Commander Hill for the colonial office to improve a school at Cape Coast and to raise the teachers' salaries. The Colonial Office replied that he made 'requisition not with reference to his means but with reference to his wants.'

The Crown's attitude to financial assistance for development projects made it necessary for Governor Hill to introduce a special Pool Tax in 1852, as an additional revenue, to support the 1852 Education Ordinance. The natives did not support the Pool Tax. As a result, the aims and benefits that the Education Ordinance was to achieve, particularly the aim to diffuse education more widely to the rising generation of females, was not realised. Nevertheless, the colonial government sent down teachers to man the few schools that were established. Despite the failure of the Education Ordinance of 1852, the existing government schools in the country flourished, and in many ways helped the ruling government to gain grounds to control the administration of the country. Further, the government entered into partnership with the missionary bodies in order to streamline the educational processes.

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(69) MacWilliam, H.O.A., Op.cit., 1959, (1962 ed.), p.6.

Apart from recruiting expatriates to teach in the established schools at the time, the Crown recruited clerks and top administrative personnel to head the administration of the country. Responsibility for protecting British interest and property was vested in top British army officials in the country. It was partly the anxiety to provide education for the children of these colonial officers that Government participation in education became greatly strengthened. The offspring of the colonial officials enjoyed the same education as the natives and the curriculum was based mainly on the 3 Rs.

Available evidence does not indicate what physical activities were taken in the schools and for what purpose they were taken. However, since British educational concepts and practices were transplanted to Ghana in toto, it seems likely that the prevailing concepts of sports and games in Britain at the time, were either directly or indirectly transferred into Ghanaian schools. Such conformity to English tradition was likely to occur at the Government schools where almost all the mulatto children were educated in line with the old traditional English public schools.

It may be recalled that in Britain, Her Majesties Inspectors (H.M.I.s) were requested, in 1840, to question infant schools to find out the types of games that were encouraged and the type of gymnastic apparatus provided. H.M.I.s were also to investigate whether the children were trained methodically in walking, marching and physical exercises. The logical inference from motives behind this investigation was the belief that such activities were desirable and worthwhile for the pupils.

It is probable that this official recognition of the value of physical exercises in English schools was carried over to Ghanaian schools particularly those that were directly sponsored by the colonial

government.

Missionary schools at the time were also keen on providing sound mental and physical development for their pupils. Migeod confirms this belief by acknowledging that the laymen with robust disposition naturally preferred 'the athletic missionary who brought out football and cricket things for the younger members of his flock.'<sup>(70)</sup> The missionaries used sports and games as important mediums for attracting more converts. In the training schools which they established in Akropong in 1848, the teachers were made aware of the values of sports and games. There were opportunities for those in training to play games at certain periods of their training. They were doubtless aware of the popular saying that 'all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy.' They also acted as catechists, schoolmasters and sometimes as spokesmen in the Villages. Their greatest popularity lay in their ability to use various playful activities to entice children to their camps.

Meanwhile, after 1860, the demand for formal education in the society was now gathering tremendous momentum. By the early 1870's it had become apparent that schooling was the single most popular demand that was being sought after by the natives. The cry for a greater government participation and administration of education was being made in every part of the country. A presentation was subsequently put forward to the Governor in 1872 by some Cape Coast Chiefs. It reads:

... As the Gold Coast is not without educated natives fitted for Government appointments or employments as well as foreigners of their own colour, your Excellency's Memorialists pray that the preference may be given to the natives, so that the native may have the opportunity of gaining experience in public duties

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(70) Migeod, F.W.H., Op.cit., 1916, p.348.

and of further bettering the impoverished conditions. (71)

The natives' concern for education can be discerned from the above passage. It was a means of gaining access to white-collar jobs and, consequently, earning adequate salaries to improve their conditions of life. That they had been deprived of opportunities to take important posts in the government as a result of inadequate educational opportunities has been acknowledged.

It was not surprising therefore that the Government decided to take a more determined attitude towards educational development in the 1880's. Within a decade of that period, three Education Ordinances were passed by the Legislature. Before their passage, the Government maintained only two schools - one at Cape Coast and the other at Accra. In the year 1880, both schools together had an enrolment of 309 pupils under the instruction of 14 teachers, at a cost of eight to nine hundred pounds. (72)

In 1882 the Education Ordinance of the Gold Coast was passed by the Legislative Council which aimed at bringing some sort of cohesion and plan for the education of the differing systems of management that existed. The Ordinance thus gave statutory recognition to the mission schools. It also provided that a General Board of Education should be constituted to consist of the Governor of the Colony, the Members of the Executive Council and three or four other persons to be nominated by the Governor. Provision was made for the appointment of an Inspector

(71) De Graft Johnson, J.W., 'Towards Nationhood in West Africa', Frank Cass, London, 1st pub. 1928, 2nd ed. 1970, p.26.

(72) Morrison, G.W., Education for Nationhood - A Study in African National Education Among the Negro Tribes of the Gold Coast. Ph.D. thesis, Hartford Siminary Foundation, May 1st 1923, p.144.

of schools and a sub-Inspector to act as the administrative officer of the Board. Like the Education Ordinance of 1852, the Ordinance of 1882 failed because of the following reasons:

- (a) The General Board of Education did not set up any Local Boards;
- (b) The Government never completed the machinery by which the Ordinance might be worked;
- (c) The time for the Inspector was too limited for proper inspection of schools;
- (d) The Missions with their own systems were unwilling or unable (or both) to conform to the rules under the Ordinance, as, for instance, in the case of a German Mission teaching English;
- (e) The Missionaries, on whom the burden of schools fell were not considering so much the education of the country as its evangelization;
- (f) The general difficulty of working the Ordinance.
- (g) General indifference about education. (73)

Rev. Sunter, one of the Inspectors of schools is quoted as describing Ordinance 1882 as 'an unworkable and ridiculously complicated Ordinance.' (74)

Ordinance 1882 contained contemporary English concepts like 'monitorial system', 'payment by results' and 'grants-in-aid'. Some of these concepts have been criticised as out-dated and unworkable in England. For instance, the system of payment by results was found to be defective in England after its introduction in 1861. Graham therefore has questioned the rationale behind transplanting a system that had failed in England to Ghana.<sup>(75)</sup> It became apparent that the 1882

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(73) Morrison, G.W., Ibid., p.146.

(74) Ibid., p.146.

(75) Graham, C.K., Op.cit., p.113.

Ordinance had inherited many of the educational philosophies of the English Education Act of 1870. Both were ambitious and probably more forward looking than any previous Acts on the subject. While the Ghanaian Ordinance stressed the 'need for a superior system of education to meet the wants of an advancing society',<sup>(76)</sup> the British Act of 1870 was intended 'to bring elementary education within the reach of every home.'<sup>(77)</sup> In both Acts provisions were made for the establishment of Boards and both intended to assist in the administration of the grants-in-aid system whenever necessary. Despite many similarities, strenuous efforts were made to adjust some aspects of the Ghanaian educational process to suit local conditions, notably the attempts at agricultural and industrial training.<sup>(78)</sup>

It was not until after the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 which legitimised European economic and political dominance in Africa that colonial policies in Ghana began to take concrete shape. Afterwards Ordinance No.14, of 1887, was passed for the 'promotion and assistance of education in the Gold Coast Colony'.<sup>(79)</sup> Ordinance 1887 did not differ materially from the previous Ordinance and contained the basic philosophies that had motivated the provision of educational policies. One of the aims of the 1887 Ordinance was to raise the standard of the educational work of the missions and also to widen the basis upon which grants could be made. It gave as its main feature, a more extensive power to the Board of Education and eliminated the Local Boards. While

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(76) The Education Ordinance of 1882, Gold Coast 1882.

(77) The Education Act of 1870, Great Britain, 1870.

(78) Graham, C.K., Ibid., p.181.

(79) The Education Ordinance, No.14 of 1887, Gold Coast, 1887.

previous Ordinances had reflected on a limited curriculum, this Ordinance included more subjects like history and geography of England and the British Empire.

The passage of Ordinance 1887 also witnessed the first issue of the Education Rules; which like the British system, amended from time to time, parts of the Education Ordinance. Provisions were made for extra subjects to be added to the school curriculum provided staff with interest and requisite qualifications were available to teach them. Where such staff was available and willing, the school was to submit a graduated scheme for teaching the particular subject. Containing many provisions, it established the basis for a greater detailed and comprehensive approach to the administration of education than any of its predecessors.

Like the English Act of 1870, the Ordinance 1887 forbade direct religious teaching as part of the instruction given in any Government school. At the same time, the Ordinance made it obligatory for assisted schools to open their doors to children without distinction of religion or race, and insisted that no child received any religious instruction objected to by the parent or guardian of that child, or be present when such instruction was given. This provision might have pleased those natives who were still drenched in the cult of ancestral worship and still tied to traditional beliefs.

It must be stated, however, that despite the expansion in the number of subjects in the curriculum, Ordinance 1887 did not acknowledge or mention Physical Education as a curricular subject. It was rather the Education Rules passed by the Board of Education and approved by the Governor under Section 4 of the Ordinance 1887, which gave recognition to P.E. These Education Rules followed the same style as the Revised Code of Regulation for 1871 which followed the Education Act of

1870, and gave recognition to P.E. in the English school curriculum. In the Ghanaian version, subjects that constituted attendance included: Drawing, Industrial Instruction, suitable Physical Exercises, Military Drill (for boys) and Practical Housework (for girls).

On the whole, comments on all the Education Ordinances passed in Ghana have centred on their similarity to previous English Acts on the subject. Foster<sup>(80)</sup> described the 1882 and 1887 Ordinances as attempts to reproduce the structural characteristics of English education which had emerged as a result of the Education Act of 1870, and to control the general nature of the curriculum of the Gold Coast so as to conform more closely to that of the metropolitan power. Graham<sup>(81)</sup> has observed that the Ghanaian Education Rules issued after Ordinance 1887 was 'a modified version of the English Education Code of 1885.' He further reveals that the reproduction of the British Ordinance was so faithfully undertaken that Section 9 of the instructions on Music Tests in the Ghana Ordinance was followed not by Section 10, which had been omitted because it could not be enforced in Ghana, but by Section 11, number, words and all.

Apparently, the fears expressed by most educationists about the carbon copy transfer of many aspects of British education into Ghana had been based on the assumption that they would not work in a culture so different and unique from that of Britain. Foster<sup>(82)</sup> has admitted that 'attempts to reproduce structural characteristics of English education was to lead to very different results from those anticipated.'

(80) Foster, P., Op.cit., p.81.

(81) Graham, C.K., Op.cit., p.114.

(82) Foster, P., Ibid., p.80.

It is from this background suspicion and fear that one needs to examine the evolution of P.E. in the Ghanaian curriculum. In order to understand the reasons behind the formal introduction of physical exercises and military drill into Ghanaian schools curriculum, one needs to examine how the subject evolved in the English school curriculum during the same period.

Until about 1830 when the British Parliament made its first attempt towards the expenses of schools, the British Government was not directly involved in the educational system of England. The responsibility for education had been in the hands of private individuals and societies until Lord Brougham introduced the subject of national education into the House of Lords in 1835. One of the private organisations for education was the British and Foreign School Society which was formed in 1808 with the aim of extending education among the people. A National Society for the establishment of schools in which the principles of the Church of England should be included as an integral part of the course of instruction had already been formed to deal with education in 1801.

During the first two decades of the 19th century, few facilities existed for poor children in England to obtain elementary education. Rather, schooling seemed predominantly reserved for the Upper and Middle Classes who were catered for in exclusive Church and private schools like Harrow and Eton. The only avenue of education open to the poor was the charity schools where they existed. Owing to the uneven distribution of schools at the time, better opportunity for elementary education existed in the South East while the North West of England had a rather poor provision. In those areas where provision for schools were made, many were unable to take full advantage of it because of the

existing socio-economic and political developments at the time.

The war with France, low wages and the high cost of living, i.e. food and clothing, were a few examples of the prevailing conditions. As a consequence of the problems created by these adverse conditions, children at the ages of five and six had to work in the mines and factories in order to supplement the family earnings. The fact that schools were scarce also meant that only a small proportion of children had any chance to attend - about one in thirty children received organised education.

Schools that existed in Britain, until after the first three decades of the century, had depended on either voluntary subscriptions or fees paid by the pupils until Parliament made its first grant, in 1833, of £20,000 to aid Elementary Education. This grant was paid by the Central Government until 1839, when a Committee of Privy Council for Education was appointed to look into any application of sums and ascertain that the grant had been duly applied. Two inspectors of aided schools were subsequently appointed by the Queen and instructed in the newly-built schools, provision for recreation and exercise. They were also to inspect the state of exercise grounds in existing schools and report on the competence of teachers to take classes in physical education. In addition, they were to encourage after-school activity in the school yard, away from evil influences and poor parental supervision.

Meanwhile, elementary education was rather narrow in its conception and education for the masses of the English population was recognised as an intellectual process aimed at giving enough literacy for their everyday lives and occupations and to bring them up to certain standards in moral conduct. Physical education therefore became part of this general education policy. The ability of P.E. to develop the

muscular powers of children and influence their moral development was acknowledged by a newly formed Committee of Council on Education, in 1839.<sup>(83)</sup>

After the affirmation of the values of physical training by the Committee in 1839, the subject did not receive any appreciable government support or recognition until after 1870. Nevertheless some physical education activities were going on during the time, even though what was being done had to take place without any direction from the Education Department.

However, Young<sup>(84)</sup> has indicated that politically, Britain witnessed one of the turbulent times of its external commitments between 1830 and 1880. Not only did Queen Victoria face at least eleven wars in various parts of the world during that period, but worse still, two of these wars - the Crimean War 1854-1856 and the Indian Mutiny of 1857-1859, were alleged to have proved more arduous and longer-lasting than expected. It was through these wars that evidence came to light concerning very serious defects in the standard of recruits who applied for entry to the Army Service. Public interest was subsequently awakened to react about the physical deterioration of the people.

Meanwhile the concept of military drill in schools had gained wide currency in many European countries, notably Switzerland. Owing to the constant danger from external aggression, these countries had imbibed the concept as a means of providing the youth with a foundation for general military efficiency and economy for the nations. Thus Military

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(83) Minutes of Committee of Council on Education, 1839-1840, pp.22, 26,31.

(84) Young, G.M., Early Victorian England, 1934, Vol.I, p.369. Quoted by McIntosh, P.C., Physical Education in England since 1800, Bell & sons, London, 1952, Rev. ed. 1968, p.71.

Drill was an accepted philosophy in the curriculum of some schools in Europe. Through these drills, other values like discipline and physiological development were thought to have been gained by participants in addition to meeting the possible future political needs of the countries.

Totally aware of these benefits but rather unwilling to adopt the strategy as a national venture, early attempts were made to establish a number of voluntary corps in such schools as Rugby, Eton and Westminster for the purpose of training in Military Drill.<sup>(85)</sup> As the form of training in these voluntary corps became more firmly established, interest in extending it to other schools increased. Attempts were therefore made to make it compulsory rather than voluntary. One of the strong advocates for this system was Lord Elcho who, in 1862, brought a motion before the House of Commons stating:

... that it is expedient for the increase of bodily as well as mental aptitudes of children for civil, industrial, as well as for possible military service that encouragement and aid should be given for the extension of the practice of systematised gymnastic training, and for the teaching of military and naval drill. <sup>(86)</sup>

Desirable as this motion appeared, it did not receive the requisite approval because in the eyes of Vice President Robert Lowe and other members of Parliament, such a venture would be 'an extravagant expenditure of public money.'<sup>(87)</sup>

Despite this failure, pressure on the government to include P.T.

(85) Refer to Parliamentary Debates, 1862, 3rd Series, Vol.168, Col.23, 27; See McIntosh, P., Ibid., p.72.

(86) Parliamentary Debates, 1862, 3rd Series, Vol.168, Col.27-28.

(87) Ibid., pp.27-28.

and military drill in the school curriculum remained unabated. It may be recalled also that even though the need for games and physical exercises seemed widely accepted in existing educational establishments during this period, yet its place in the school curriculum was not yet fully recognised. Many pioneers, included Warker<sup>(88)</sup> quoted eminent European physicians and philosophers of the period to support their views. Outside the schools, McLaren, influenced by Guts Muths and Clias was influencing military drill while Missionaries of P.H. Ling were strongly advocating for the Swedish system of gymnastics.

The Report of the Clarendon Commission set up in 1861 and published in 1864 admitted that the Public School education was an instrument for training character and recognised, among other things, the value of games in training character. However, they thought of gymnastics as being of little value, just as they felt about drill.

By the end of the 1860's, the social conditions in Britain had been greatly altered as a result of the impact of the Industrial Revolution. The accompanying evils of migrations to cities, malnutrition, rapid spread of diseases and high infantile mortality brought a lot of unrest and dissatisfaction among some of the population. Poor wages coupled with poor physical conditions, and the need to get physically fit people for the wars in Europe, raised the need to cater for the physical fitness of the whole population, particularly the youth. There was a gradual movement towards free and compulsory education for all - culminating in the 1870 Act which covered the country with schools.

Despite a plea from Mattias Roth for compulsory teaching of the elements of P.E. in the elementary schools, the Elementary Education Act

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(88) Warker, D., Exercises for Ladies, Thomas Hurst, London, 1837, 2nd ed., p.XIV,XV.

of 1870 contained no mention of any system of physical training being accepted for use in schools. Nevertheless, in Section 24 of the Code of Regulations for 1871 which followed the passing of the Act, it was stated:

... attendance at drill under a competent instructor, for not more than two hours a week, and twenty weeks in the year, may be counted as a school attendance. (89)

for the purpose of financial grant from the government. This, in effect, meant that although the teaching of drill was not obligatory for schools, they were permitted by law to do so if they wished. The drill advocated for in the 1871 Code was, however, restricted to boys only.

Drill was recognised and encouraged under competent instructors and drill sergeants. The reasons for this move were many: the Crimean War exposed military weakness,<sup>(90)</sup> the start of the Franco-Prussian War needed men with strength, character and military competence. The view of the Committee of Council on Education was that it 'would be sufficient to teach the boys the habits of sharp obedience, smartness, order and cleanliness.'<sup>(91)</sup> It was accepted in response to the request for extending the military concept into schools by seeing physical training as an extension of military training.<sup>(92)</sup> Military drill was recognised as a 'useful aid in promoting discipline and valuable habits of prompt obedience' and also as 'physically and morally good

(89) Code of Regulations for Public Elementary Schools, 1871, Article 21.

(90) McIntosh, P., Op.cit., p.109 (rev. ed.).

(91) Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education, 1870, p.CXXXVI.

(92) Parliamentary Debates 1871, 3rd Series, Vol.204, Col.1559; 1885, 3rd Series, Vol.222, Col.1408.

for the boys and a matter of even national importance.<sup>(93)</sup> The drill to be given in schools was to be taken from the Army Field Exercise Book of 1870, from the sections of squad, or recruit, or company drill.<sup>(94)</sup>

It is pretty obvious from our examination that P.E. in the English school curriculum had evolved from conditions that had their sources in both political and socio-economic motivations. Even though other motives and advantages were inevitable, the introduction of military drill was one of national necessity, called for by the prevailing trends in the history of the nation. It is from this background that we study how P.E. gained official recognition in the Ghanaian schools during the same period.

So far, it has been noted that Education Ordinance No.14 of (Ghana) 1887 did not speak of P.E. in the same way as the Education Act of 1870 was mute on the subject. However, like the British Revised Code of Regulations for 1871, the Education Rules that followed Act 1887 also mentioned 'Suitable Physical Exercises', and 'Military Drill' (for boys), as subjects which constituted attendance and therefore worthy of grants upon the fulfilment of certain conditions.

Under Chapter 4, Section 59 (c) of the Education Rules that followed Ordinance 1887, a grant calculated upon the average daily attendance of two shillings or three shillings was awarded if the Director of Education was in a position to report that provision had been made for:

- (1) Suitable instruction in elementary subjects,
- (2) Simple lessons on objects and in the phenomena of everyday

(93) Kennedy's General Report for 1867, Committee of Council on Education, Report, 1867-1868, p.172.

(94) Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education, 1870, p.CXXXVI.

life, and simple school songs and games.

In schools where the above requirements were thoroughly adhered to, a grant of three shillings was recommended by the Director of Education, while those that did not reach the highest standard of attainment only attracted a two shillings grant. The provision which made grant-in-aid to be paid to schools also stated under paragraph 12 Section (f) of the Rules that in making up the minimum time constituting an attendance, there could be reckoned time occupied by the instructor, whether or not it was given in the school premises or by the ordinary teachers of the schools, the following subjects:

- (i) Drawing (ii) Industrial Instruction (iii) Suitable Physical Exercises (iv) Military Drill (for Boys) and (v) Practical Housework (for Girls).

Apparently it had not occurred to anybody that girls as well as boys equally needed training in the subjects they were exempted. The concept of equating housework to girls and others to boys was still greatly cherished.

As far as the development of P.E. in Ghana was concerned, the Educational Rules gave tremendous support to the subject. Apart from recognising the value of games in the school, it provided the incentive for its teaching by way of grants. Secondly, schools that built appropriate facilities for suitable exercises and drill were rewarded. Unlike Britain, this reward was essential since the government in Ghana was not in a position to provide the appropriate environment and equipment for the subjects listed in this section.

Despite these efforts to enhance the development of P.E. in Ghana, there were many problems and obstacles which did not seem to receive the due attention that was accorded to British schools. The first problem was the lack of adequate and qualified teachers to teach the subject well in schools. By implication, 'Suitable Physical Exercises presupposed

that some Exercises could be harmful and consequently should be handled by those who had the technical know-how.

It may be recalled that in Britain, when it was realised that expenses for implementing this code was far more than what the government could cope with, various safeguards and strategies were adopted to counteract any evil effects that could result from mismanagement. As a first step, a memorandum issued to Her Majesty's Inspectors from the Education Department suggested that Army Instructors who drilled Volunteer Corps in villages in the evening might well be able to drill boys in schools in the afternoons. The advantage of this suggestion was that apart from keeping those Army Instructors fully occupied, it drastically reduced the amount of money that would be needed for the project without them.

Secondly, attempts were made by some Boards e.g. Birmingham Board to train teachers for P.E. with the appointment of Bott to 'superintend all schools under the Board and to give instructions to teachers on two evenings a week.'<sup>(95)</sup> Another measure taken was the appointment of special bodies in Britain, to issue certificates of competence for P.E. Instructors. These bodies included:

- (a) The military authorities at Aldershot (for soldiers only).
- (b) The British College of Physical Education.
- (c) The Amateur Gymnastic Association, and
- (d) The Birmingham Athletic Institute.

The fact that these bodies examined P.E. instructors before they were issued with certificates to teach the subject meant that, at least, rigorous measures were taken to ensure the calibre of those who taught

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(95) Report of the Birmingham School Board, November 2nd, 1886, p.14.

the subject in schools. There are no indications that any of the following safeguards were officially made in Ghana towards the development of P.E.

Another grave problem that faced the development of P.E. in Ghana was that due regard was not given to children who had walked long distances to school from their villages, which varied from two to five miles in distance. They were subjected to physical exercises in the same way as those who had only covered a fraction of a mile. Owing to heavy rainfall caused by the tropical conditions, most children often trotted in and out to school, often covering over six miles on a return journey.

On the other hand, teachers in British schools were instructed that 'children who had walked long distances to school should be excused' from P.E.<sup>(96)</sup> The same instruction forbade teachers from involving 'half-timers' (children who attended school for half the day) on any physical exercises. The reason given was that:

... it was very undesirable that they (children) should be subjected to any system of exercise or drill which, if practised in the morning, might render them unfit for their afternoon's labour, or, if practised in the afternoon, might press heavily upon a tired boy or girl. <sup>(97)</sup>

Understandably, this was the period when the effects of the Industrial Revolution had made it necessary for some parents to send their children to earn additional money through working in the mines and the factories, to supplement family income. Perhaps the Ghanaian child was not under similar stress.

(96) Report of Committee of Council on Education, 1896-1897. Revised Instructions, 1897, p.509.

(97) Ibid., p.509.

However, despite the safety measures that were taken in Britain to secure qualified teachers for the subject, many criticisms were levelled against P.E. Instructors and the nature of the subject. In particular, military drill was condemned in some circles because of the types of exercises that were involved and the lack of competence of some of the people who taught it. Tibble<sup>(98)</sup> has condemned the employment of Instructors trained in the Army Gymnastic Course as unfortunate for the following two reasons:

- (a) the army was still using barrack square drill and a haphazard collection of exercises originally introduced by A. Maclaren in 1861; and
- (b) the instructors were ill-educated N.C.O.'s, not officers as in the Navy.

It was Tibble's belief that 'this gave physical training an inferior status in the profession for many years to come.'<sup>(99)</sup>

While there are no records to support evidence of incompetence in the teaching of P.E. in Ghana during this period, there are examples of many untrained teachers who taught in the Elementary Schools. Owing to the lack of government-established training colleges for teachers, many of the teachers who taught in the assisted schools had no training that could enable them to teach the subject effectively. It could therefore be assumed that if those unqualified teachers were forced to teach the subject, then they were bound to face many difficulties and problems. At the same time, there was every possibility that through such problems as they would experience, the status of the subject could equally suffer in the same way as described by Tibble above.

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(98) Tibble, J.W., 'Physical Education and the Educative Process'. Readings in Physical Education. Kane, J.E. (ed.) London, 1966, p.106.

(99) Tibble, J.W., Ibid.

Three categories of teachers existed in Ghana before the turn of the century. The first group consisted of Pupil teachers who were either boys or girls engaged by the Managers of the schools by a binding contract in writing on condition of teaching during school hours, under the superintendence of the principal teacher, and receiving suitable instruction. These teachers, who were to be above fourteen years of age at the beginning of their engagement were bound to teach for not less than three years. The Managers were equally bound to see that they were properly instructed during the engagement. In other words, they received their training as teachers from the instructions of the Managers after school hours.

The second group of teachers were known as Assistant teachers, consisting of Pupil teachers who had completed their three years minimum engagement with credit. People who had passed the certificate examination could also be recognised as assistant teachers. As their names indicate, the two groups of teachers mentioned were expected to give assistance to the recognised teachers in the performance of their duties, but as it happened, they performed almost all the duties that were expected of the certificated teachers.

Of the three groups of teachers, the Certificated teachers were the only group who had to pass the examination prescribed by the Education Department. The examination for teachers' certificates was held annually with due notice given well in advance. The syllabus of subjects for this examination covered such subjects as: Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, English history, English grammar and analysis, Geography, School management and Mensuration. A copy of the detailed syllabus is attached to the appendix column at the end of the study.

Certificates issued for the examination were of three classes, viz, first, second and third. A second class certificate was raised to

the first class after the teacher had taught for a minimum of five years and had received consecutive satisfactory annual reports from the Director of Education. On the other hand, the third class certificate could only be raised upon the teacher being re-examined.

Outside these three types of certificates, honorary local certificates were from time to time granted without examination, at the discretion of the Education Department. On the annual inspection of schools by the Director, all teachers were expected to present their Certificates for his endorsement. While the Education Department had power at any time to recall or suspend any certificate, this could only be done after it had informed the teacher of the charges against him or her, and had given the person concerned the opportunity of exculpating himself.

It is obvious from how these certificates were acquired that teachers produced were of a different calibre as far as the teaching of P.E. was concerned. Indeed, the type of examination that qualified them did not give any cognizance to any achievement in or knowledge of P.E. Nowhere in the Educational Rules were suggestions given about how P.E. activities were to be conducted or the nature of activities that were to be engaged. The approach in Ghana was therefore quite distinct from what prevailed in Britain.

Unlike Ghana, the teaching of P.E. in English schools during the second half of the 19th century was influenced by the changes in English Educational Codes. For instance, some Boards were helped in the regulations of the revised Codes which, in 1890, recognised suitable physical exercises in place of military drill<sup>(100)</sup> and in 1895, made instruction

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(100) Code of Regulations for Public Elementary Schools for 1890, Article 12 (ENGLAND).

in physical exercises such as Swedish drill a condition if the highest grant of discipline and organisation was to be earned.<sup>(101)</sup> The Education Department instructed that after 31st August 1896, the higher grant for discipline and organisation should not be paid to any school in which provision for instruction in Swedish or other drill, or suitable physical exercises, was not made.<sup>(102)</sup>

Owing to the encouragement that was given to the teaching of P.E. in English schools, by 1895, games had become a national movement in the schools. Inter-school competitions in football, cricket, athletics, swimming and other games were being organised by teachers in places like Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham and others. Encouragement for the establishment of school clubs for these sports and games were given through the recommendation of H.M.I.'s Education Department. The recognition that games gained during the last decade of the century formed the basis of P.E. in the English Schools' curricula.

During the same period, the concept of inter-school competitions in some games, notably netball, was transplanted into the assisted schools in Ghana. Competition in games was extended to athletics. Owing to the inherent Ghanaian attitude and craze for competition, the popularity of competitive games and sports gradually increased during the dying years of the century. No records are available to determine the general attitude of the Ghanaian schools, but in British schools, McIntosh<sup>(103)</sup> has summed up what prevailed in the passage below:

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(101) Code of Regulations for Public Elementary Schools for 1895.

(102) Code of Regulations for Public Elementary Schools for 1895.

(103) McIntosh, P.C., Op.cit., p.120

... To the 'spirit of the game' the schools also made a contribution which is not without merit. While games are played to the very limit of human endurance and the element of competition was often overdone, yet "victory at any price" was not an idea that ever found favour. Even defeat could bring satisfaction and was not dishonourable provided that the game was played hard and keenly contested. At their best, games were played for fun as much as for victory. At their best too, Public school games demonstrated that "art without malice and strife without anger" was a worthy, and an attainable ideal.

At the close of the 19th century, the programme for P.E. in both British and Ghanaian schools consisted of physical exercises (gymnastics), military drill and games. In Britain, military drill was being systematically taught to boys attending over fourteen hundred day schools. Two systems of physical exercises existed in Britain (Swedish system and the English system) and statistics of teachers who opted for instruction in either of the systems indicated that a ratio of two to one teachers preferred the English system to the Swedish system. The explanation given was that the Swedish system was not adequately 'recreative and suitable to the requirements of English children.'<sup>(104)</sup>

On the other hand, one cannot speculate to what degree the systems of physical exercises that were transferred to Ghanaian schools were either recreative or suitable to the requirements of the Ghanaian children. Even if the Ghanaian child had a choice, there was no possibility that the limitation imposed by finance and manpower resources could have made it practicable to mount two different courses for teachers on the subject. In any case, the type of physical exercises that were taught followed the personal preferences of the teachers who taught them. The expatriates who taught in the schools did not follow exclusively one system of physical exercise.

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(104) Board of Education Special Reports. 'Physical Education under the School Board for London', H.M.S.O., London, 1898, p.186.

While no attempts were made to explain the objects of teaching drill, physical exercises and games in the Ghanaian curriculum, British teachers were not left in any doubt about this issue. Physical exercises in schools were to provide a means of recreation under discipline, and to raise the general standard of health by quickening the circulation, increasing the breathing capacity, promoting nutrition, facilitating the elimination of waste products from the system and increasing the volume and power of the voluntary muscles, thereby promoting all-round bodily development and growth.<sup>(105)</sup> The London School Board emphasized that 'physical exercises for the young must provide healthy relaxation, and should involve little or no mental strain.'<sup>(106)</sup> It was believed that when a child's mental faculties were overtaxed, the best kind of exercise for it was that which required no great mental effort in its execution.

It was in the light of this belief that the London Board advised that exercises of an automatic character, i.e. those which had become familiar to children through long practice, were preferable to those involving a certain amount of skill, or mental activity for their accomplishment. 'It is irrational to expect the performance of exercises demanding mental concentration when the brain is already overtaxed.'<sup>(107)</sup>

The comments made by London Board on the nature, value and the application of physical exercises in their schools had many implications. Apart from underlining the concept of duality of man - mental and physical - it acknowledged that some exercises demanded more mental activity than

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(105) Ibid., p.186. (B.O.E. Special Reports) 1898.

(106) Ibid., p.187.

(107) Ibid., p.187.

others. The Board recommended only those exercises that involved relaxation as antidote for mental recuperation. In other words, the Board regarded physical exercise to function as a 'non-academic' subject in their schools. This fact was further underlined when it observed:

... Automatic movements necessitate no great mental effort, and fatigue produced by their performance is purely muscular. Hence it can readily be seen how immensely beneficial it is to engage in such movements when rest for both brain and nerves is required.' (108)

The London School Board also regarded Drill as necessary and complementary to physical exercises. It noted that the most beneficial system of training which could be made compulsory in schools, especially in those of large towns, was systematic physical exercise with its accompanying essential - Drill.<sup>(109)</sup> After pointing out that to secure the interest of children in physical exercises, variety was most essential followed by entertainment, the London Board advocated for a system of P.E. that would 'lend itself to variety and one that could, when necessary, be associated with music.'

The aims and objectives held by the London School Board reflected generally the prevailing concepts of P.E. in many parts of England. For instance, the Chairman of the School Management Committee of the Sheffield School Board, Wilson<sup>(110)</sup> had declared that the aim of his Board in gymnastics and physical exercises, especially in the elementary schools, was 'the development of the lungs and limbs by proper exercises.'

(108) Ibid., p.187. (B.O.E. Special Reports) 1898.

(109) Ibid., p.188.

(110) Wilson, H.T., 'Gymnastics and Physical Exercises', International Health Exhibition: The Health Exhibition Literature, Vol.XIII, London, 1884, p.345.

He called for the type of physical exercises that were recreative and intended to give the children not only relief in their school work, but furnished them with the means of increasing their enjoyment out of doors.<sup>(111)</sup> Of military drill, Wilson expressed the belief that there were a great many British who did 'not desire to imbue the children with military notions.'<sup>(112)</sup>

It must be noted that before the Education Act of 1870, between 1860 and 1870, the concept of calisthenics gained grounds in some schools and educational establishments in Britain. The term calisthenics was generally known as gymnastics. According to Laspee<sup>(113)</sup> the object of gymnastics was to rectify or improve the physical condition of man, his bodily health, strength, usefulness and pliancy, and these with a view either to benefit the whole body and intellect, or to benefit the body, or some of its members only, irrespective of the intellect.

An appraisal of the evolution of P.E. in the British educational system shows that different influences, most of which were becoming apparent towards the middle of the 19th century, enhanced the acceptance of the subject in the schools. Military influences and companies for health reform in particular, formed the crucial climate of opinion favourable for the acceptance of P.E. in British schools. On the other hand, P.E. was introduced to Ghana irrespective of the fact that the main factors that engineered its eruption in England did not prevail in the country.

(111) Ibid., p.346.

(112) Ibid., p.347.

(113) De Laspee, H., 'Calisthenics: The Elements of Bodily Culture', Darton and Co., London, 2nd ed. 1865, p.VII.

As rightly suggested by many writers, in the case of Britain, it had become clear that there was an obvious need to improve the standards of health and fitness of army recruits, and of the whole class of the population from whom they were drawn.<sup>(114)</sup> The growing awareness of problems in health and social welfare in England during this period, precipitated by the results of industrialisation, indicated a genuine and often philanthropic concern for the health of the country's poor. The evils of sub-standard health and social welfare of the British populace had been made manifest by contemporary writers like Dickens, Kingsley and others.<sup>(115)</sup>

Before this period, different systems of P.E. had been developed on the continent. However, as observed by Van Dalen<sup>(116)</sup> the concerted effort to strengthen national unity, intensify patriotism and to develop military fitness through P.E. that was exhibited in the continental countries of the 19th century, was less emphatic in England. Britain emphasized the cultivation of sound character, social qualities and general fitness and was content to adopt and adapt a number of systems to suit her own needs. The main reason for her stance was that, unlike the continental countries, Britain was not so obsessed with the constant fear of invasion.

Furthermore, Hendry<sup>(117)</sup> had identified the most influential social

(114) Crunden, C., The Effect of Formal and Informal Influences upon P.E. in England between 1870 and 1920. M.Ed. thesis, Manchester University, 1972, p.84.

(115) Dickens, C., Oliver Twist, 1838, Martin Chuzzlewit, 1843-44, Bleak House, 1852-53, Hard Times, 1954; Kingsley, Alton Locke, 1850, The Water Babies, 1863.

(116) Van Dalen, M.B., A World History of P.E., Ibid., 1953, p.290.

(117) Hendry, A.E., Social Influences upon the Early Development of P.E. in England. Physical Education, Vol.61, No.182, March 1969, p.20.

factors that helped the development of P.E. as:

- (i) the existence of some forms or systems of education,
- (ii) the social class system,
- (iii) health,
- (iv) the women's movement,
- (v) the development of communications, and
- (vi) the economy.

None of these factors seemed to have had any significant influence on the development of P.E. in Ghana. Ghana did not seem to have any evidence of physical deterioration which was the by-product of industrial revolution and consequent urbanisation that characterised British communities. On the contrary, Cruickshank<sup>(118)</sup> had pointed out that during the same period, the average Ghanaian 'possessed high physical qualities' and was 'capable of enduring the severest toil and the greatest privations'. Some evidence seems to suggest that the introduction of military drill in Ghanaian schools was for political motives. Colonial Reports indicate that the need to establish a standing army to defend both British and Ghanaian interest led to the rapid establishment of military camps in Ghana. These extracts give some indication of how military personnel in West Africa were deemed highly desirable by the colonial administration:

... Since 1897, there have been created for the protection of the frontiers and the preservation of internal order a military force, the West African Frontier Force, of which regiments were before the war, stationed in Nigeria, and Gold Coast (Ghana), a battalion at Sierra Leone and a company in the Gambia ...

The Gold Coast shares with the Gambia the record of being the part of West Africa which has the oldest British Connection.

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(118) Cruickshank, Op.cit., Vol. II, p.252.

From commercial point of view it stands high among British Tropical possessions. (119)

The effect of military drill that started in schools seemed to have improved the skills and general strength of the Ghanaian soldiers.

It may also be stated that the economic development in Ghana during the 19th century was not adequate to provide the resources which would permit of any substantial expansion of government activity, particularly in the provision of physical education and recreational facilities in the country as compared to Britain. The government's revenue in 1860 had been less than £8,000; it rose to £30,851 in 1870 and £67,378 in 1875.<sup>(120)</sup> It was only in the last two decades of the century that the economic situation improved; by then, demands for improvement in many areas of national need such as roads and transportation, hospitals and other vital social services had become so pressing that little attention was paid to aspects of education outside the three R's.

Outside the limitation created by economic factors, social stratification played an integral part in sports development in Ghana in the 19th century. The society was divided into three main social factors by the end of that century. At the Upper level were the colonial administrators and their families who had come with unique socio-cultural background development from the elitist society in Europe. To them, sports formed an important part of their recreation. In consequence, the provision of small facilities for sports and physical recreation became

(119) The British West African Colonies and Protectorates. Handbooks Prepared under the Direction of Historical Section of the Foreign Office. No.100, April 1919, pp.13,17.

(120) Colonial Office, 'Native Administration in the British African Territories' by Lord Hailey. Part III West Africa, H.M.S.O., London, 1951, p.198.

a necessary part of the environment that was provided for them.

Facilities for lawn tennis, soccer, volley-ball, cricket, hockey, golf, polo and rugby were gradually established with the passage of time, and enjoyment in playing these games was initially confined to these expatriates in their new social setting.

At the second level of the social structure were the middle class which comprised local educated elite who tasted the first fruits of formal education and therefore acted as intermediaries between the illiterate folks and the European community. This small middle class existed only in name as far as early participation and enjoyment of foreign games were concerned. While the foreigners did not prohibit them from playing these games, this group found it difficult at the beginning to join the upper classes in most of the games partly because of lack of experience and partly because of poor facilities and equipment. Eventually, this class developed a greater appetite for foreign Sports and Games and imbibed some of these games as their pastimes.

Meanwhile, the lower class of mostly uneducated natives pursued the old tribal and traditional culture. While they watched with keen eyes the new games that were being introduced, they were not drawn into participation until such time that the growth in the population of school children increased considerably. It was after the second half of the 19th century that efforts to copy foreign games and sports by the local children began. Even then, most of the games mentioned had limited appeal because of lack of equipment and possibly lack of qualified people to teach or coach them.

When facilities in the playing of games started to spring up in government and aided Mission schools, games like soccer, hockey, rounders and volley-ball received the first attention of the schools. The success that attended participation in these games that required minimum equipment,

but maximum participation, was great. Apart from the novelty of playing foreign games, the fact that they offered different challenging situations made the pupils over-anxious to outclass their counterparts. Competitions that erupted from playing these games eventually filtered down from the schools to the villages where attempts were made by the educated people to raise local teams for competitions.

Thus even though foreign games and sports like soccer, volleyball, cricket and athletics were played by the natives before the 20th century, their growth was encouraged by individual efforts rather than any planned effort by the government. As an official Ghanaian source has aptly confirmed, provision for recreation and sports was left unsponsored by the colonial government.<sup>(121)</sup> This view is supported by Apter<sup>(122)</sup> who has also observed that the colonial administration failed to emphasize the establishment of adequate recreational facilities.

The growth of foreign traditions in games and sports gradually usurped traditional modes and mores. Even though early attempts were made by the Missions to curtail some traditional activities, yet it may be said that failure to continue steadfastly with local and cultural games by Ghanaians during the later part of the 19th century was not wholly attributed to missionary efforts. Much as the Missionaries may be blamed for prohibiting participation in some aspects of traditional culture, it is obvious that the gradual turn from these activities to foreign games and sports was caused by many other factors.

For instance, towards the end of the 19th century, Ghanaians had reached a level of national development where almost every aspect of

(121) Ghana Reconstructs, Government Printer, Vol.4, No.6, p.3  
(no date) Accra.

(122) Apter, D.E., The Gold Coast in Transition. Princeton University Press, Massachusetts, U.S.A., 1955, p.121.

national life had been coloured by European traditions. Even the Chiefs who had remained unshakable and jealous guardians of traditions had accepted and pleaded for more educational facilities and improvements to commensurate with European traditions. They not only accepted the principles of education as necessary for the growth and development of the individual, but they also felt that it was an urgent national need. In consequence, no one felt the need to question the principles behind the presence of, or the lack of, any subject in the school curriculum. At the same time, other national needs seemed to have taken precedent over cultural development.

In addition to this situation, play and various forms of games were regarded as complementary to what was already known to the children. After all, what really mattered was whether the child derived the maximum satisfaction from the activity he engaged in. In this respect, the more appealing an activity became to a child, the greater was the incentive to explore it further and subsequently, to develop the relevant skills. Under such circumstances, engagement in any activity was determined not only by interest, but also by the popularity that such activity had gained in the public.

Towards the end of the 19th century, schools under the management of the Missions in Ghana were 109 with 7,657 pupils. The government controlled only six schools with 901 pupils. The table below shows the total number of school pupils of assisted schools as against government schools

TABLE I\*

The total number of schools and pupils of assisted schools  
and Government Primary Schools in 1896

Type of School	Total no. of schools	<u>Average Attendance</u>		Total no. of Pupils
		Boys	Girls	
Basel Mission	40	1644	670	2314
Wesleyan Mission	53	3330	360	3690
Roman Catholic	16	1413	240	1653
Government	8	776	125	901
Total	117	7163	1395	8558

\* Computed from 'Government of the Gold Coast', Report on the Education Department, 1919, Government Printer, Accra, pp.6-18.

There were 83 missionary schools which were not assisted and therefore received no grants from the government. However the grants paid to assisted mission schools during the same period totalled as follows:

TABLE II

Grants to Assisted Mission Schools in 1896

<u>Type of School</u>	<u>Grant given</u>
Basel Mission	£1043    7s    6d
Wesleyan Mission	£1613    17s    6d
Roman Catholic	£ 743    6s    0d
Total	£3400    11s    0d

TABLE IIIThe Growth of Government and Assisted Schools 1881-1901\*

Controlling Body	1881	1891	1901
Government	3	4	7
Basel Mission	47	27	61
Wesleyan Mission	84	17	49
Bremen Mission	4	2	3
Roman Catholic	1	3	12
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	139	53	135

\* Calculated from Wright, F., 'The System of Education in the Gold Coast Colony', Special Reports on Educational Subjects, H.M.S.O., London, 1905, XIII, Part II, 3.

After the passing of the Education Ordinance 1887, schools in Ghana grew steadily. The beginning of the 20th century witnessed a phenomenal growth in education hitherto unknown by the country. The statistics below illustrate the growth of schools during the last decade of the 19th century.

TABLE IVThe Growth of Government and Assisted Schools 1890-1902\*

Year	Schools under Inspection			Number of Scholars on the Roll and in Average Attendance	
	Govern- ment	Assisted	Total		
1890-91	5	49	54	5,076	3,641
1891-92	5	69	74	6,666	4,847
1892-93	6	66	72	7,350	5,195
1893-94	5	70	75	7,689	5,828
1894-95	7	93	100	9,954	7,570
1895-96	6	109	115	11,205	8,558
1897	7	111	118	. . .	8,478
1898	7	112	119	11,181	8,369
1899	7	123	130	12,240	9,239
1900	7	131	138	11,996	8,911

\* Computed from Wright, F., Op.cit., p.8.

### Influence through the Civil Service

The contributions Britain has made to the world of Sports and Games have been acknowledged by many sports historians. In particular, Van Dalen<sup>(123)</sup> has confirmed that the British carried her sports and games to all parts of the Empire and the world by military personnel, civil servants, public officials, businessmen and students attending boarding schools and universities.

P.E. was not confined to the schools alone during the 19th century. The impetus to enjoy games and sports in schools was first supplied by the British colonial Civil Servants who first held the administrative posts in the country. These men and women who initially occupied big bungalows and government-owned buildings in Ghana started to play European games around their habitations. It was customary for the colonial government to build limited sporting facilities such as lawn-tennis courts, volley-ball and other playing areas around the official residence of the European civil servants.

These areas served as venues for enjoying purposeful recreational activities. Around the limited playing grounds, the expatriate heads and their colleagues often met and formed clubs either on a departmental basis or mixed groups to play and enjoy their sports and games. Where government schools were established, fields were made to provide the children with areas for recreational activities. Such fields were used by the expatriates after school for playing their favourite sports and games such as hockey, cricket and soccer.

Many children often stayed after school to watch these European

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(123) Van Dalen, D.B. and Bennet, B.L., A World History of P.E., Cultural, Philosophical, Comparative, Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 1971, 2nd ed., p.288.

games. Apart from enjoying the skills in the games that were played, some of these boys often acted as retrievers of balls for which they were always rewarded with various gifts ranging from monetary payment to worn-out balls and equipment. As time went on, the interest of the children became stimulated and those who had had the blessing of obtaining some old equipment started to learn the game outside school hours around their houses, beaches and any convenient areas.

In many cases, because the cost of equipment for some of the games like cricket, golf and hockey were above the reach of the indigenous worker or the school child at the time, the games and sports were patronised by the Europeans who had the materials supplied at subsidised cost. It was one of the means the colonial government adopted to encourage Europeans to live in a region which was widely described in many history books at the time as 'the Whiteman's grave'.

Gradually, some high ranking natives who served as clerks and workers in the civil service were allowed to join some of these clubs. Those who achieved the distinction of being admitted to play the games with the Europeans were regarded as belonging to a social class that was below the expatriates and above the indigenous natives. Thus the desire for social recognition played no small part in stimulating the enthusiasm of the youth to learn the early foreign games that were introduced.

Children who retrieved balls and servants who carried their master's sports equipment to the playing fields, as well as those who served the expatriates during the course of the games, all of them often watched appreciatively the games being played either at school grounds or around the bungalows. Not long afterwards, they found improvised materials and learnt to play the games they had often watched with admiration. Thus through careful observation, many of these keen

spectators, most of whom were school children, grasped the rudiments of such games as were played in their environment.

Some of these games gained roots as activities during the recreational periods in the schools. Eventually attempts were made, where possible, to supply some of the basic equipment to the schools so that interested pupils could use them during play-time to improve their skills. It was from this beginning that school games of European background started to gain popularity in Ghana during the 19th century. It must be emphasized that no special efforts were made to teach these activities as school subjects until a couple of years or so before the turn of the century. That was the time when the Education Rules which followed the 1887 Education Ordinance of Ghana became effective and recognised P.E. as a school subject worthy of gaining grant when taught.

#### The Influence of the Army

The armed forces provided the greatest source of security, stability, peace and order to the colonial administration. Aware of the importance of this group of people, the colonial administration recruited some of the best qualified men and ex-servicemen to the top positions in the force at Ghana. They made sure that a rigid code of discipline was adhered to at all times.

One of the instruments for discipline as well as physiological development was military drill. This aspect of training was undertaken by the top ranking officers who planned thorough programmes for all the recruits of the Army from the native population. Aware of the fact that the protection of English interests and administration depended more on the strength and efficiency of the military personnel, the colonial government left no stone unturned to satisfy itself that the

natives received proper training. In consequence, vigorous physical exercises designed to toughen them physically and also to sharpen their mental faculties were given.

Each week, the recruits went through body building exercises termed 'fatigue' under the military physical training instructors. Activities such as running, trotting, climbing, swimming etc. characterised their training which aimed at war preparedness and defence. Similar training, but less arduous was given to the police forces that were later established to keep internal peace and order.

Like their counterparts in the Civil Service, the top ranks of the officers lived in areas in the military camps where fields for playing games were more plentiful as compared to areas where the civilians dwelt. Games and sports competitions were regular routines in the barracks. The over-riding aim in all the activities was to excel or defeat your opponent at all costs. Even though foul play was not encouraged, competition was so encouraged that 'friendly rivalry' used to be the appropriate term in use.

Games like hockey, football, and athletics were more common than those games that required few participants at a time. The way the army influenced P.E. differs from that of the civil service. The military men tried to build small local clubs in their villages when they went on leave. That was the only way they could demonstrate to people that they had something to offer the locality. Apart from the formation of local clubs in various sporting activities, the military men encouraged in the children the love of adventure and acts of valour. Even though these activities were less prominent in the 19th century, they gained popularity in the 20th century, especially during Empire Day celebrations when many forms of competitions and amusements were organised.

It was mostly out of political consideration that military drill was introduced into Ghanaian schools. It provided the right venue to train the natives to defend both the nation and the Empire from military <sup>9</sup> aggression from any quarters. It also inculcated the spirit of active obedience to law and order, a situation which Ghana badly needed to help growth and development. A country with a subservient population would always expect internal peace and harmony. It was to the advantage of the colonial master who had many colonies to have a standing army everywhere so that they could be deployed against revolt in any territory of their occupation.

The benefits that the schools gained directly from these forces are difficult to determine. However, events around the army barracks and school playing fields after the 19th century, confirmed that military drill had an important future in Ghanaian education. At least, military adventurism and the instinct for competition were zeals that were set alight during this period.

One of the problems facing sports historians is that they can only present what happened, what objectives and intentions early educationists had in putting up new programmes. The difficulty is in determining how the people enjoyed it, or the main outcome from what was originally proposed. Our discussion so far has made it manifest that P.E. as a subject entered the English school curriculum in the 19th century with unpretentiously clear-cut objectives - moral and physical development of the child through the medium of games, sports, gymnastics and physical exercises of various forms. Doubtless these same values spurred the introduction of the subject into Ghanaian schools.

However, in Britain foreign systems of P.E. (e.g. Swedish system of gymnastics) that were introduced took some time before they

became fully accepted. Furthermore, when the Swedish system was established, it co-existed with the English system for some time until some amelioration of the military emphasis in the British system gradually came about. It was not until 1890 that the Education Department recognised physical exercises as well as drill and in 1895, physical education became eligible for grant as a subject of instruction.

The situation in Ghana contrasted sharply with that in Britain as far as national characteristics are concerned. No evidence exists to suggest that the traditions of physical culture were either fully or partially encouraged or exploited in shaping the nature of physical education in Ghanaian schools. Indications are that Ghanaian schools conformed to, and practised the concepts of P.E. that were established in British schools in much the same way as other subjects of the school curriculum had followed English traditions. Hence the qualified teachers, who were mostly Europeans, taught sports and games that were reminiscent of the English Public Schools.

Perhaps the effects of the industrial revolution which had changed the mentality of the Ghanaian to cultivate European tastes also helped the acceptance and development of foreign games in Ghana despite a limited government support. Ghanaians resisted the temptation of wilful blindness and obstinate deafness to the teachings of the industrial revolution and the benefits of formal education. Instead, they kept abreast of the advancing tide of increasing knowledge from the European world which had eluded them from early times. The profundity of the economic and social changes which rocked the nation was such that hardly any nation could have survived the impact without some breach to its age-long traditions and culture. Tastes change with the evolution of society and indications are that some European culture gained roots in relation to existing trends of the time. Many changes occurred.

It may be said in favour of the early missionaries that despite their opposition to some native customs and practices, their contribution to the development of P.E. was immense. Through their efforts, many aspects of early traditions were modified to meet the needs and acceptance of the growing number of educated natives.

Perhaps what is more important is not only the total increase of the repertoire of physical activities that were available to Ghanaian children, but also the uses and influences that these activities played in the future aspirations and to the nation as a whole. The 19th century witnessed the turning point in Ghanaian attitude to traditional physical culture and the germination of European concepts of games and sports.

While acknowledging the fact that conditions in Europe and Ghana differed and that the games that were introduced into Ghana had significant cultural values from countries of their origin, one must accept the fact that, in the field of cross-cultural contact and exchange of ideas, physical activities seem to have a more positive transfer than many aspects of national traditions. The contribution of sports and games by Britain to the world of P.E. has been acknowledged by many historians of the subject. For instance, Van Dalen<sup>(124)</sup> has confirmed that the British carried her sports and games to all parts of the Empire and the world by military personnel, civil servants, public officials, businessmen and students attending boarding schools and universities. Thus many nations have adapted some British sports and games as their national games.

There was obvious lack of enthusiasm by the colonial masters to place P.E. on a firm footing as they did other subjects. At the same time, it could be a mistake to conclude that the Ghanaian traditional methods

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(124) Van Dalen, B.D. and Bennett, B.L., A World History of P.E., Cultural, Philosophical, Comparative, Prentice Hall, New Jersey 1971 (2nd ed.), p.288.

were incapable of meeting the changing needs of the society. It appears that the existing population at the time contained advanced and progressive people who were keenly desirous of copying European culture for reasons other than any recognised deficiency in the traditional approach. Most probably, the measures introduced stimulated the popular interest of the children.

Such measures could involve some break with the past tradition, but as it has been observed elsewhere, traditional institutions could survive only so long and in such measure as they were of effective service to the community. It is difficult to justify the retention of traditional methods just as in the same way it is difficult to argue that what was introduced generally met the needs of the pupils. The relative benefits of both cultures can only be assessed in the following century when the policies and concepts that had been propagaged would have had adequate time to prove their worth.

What has become apparent from our examination of the evolution of P.E. in Ghana is that determined efforts were made by the British to transfer their type of education into Ghana. In this process, P.E. was introduced which gained support partly because of the prevailing social and economic factors. Much of the success that P.E. gained was due to the fact that what was introduced was new, exciting and probably better or more exciting than the ideas they superceded. It would also appear that the new ideas, methods and practices that were involved proved compatible with existing valued past experiences and the need patterns of the society. What appears obvious, however, is that most of the games were not too complex and relatively easy to understand and participate in.

It could be argued that the fact that foreign games were accepted did not imply any shift in values and norms of the traditional society. Taking part in foreign games and sports rather enhanced the moral and

social values that were characteristic of traditional physical culture. The readiness with which Ghanaians welcomed obvious reforms and possibly, why they might have abandoned some traditional attitudes in preference to some European concepts can be fully understood in the following century.

Even though evidence in the 19th century may lead us to deduce that Ghanaians unquestioningly remained loyal to the dictates of British educational policies and concepts, events in the following century would reveal that this attitude was transient.

There is no doubt that irrespective of their various handicaps resulting from lack of scientific development, the traditional Ghanaians were amazingly well adapted to their environment and to the intricate web of life in which they existed. By imbibing some aspects of European traditions and ways of living, the traditional society had some of the indigenous culture modified by discarding those aspects that no longer fitted into the new pattern of life that had evolved. The two breeds of traditional culture and European culture produced a new generation of Ghanaians who no longer wholly supported all the past traditions nor discarded all of them as useless.

With the passage of time and the influence of education, it became obvious that the more diversified the followers of one culture became in their habits and attitudes to changing trends the greater the growth of feelings for a change or modification of prevailing methods and concepts to meet the needs of a progressive nation. In this regard, only the most beneficial aspects and variations in culture were preserved while the least favourable were eliminated or died out naturally. It was in this climate that P.E. in Ghana developed in the 19th century. Even though its introduction and development were conceived from motives and values that characterised the establishment of the subject in British schools, it is clear that many other factors in Ghanaian tradition contributed to the acceptance of the subject in the school curriculum.

### Missionary Influence on the Development of P.E.

Much has already been written about the missionaries' contribution to the development of education in the 19th century. It has also been noted that during this period, their influx was phenomenal and far beyond what had been experienced hitherto.

Despite the various criticisms made against the missionaries of this period, many writers believe that their contribution to P.E. in Ghana was unparalleled. For instance, Ackon<sup>(125)</sup> has concluded that although the missionaries condemned the indigenous physical activities of Ghana, they also contributed a great deal in promoting P.E. in Ghanaian society.

### Summary

In summary, the period before 1800 was of note primarily for the great rivalry and competition between the expanding European nations, to gain a stronghold on trade established with the natives. The early migrations to Ghana were sparked off by self-interest: economic, political and philanthropic reasons. The influx of European explorers, merchants and missionaries stirred industrial expansion and mercantile concepts, abolitionist sentiments and projects of foreign missions in establishing European doctrines and cultural practices.

The inquiring explorers, benevolent missionaries and well-meaning merchants were products of the European milieu and served as precursors of foreign games and sports in the country. Schools that existed were concentrated in the castles and forts built by the early European explorers. The main function of these schools was to offer the mulatto children of the settled European officials similar opportunities of education to those available in Europe. With that concept in view, the

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(125) Ackon, H., Some Changing Phases of P.E. in Ghanaian Society, Diploma dissertation, Specialist Training College, Ghana, 1973, p.73.

teaching methods and type of curriculum closely reflected the forms that existed in Europe, particularly those of Britain.

Until formal education was extended to the natives during the 19th century, there was no justification for offering the European children in the existing schools a type of curriculum that differed from the 'tried and tested' methods of the 'home' country. Thus the curriculum imposed corresponded to the instruction in contemporary English schools for the poor to give emphasis to the 'Three R's'. Even though games were played in the castle schools, they were mainly for recreational purposes and served the adage that 'all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy.'

During the early part of the 19th century however, following petitions to the colonial government, primarily from tribal chiefs, formal education was extended widely to the native population. The missionaries took tremendous care to extend their influence and doctrines in the establishment of schools. With the rapid growth in the number of schools, as their influence spread, the natives' desire for formal education was correspondingly increased; especially so as fresh opportunities of social prestige and improved standards of living resulted.

When the British took control of the administration of the coast, after the departure of most of the rival Europeans from the Colony, fresh opportunities were created in the provision of education under the central government. The governmental control of educational activities commenced during the first half of the 19th century. Until that time the missions and private organisations dictated the educational system. Even though the situation of the Ghanaians during the period contrasted sharply with that of the British, not least as far as national characteristics were concerned, the educational system practised in Britain was transplanted almost in its entirety. Not only were the

educational ordinances enacted in Ghana similar in content and outlook to those in Britain, but so too were the Educational Rules that followed the last Educational Ordinance in Ghana.

In particular, the evolution of P.E. in the Ghanaian curriculum followed the same sequence as that in the 'parent' country. Even though the Privy Council's Memorandum on Industrial Schools for the Coloured Races had given cognizance of the need for teachers to study the native culture, in order to adapt the lesson material more nearly to the environment, in practice not effective measures were taken in this respect. Instead concepts such as 'athleticism', 'social Darwinism' and 'muscular Christianity' that held sway in English schools were gradually transferred to Ghana. At the same time, through the influence of the occupying military personnel, civil servants, public officials, businessmen and other professional people, games and sports of European origin were being introduced to the public. The influence of these sporting activities on schools was strengthened when eventually P.E. became an official part of the curriculum during the last two decades of the century.

The introduction of P.E. into Ghanaian schools was derived from the same motives and values championing acceptance in the British curriculum. The events that led to the introduction and acceptance in British schools were, however, different from those in Ghana. Whilst military demands and campaigns for health reform in particular formed the crucial climate of opinion favourable to the adoption of Drill in Britain, there were no such factors operating in Ghana to support the need for the subject, at least not from the native's point of view. The moral and disciplinary values of drill could hardly be disputed. Furthermore, the socialising influence of games and usefulness in promoting qualities of leadership, loyalty, co-operation, self-discipline, initiative,

tenacity, teamwork and sportsmanship, were worthy of emulation and support.

One remarkable contrast between the two countries was in the amount of initial support in the promotion of physical activities in schools. In Britain conscious efforts were made to provide both facilities and trained personnel for the subject towards the end of the century. There was an obvious lack of enthusiasm in the colonial masters to place the subject on a similar footing to that pursued at 'home'. Partly because of the lack of trained personnel and partly due to the natural robust physical disposition of the natives, little attention was paid to the subject.

In some measures drill seemed indispensable within British society, to arrest deteriorating physical conditions arising from the effects of the Industrial Revolution, and in instilling discipline in the potentially revolutionary masses at a time of great social unrest.

The Ghanaians saw the time as one of further cultivation and development of the tastes and lifestyle of the British. The appearance of machinery and endless supplies of European trade goods into the country changed the existing social, economic and political outlook. The improvements in living standards of the indigenous population shifted that balance of human activity noticeable during the pre-colonial era. No longer did the people rely for their physical development upon those pressures resulting from occupational duties and the constant combat against a hostile climate and ecology, putting premium on physical strength. While sedentary work was not then a visible component of Ghanaian society, there were visible signs that the society had taken a new turn.

With missionaries engaged upon a 'frontal assault' against many traditional activities - mainly in those areas of tribal drumming and dancing representing the soul and lifeblood of Ghanaian culture - many

alternative games and foreign sports were introduced to replace those being abolished. Those traditional activities and games not in conflict with missionary doctrine were encouraged in opposition to those so destructively condemned.

When towards the end of the 19th century, education became very popular in Ghana, it became obvious that Ghanaians earnestly sought it for motives that were at variance with those initially responsible for promoting it.

The next century was a testing time to assess the values of education to the native Ghanaian.

### CHAPTER III

#### THE PERIOD FROM 1900-1957

The beginning of the 20th century marked a distinct break with the past and ushered in a new chapter of Ghana's history. In 1901, after the last Ashanti War, Orders in Council were passed which annexed as a Colony by settlement all territories in the Gold Coast south of Ashanti. Under the Foreign Jurisdiction Act of 1890, Ashanti was declared a Colony and the Northern Territories a Protectorate.<sup>(1)</sup> The succeeding years were devoted to the establishment of law and order, economic and social progress, and to political and constitutional developments designed to fit the natives to take their place in the community of nations.

Britain, from this period, made most of the fundamental decisions of political, social and economic natures that affected Ghana, and carried out some of them. In addition to possessing executive, legislative and judicial powers, Britain also exercised prerogatives on behalf of Ghana and subjected the country to the laws enacted and decisions taken by the Government. The stage was set for the Colonial power to direct the affairs of Ghana for another half century. In trust and confidence the natives accepted British domination as a temporary situation from which they could acquire certain skills, and the knowledge needed to survive and advance society in the face of an increasing tide of European impact and technological development.

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(1) Colonial Office, Gold Coast Report, 1949. H.M.S.O., London, 1950, p.67.

In order to facilitate effective British rule the Colonial government devised a system whereby the traditional rulers, influential merchants and traders were involved in the administration of the country. In particular, some of the traditional rulers were influenced to accept judicial, police, financial and public works responsibilities that were performed with varying degrees of autonomy. Gradually these rulers were transformed into 'de facto' civil servants. They shared the wealth of the nation through government grants, salaries and commercial arrangements. Furthermore, an important link between the Colonial power and the natives was established. The channel for communication and discourse was thus inaugurated.

Meanwhile, at the turn of the century, a number of influences had accelerated the social and economic growth of the country. In particular, the growth of the cocoa industry and the spread of education had raised the aspirations and expectations of the people. There were many problems, the most pressing of which were identified by Rodger as concerned with education, sanitation and transport.<sup>(2)</sup> Of these education had the greatest appeal to and concern of the natives. According to Rodger, it was exclusively too literary and there was the tendency of every native who had acquired the rudiments of a literary education to despise all manual work.<sup>(3)</sup>

It was obvious too that some people were unhappy about some aspects of the administration of the Colonial Power. Concern was expressed about the way the natives were being ruled and educated. Rodger expressed his views clearly:

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(2) Rodger, Sir P.J., 'The Gold Coast of Today', Journal of African Society, Vol.IX, No.XXXIII, October 1909, pp.1-19.

(3) Ibid, pp.9,14.

... In my opinion, we ought to develop all the native races on the lines of their natural evolution and not to substitute for their own laws and customs something that we think is better merely because it happens to be in force in Great Britain ...

... The civilization of West Africa should, in my opinion, proceed on the lines suited to the environment which are not necessarily identical with those considered most suitable in Europe. Natives should retain and improve on all that is good in the traditional customs as well as adopt what is good - and only what is good - of that which they learn from contact with Europeans. Improvements, not merely imitation, whether in morals, in manners and customs, or in dress and artistic industries, is the true keystone for racial civilization throughout the world. (4)

It is clear from the above passage that the natives were not receiving the type of education and guidance that was in line with their cultural evolution. On the contrary, there was transplantation of European ideals and customs that had proved successful in England. It was assumed that what had proved worthwhile in Europe would presumably prove equally so in Africa. The main task that faced the Colonial government on education in Ghana was to devise an educational system that would take the various propositions into consideration, or to continue with the existing concept that what had been 'sauce for the goose' would be equally appealing to the gander.

It is from these two perspectives that we begin to examine British influence on the development of P.E. in Ghana, during the first half of the present century. In order to gain insight into the significance of the concepts and traditions of P.E. that were transplanted, it is necessary to examine the development of P.E. in England in the early years of the 20th century.

At the turn of the 19th century Britain was faced with great political and social problems. The country was engaged in the Boer War

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(4) Rodger, Sir P.J., Ibid., p.18.

of 1899-1902. During this war, recruits to the British army were found to be physically deficient to an alarming degree. Distressing accounts of how physically unfit young men recruited from the large towns were directing public opinion to the necessity of drill and physical exercises in schools to remedy this state of affairs. There were renewed calls for the encouragement of military training in schools, particularly from the headmasters of large public schools. Not only were questions raised in Parliament on the issue of the health of children nationally, but also military-inspired organisations, such as Cadet Corps and the Ling's Drill Association - with its declared aim of seeing military drill taught in all grant earning schools - vocalised opinion.

There was a great national concern about the contribution of P.E. to the development of the child. With the assistance of the War Office, the Board of Education took steps, in 1900, towards dealing with the issue by conducting an enquiry into the form of physical training in schools. The 'Model Course of Physical Training for Use in the Upper Department of Public Elementary Schools' was published in 1902, by the Board in conjunction with the War Office as a result of the enquiry.

In the same period, a Royal Commission was appointed with the Earl of Mansfield as Chairman, to enquire about opportunities for P.E. in educational institutions in Scotland and to suggest means by which such training could be made conducive to the welfare of the pupils. The Report of the Commission presented in 1903, analysed the system of P.E. that existed in many countries, including Germany, Switzerland and North America. After recommending that a Committee should be set up to devise a national system of P.E. for Britain, the Commission emphasized the need for systematic physical training and games in schools,

and further advocated medical inspection and treatment to be undertaken in schools.

Evidence obtained from previous surveys in the country revealed the deteriorating physical conditions of pupils. In order to arrest prevailing conditions, an Inter-Departmental Committee on Physical Deterioration was appointed in 1904, to identify the causes of the physical deterioration existent in certain classes of the population and to suggest means by which the effects could be most efficiently diminished. The Report of this Committee persuaded the Government to look to physical training in schools for the remedy.

Meanwhile there was national debate on the question of P.E. in schools.<sup>(5)</sup> During the debate, many important issues affecting the general health of school children were raised. Winston Churchill, for instance, argued that before the State made itself responsible for a compulsory system of physical training, it should also ensure that those undergoing training were in a fit condition to receive it. Believing that good food must be the foundation of any system of physical training, Churchill concluded:

... until you settle this question, so far as the children in the schools are concerned, it seems to me idle to discuss questions of detail - such questions, for example, as the kind of exercises it would be best to introduce, or whether drill in school would be likely to foster a military spirit, and improve recruiting for the army. (6)

In his contribution to the national debate under discussion Atkins questioned the use of the Modle Course of Physical Training, and

(5) Atkins, J.B., National Physical Education - An Open Debate, Isbister and Co., London, 1904.

(6) Churchill, W., *Ibid.*, pp.71-72.

maintained that most members of Parliament who had a respectable knowledge of education seemed to have concluded that it certainly was not useful.<sup>(7)</sup>

Haldane noted that Britain had 'too restricted a view of education', and that the country was in an 'age of new ideas' which called to 'turn to educational methods abroad - to see to what extent the existing ideas were capable of being revised and changed.'<sup>(8)</sup> He also acknowledged that the country had exaggerated the educational value of the examination system.

One of the main motives for introducing compulsory P.T. in British schools was revealed by Lord Charles Beresford, who explained that:

... the necessity for some compulsion was sufficiently shown during the late South African War ... a large number of recruits could not pass the reduced military standard. <sup>(9)</sup>

While some sections of the British people were in favour of physical training, some objected to the idea of military drill. Macnamara<sup>(10)</sup> argued that:

... while it is essential that there should be physical training, I think you have no right to compel a working man to send his children to an elementary school and then make that school a recruiting ground for the army. The present system of physical training in the elementary schools is clearly a clumsy attempt to teach the preliminary exercises of the Infantry Drillbook. These exercises are thoroughly unsuited for children. They are wretched stuff.

(7) Atkins, J.B., *Op.cit.*, p.3.

(8) Haldane, R.B., On a Wider View of Education in National Physical Training - An Open Debate. *Ibid.*, Chap.II, p.20.

(9) Beresford, Lord C., 'Manifold Uses and Present Lack of Physical Training' in National Physical Training - An Open Debate, *Ibid.*, p.33.

(10) Macnamara, Dr., *Ibid.*, pp.36,37,38.

... It is not only thoroughly bad and unsuited to children but is part of a confessed attempt to link the schools with the Army.

Apparently Macnamara was referring to arguments put forward by national papers on the subject. The Times had recommended some system of elemental military training, including the use of the rifle, be introduced in all schools, 'in order to lay the foundations of a military spirit in the nation.'<sup>(11)</sup> Macnamara was convinced that there existed a systemised endeavour to take advantage of the prevailing mood and make the elementary schools and Board of Education part of an ante-chamber to the War Office. Military drill was thought of by many as being inflexible, formal and uninteresting, as being quite bad for boys up to 15 years, and as totally abhorrent for girls.

The culmination of facts presented by 'The Open Debate on P.E.' together with the results of other evidence from Commissions of Inquiry, led the Board of Education in 1905 to emphasise P.E. as an integral part of education in their 'Suggestions for the consideration of teachers'.<sup>(12)</sup> The Board demonstrated that it was not only thinking of the improvement of the P.E. system in schools, but also of its value in relation to the health of the people as a whole.

The passage of Education Acts of 1906 (Provision of Meals) and 1907 (Administrative Provisions Act, Section 131) gave great incentive to the development of P.E. Apart from the provision of meals in the former, the latter gave the power to provide vacation schools and classes, play centres or other means of recreation for children attending

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(11) Correspondent, The Times newspaper, February 24th 1903. Quoted by Macnamara.

(12) Board of Education, Suggestions for the Consideration of Teachers, H.M.S.O., London, 1905.

Public Elementary Schools to the Local Education Authorities. The L.E.A.'s were also obliged to undertake the medical inspection of school children and empowered to make any such arrangements as might be sanctioned by the Board for attending to the health and physical conditions of pupils. During the second International Conference of School Hygiene, held in England in 1907, Brunton pointed out that the amount and kind of exercise proper for one child could be either excessive for another or inadequate for a third. In consequence, Brunton suggested that 'only by medical inspection can physical exercise be adapted to the needs of each child.'<sup>(13)</sup> This was a reiteration of Recommendation No. 41 of the Report submitted by the Departmental Committee on Physical Deterioration, published in 1904. Recommendation No. 36 of the Report expressed the desirability of more attention to the organisation of games for school children.

The necessity of establishing a medical department at the Board of Education to fulfil the terms of the Act of 1907 resulted in the foundation of the School Medical Service in the same year, which concerned itself with the medical inspection of pupils and the formation of school clinics, to arrest the tendency to disease. P.E. became compulsory in all Elementary Training Colleges in Britain; short courses were given to acting teachers by Education Authorities and in some areas, summer vacation courses were mounted.

Development in educational thoughts and progress made in the field of P.E. necessitated the revision of the syllabus of 1905, to reflect changing views. A new syllabus was issued in 1909, and in the preface memorandum of the syllabus of the Board of Education stated:

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(13) Brunton, Second International Conference on School Hygiene, London, 1907.

... it is now generally recognised that physical health of the children lies at the root of education properly conceived. The object of every system of education worthy of that name will be the concurrent development of a sound character, an active intelligence, and a healthy physique. (14)

The Board defined the object of P.E. as 'to help in the production and maintenance of health in body and mind.'<sup>(15)</sup> The two main effects of P.E. were described as physical effect and educational effect. The syllabus provided seventy-one tables of exercises but devoted only a few paragraphs to games. It aimed at obtaining reasonable conformity to the teaching of P.E. in the elementary schools, and introduced for the first time, games and dance to the P.E. programme.

Interest was also focused during this period on improving the teaching of P.E. by establishing P.E. colleges. These were at Bournemouth, Bedford and Manchester in 1903, but the Manchester branch, formed by a Miss Thomas, was closed in 1909. There was a minimum laid down for definite training in P.E. for all students attending Elementary Training Colleges, as well as special classes, holiday classes and courses and further training for teachers desiring further instruction. In addition, there was supervision, advice and constructive criticism from expert gymnastic teachers, acting centrally as inspectors for the Board, and locally as organisers for the Education Authority. Reasonable facilities also existed, including equipment for games and gymnastic exercise.

From 1910, all students at Elementary Training Colleges, male and female, were required to include a course in P.E. as part of their

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(14) Board of Education, Syllabus of P.E. for Public Elementary Schools, H.M.S.O., London, 1909, P.V.

(15) Ibid., p.I.

programme. This encompassed personal practise in the exercises and games of the syllabus, explanation of the theory underlying the choice and arrangement of the exercises, a study of the hygiene of P.T. and instruction in the method of teaching the subject. This approach ensured that every student leaving the colleges was equipped with at least a rudimentary knowledge of physical education.

The various strategies undertaken to put P.E. firmly in the school curriculum had been evolved as the Board 'looked down upon the work of Physical Training as a national service from the point of view of education and discipline, as well as from that of physique.'<sup>(16)</sup> It has been seen that the basis for building upon a firm foundation of P.E. was established in Britain within the first decade of this century. By the end of this period the need to select P.E. exercises of the right type to suit the make-up of the individual child was established and enforced. School meals were provided to supply the fuel necessary for compulsory P.E.

Furthermore, the School Medical Services provided adequate examination by qualified medical officers, of the health problems and requirements of the pupils as well as the assessment of their capability for participating in physical activities. These factors comprised the pivot for P.E. in Britain, reached as a result of the socio-economic and political developments - pressures that exerted great influence upon the nature, scope and issues of P.E. in Britain. From this background the development of the subject during the 20th century will proceed.

A sharp contrast existed in Ghana. Even though both countries

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(16) Board of Education, Annual Report of the Chief Medical Officer for 1909, H.M.S.O., London, p.172.

were engaged in separate wars at the turn of the century - the British in the Boer War, and the Ashanti War in Ghana, the outcome revealed differing characteristics of the general health of the people in both countries. No evidence exists to support that the average Ghanaian at that time, nor recruited man, was in a similar state of degeneration to that of his British counterpart.

It has been noted that physical education as a curriculum subject in Ghana gained recognition in the late 19th century, when the Educational Rules were passed. In the Regulations of the Board of Education for 1898, drawing, industrial instruction and P.E. were included in the curriculum.<sup>(17)</sup> The Board of Education's brief to inspect schools and standardise management was an important landmark towards the effective control of education in the country. The Board made grants available for schools which met the approved government standard, and laid down regulations by which the government could give recognition and assistance to new schools.

When Governor Clifford assumed office in Ghana in 1904, there was no government owned training college. Most teachers, hitherto, had been trained at the Basel and Bremen teacher training schools. Through his efforts, a Government Training College for teachers was organised in 1909 with a staff of eight - five of whom were Europeans and three native Ghanaians. There were 89 pupils. Students qualified to enter were required to give a bond of £30 to complete the course, and to teach for five years in a government assisted school.

The Teacher Training course covered two years and included a

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(17) Gold Coast Government Rules Passed by the Board of Education and Approved by the Governor under Section 4 of the Education Ordinance 1887 (1898).

review of elementary school subjects, methods of teaching, practice teaching, woodwork, gardening and religious instruction. Though the classroom teacher was said to be effective in imparting information, it is known that the emphasis was literary in character, and that the physical sciences were neglected. In that part of the Phelps Stokes Report<sup>(18)</sup> which alludes to the Gold Coast, it was stated that the Training College's curriculum and general emphasis all tended to produce urban teachers.

A Government Technical School also opened in 1909, had six teachers, of which four were of European extraction and two Africans. Drill and physical instruction were given twice a week. Games and Sports were encouraged and supervised by the staff.<sup>(19)</sup> These new measures introduced by Governor Clifford aimed at making a definite effort to relate education to the needs of society. This approach gave the government further control over the administration of the educational programme in Ghana.

Rodger's Address to the African Society in 1909 also outlines the progress being made in the field of sports and games. Speaking of schoolboys and their interest in games, Rodger noted:

... they are also devoted to cricket, with great natural aptitude for the game ...

... I hope that within the next few years, we may have the pleasure of seeing a team of West African cricketers come to play in Great Britain, and, if they do, I feel confident that they will give a good account of themselves. (20)

This remark testifies to the enthusiasm with which the schools were responding to participation in British and European games that

(18) Phelps Stokes Report, p.132.

(19) Ibid., p.132.

(20) Rodger, Sir P.J., Gold Coast of Today, Op.cit., p.17.

had been introduced. Even though cricket has been singled out in the above description, it is known that other games - soccer, hockey, volleyball, rounders and netball - were being played in some schools, notably in the government schools. Indications are that games and sports received support and engendered enthusiasm in both government and missionary schools.

Military drill was introduced in Ghanaian schools with motives similar to those prevalent in England - in order to prepare children adequately for future military purposes, and being of a political, economic and physiological nature. Politically the need for an army to defend both British and Ghanaian interests led to the rapid establishment of military camps. An Official Report acknowledges that:

... since 1897, there has been created, for the protection of the frontiers and the preservation of internal order, a military force, the West African Frontier Force, of which regiments were, before the war, stationed in Nigeria and the Gold Coast, a battalion at Sierra Leone, and a Company in the Gambia....

... The Gold Coast shares with Gambia the record of being the part of West Africa which has the oldest British connection. From a commercial point of view it stands high among British tropical possessions. (21)

The effectiveness of the Ghanaian army was put to test during the First World War in which they fought on the side of the British, like many African countries. During the war a writer compared and contrasted the effectiveness of the Black troops with the Europeans by noting that:

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(21) The British West African Colonies and Protectorates. Handbooks Prepared under the Direction of the Historical Section of the Foreign Office. No.100, April 1919, pp.13,17.

... the black troops soon came to realize the physical disabilities of the Europeans and their vulnerability. They realised that very few Europeans were crack-shots. They noted the inferior marching capacity of the white-man, his inability to find his way about in the bush, and in some cases they even saw that the courage of the White was not greater than that of the Black. (22)

It was apparent after the First World War that the African troops had proved their strength and endurance far beyond the expectations of the Europeans. The danger they posed to opponents in the hands of any Power led to suggestions of limiting the type of military training being given in African countries. Wason proposed that it was all-important that agreements be reached among the Powers 'as to compulsory military service, and indeed the limitation of native soldiers, so that no Power should use Africa as a lever for aggressive military force.' (23)

Demand for educational expansion was considerably increased after the War. Various calls came from many quarters of society; while employers of clerks were demanding more clerical vocational training be given in schools, the employers of artisans etc. complained of the lack of knowledge shown by their boys in the use of tools, and therefore called for more industrial training. School managers called for teachers with much higher qualifications and adequate training, not only in methods and pedagogy, but also for those with the ability to comprehend such text books as would enable them to show more proficiency in the science and art of teaching. Affluent members of society meanwhile,

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(22) Hobley, G.W., Bantu Beliefs and Magic, Whitherby, London, 1922, p.287.

(23) Wason, C.J., 'The African Colonies: What is to be Their Future?', Journal of African Society, Vol.XVII, No.LXVI, January 1918, p.146.

including chiefs and rich individuals, wanted education on a par with that of the upper class English gentleman.

In order to meet these demands and criticisms a revision of the existing system was proposed. In Clifford's last year as Governor he appointed a Committee, under the presidency of the Attorney General, then acting as the Colonial Secretary, to make inquiries and offer recommendations to the Legislative Council.

By the time the Clifford Committee's Report was published in 1919, a new Governor-General, Guggisberg, had been appointed and installed in Office. He studied the Report and chose the opening session of Parliament to spell out his observations. His view of the situation was clearly underlined in his speech to the Legislative Assembly. On the whole, he was sympathetic to the main suggestions contained in the Report and supported particularly the universal demand by African members for a better and wider system of education for the people of the country.<sup>(24)</sup> Paragraph 3 of the Report showed general consensus that a higher standard of education than that of the Primary Schools was sorely needed in government departments and in the commercial and professional sections of the community.<sup>(25)</sup> Secondary Education was to be introduced, the school to be sited in Accra and be called 'The Royal College, Accra'.

The Report set out details of the required qualifications of the Principal of the College and the type of instruction to be given in the institution. The Principal had to be a University graduate, with

(24) Guggisberg, Sir G., Address to his Legislative Assembly on Education, February 1920, Accra.

(25) Clifford's Committee on Education. Report. 9th October 1919, paragraph 3.

considerable knowledge of and experience in Cambridge Local Work.

The course of instruction was divided as follows:

- (a) The First Year's Course: Schedule for work as for the Cambridge Preliminary Local Examination.
- (b) The Second Year's Course: Cambridge Junior Local Examinations.
- (c) The Third and Fourth Year's Course: Cambridge Senior Local and London Matriculation Examinations. (26)

Special classes were to be arranged for Commercial Subjects, e.g.

Shorthand, Typewriting and Book-keeping.

Hitherto the Colonial Administration had not spelled out clearly its own educational policy. The British Labour Party criticised the existing short-comings of British educational administration, observing that there was exploitation of the land and a lack of facilities for the native population. The party outlined its policy on Africa as aiming at the abolition of economic exploitation and the education of the native so that he could take his place as a freeman in both the economic and the political system then imposed upon Africa.<sup>(27)</sup> It was the objective of the Labour Party at that period, that governments of the various dependencies should be able to execute a deliberate and detailed educational scheme to carry out these aims. Their policy contained a plan for African Universities, Teacher Training Colleges and the expansion of Technical Schools.<sup>(28)</sup> These objectives were in line with the demands of the Clifford Special Committee Report.

(26) Clifford's Committee on Education, Report, 1919, paragraph 4.

(27) Labour Party, 'The Empire in Africa - Labour's Policy, London, 1920, p.3.

(28) Ibid., p.11.

Guggisberg criticised the Clifford's Committee Report on three main issues:

- (a) That the composition of the Committee was more weighted towards laymen as regards education.
- (b) That the Report did not give reasons to support recommendations that were advanced, and
- (c) That it contained no minority report.

Governor Guggisberg acknowledged the existing lamentable state of affairs in the educational system of the country, recognising too that the cause of the problem did not lie with individuals, not the Education Department and the Missionary Societies, but rather with the system itself. In order that a remedy for the prevailing evils in education could be clearly and carefully thought out, an Educationists Committee was formed to make a full report and recommendations on terms of reference underlined by the Governor. It suggested reorganisation and enlargement of the Education, more thorough training and higher pay for teachers, and many aspects of organisation and administration of the educational system to be taken into account.

Twelve major points were spelled out in Guggisberg's Education policy, including teaching, pay and position of teachers, religion, examinations, industrial work, natural history, moral training, physical and recreational training, age and sex, women teachers, education of women, and payment for education. These twelve main supports were expected to offer the foundation upon which the proposed new system would build.

Great attention was given to the role of P.E. and Recreational Training, and the government regarded these forms of training as of the highest importance, in affording an outlet for the spirit of youth and young manhood.<sup>(29)</sup> The government promised to encourage and support

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(29) Twelve Points in the Government's Education Policy. The Governor's speech to the Legislative Assembly, 1920.

the development of the subject, particularly to the formation of Youth Movements such as Boy Scouts Troops, Girl Guides etc.

Meanwhile, the Educationists Committee, which included the Director of Education as its Chairman and an Inspector of Schools as Secretary, began their sessions on March 5th and presented the Report on May 29th 1920. The Report was accepted by the Board of Education and became the main basis for implementing future educational reform.

The part of the Report dealing with Physical Training recommended two major improvements. The first requested that schools should be provided with adequate playing grounds, while the second stated that Public Authorities should be required by Government to lay out adequate playing fields for the youth of their areas. Physical Education was once more endorsed as a compulsory subject in the schools. The committee noted that though the aim of education for both sexes should be the same, yet in the field of P.E. there should be an adoption of a modified or special curriculum for all girls, other than those in the infant schools. Literary education was to remain the same for both sexes.

Furthermore, the Committee ensured that periods allocated for Games were not used for any other purpose, by directing that in Training Schools, Missions would be given facilities for holding classes or services on Saturday afternoons, outside the hours allotted to games, and twice weekly in the evenings. Active support for P.E. was expected to come from the Government, teachers and Local Authorities.

It was evident from the Committee's Report that many weaknesses plagued the existing system. Lack of qualified teachers and the colleges for training them seemed to pose the greatest headache. It was pointed out that the inadequacy of teaching staff rose from three main sources: the training at school was poor, training at college suffered from

having too brief a course and too few teachers, and that insufficient emolument and an insecure career structure made it difficult to retain teachers. Also the lack of a proper staff of Inspectors rendered the supervision of schools grossly inadequate.

On the strength of the recommendations made by the Committee, the Government embarked upon a great scheme of educational expansion which began in 1922 with the establishment of four government Boarding Trade Schools, at Kibi, Assuantsi, Yendi and Mampong. These schools, which were organised on Boy Scout principles, had European house-masters. Of these schools Governor Guggisberg said:

... As each class enters the school it becomes a troop of Boy Scouts and is divided into patrols. Each patrol lives in its own dormitory and has its own mess table. The troops and patrols are commanded by their Leaders with the object of developing initiative, responsibility, and a sense of leadership. The spirit and conduct of boy scouts is taken as the standard of character of the school. (30)

So far, all the suggestions about P.E. in schools and the military flavour of Governor Guggisberg's approach to Trade Schools were in line with prevailing thought and ideals in Britain. For instance, the Report of the Inter-Departmental Committee of Physical Deterioration of 1904 made recommendation under paragraph 47 that lads should be made to attend evening continuation classes. Drill and physical exercise took a prominent place in these classes, and, to encourage clubs and cadet corps organisations, exemption from the obligation to attend extra classes was granted to all enrolled and efficient members of such organisations as submitted to inspection and conformed to the regulations

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(30) Guggisberg, F.G., The Keystone: Education is the Keystone of Progress. Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent and Co. Ltd., London, 1924, p.38.

qualifying them for public aid.<sup>(31)</sup> In order to grapple successfully with the problem of the physical fitness of the British during this same period, Milligan suggested that, among other things, there should be:

- (a) Compulsory drill for two hours in all primary and secondary schools, public schools and Universities.
- (b) Provision by Local Authorities of open spaces and gymnasias for drill purposes and games, and
- (c) Provision of competent instructors. Male and Female.<sup>(32)</sup>

Milligan also called for Universities to provide facilities for the physical training of their undergraduates and advised that no University should grant a degree in any faculty to any student who did not possess a certificate of physical proficiency.<sup>(33)</sup>

By the end of the 19th century, the development of P.E. in Britain had reached a stage where it was generally agreed that the subject, and health education, should be introduced into training colleges with an examination on the theory and practice at the end of the course. It was also suggested that holiday courses be established and unattached P.E. teachers instructed to visit schools to give theoretical and practical instructions to other teachers.

These suggestions found expression and approval during the first two decades of this century. After the first official P.E. syllabus was established by the Board of Education in 1904, its subsequent revisions in 1905, 1909, 1919 and 1933 ensured that the subject matter

(31) Report of Interdepartmental Committee on Physical Deterioration, Some Aspects of the Committee Recommendations. No.47, 1904.

(32) Milligan, Sir W., 'The Value and Importance of Physical Exercises from a National Standpoint', Journal of State Medicine, Vol.XXVI, No.2, p.39, February 1918.

(33) Ibid., p.41.

and the methods were improved to reflect the changing trends and aspirations of the British nation. When, by an Act of Parliament in 1907, the National Health Service for school children was established, it became necessary for the Board to re-organise its provision for P.E. in schools, improvements were enhanced by the fact that national Physical Education had become an issue of open debate in Britain.<sup>(34)</sup> Thus the Board of Education found it prudent to place the subject under the jurisdiction of the newly created Medical Department.

During this period, the Board solved the immediate problems presented by issuing a general syllabus of physical exercises for children of school age, that included instruction in games, swimming, dancing, etc. Other supplementary pamphlets on special aspects of P.E. were subsequently produced. The directives of the Board of Education helped to develop a sound theory on the teaching of P.E. in English schools and offered a ready evaluatory perspective of desired goals and how they could be achieved. All these were reflecting the Board's belief that 'Physical Education, if properly conceived and employed, is one of the most powerful instruments of Preventative Medicine.'<sup>(35)</sup>

Furthermore, the medical profession had, in a series of remarks, underlined their support and accepted the importance of P.E., when, for example, Skinner<sup>(36)</sup> argued that:

(34) Atkins, J.B. (ed.) National Physical Education - an Open Debate, Isbister and Co., London, 1904.

(35) Board of Education. Annual Report, Chief Medical Officer, H.M.S.O., London, 1919, p.172.

(36) Skinner, Dr., Annual Report. Chief Medical Officer, Board of Education, H.M.S.O., London, 1919, p.172.

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(35) Board of Education. Annual Report, Chief Medical Officer, H.M.S.O., London, 1919, p.172.

(36) Skinner, Dr., Annual Report. Chief Medical Officer, Board of Education, H.M.S.O., London, 1919, p.172.

... a really good system of education must include physical education. The war has demonstrated and emphasised in no uncertain manner the necessity for a comprehensive and well organised system of P.E. People have been forced to realise the importance of physical health and strength and to acknowledge that the existence of bad health or indifferent health in any considerable portion of the nation is a serious menace to the whole nation.

The concept of P.E. in British schools after being placed with the Medical Department, became associated with general hygiene and it was considered that the two should not be separated, either in teaching or in practise. In support of this view, Butterworth argued that P.E. had embraced:

- (a) a hygienic environment, both at home and in school,
- (b) good and sufficient food,
- (c) the removal of diseased conditions, or of defects likely to interfere with the health or development,
- and
- (d) instruction in personal hygiene. (37)

Butterworth defined P.E. in its narrower sense to include exercises, dancing, games, swimming, gardening etc. The concept of P.E. was gradually undergoing some transformation.

By early 1920, through Reports, memoranda, suggestions and revised syllabuses, a firm foundation had been laid. One headmaster of a council school in Anglesey remarked that physical exercises had done more than any other subject of the curriculum, and probably more than any single agency, to make his children healthy and happy. (38)

These British ideals of P.E. greatly encouraged Governor Guggisberg

(37) Butterworth, Dr., Annual Report of the Chief Medical Officer, H.M.S.O., London, 1918, p.160.

(38) Board of Education. Annual Report of the Chief Medical Officer, H.M.S.O., London, 1924, p.123.

of Ghana to stimulate interest in the subject. His recognition of the value of Physical Exercise and games and his plea for Local Authorities to provide facilities for games were steps in the right direction, even though hitherto there had been no specialist institution to train P.E. personnel. The most important step taken was to introduce P.E. into the Teacher Training Colleges, so that all prospective teachers gained some insight into the subject.

While Governor Guggisberg was considering and prescribing remedies for the educational problems in Ghana, the Phelps-Stokes African Education Commission on its tour of Africa visited Ghana from 4th October to 4th November 1920. During its fact finding tour the Commission made very helpful remarks and suggestions about the country's educational system. The objective of the Phelps-Stokes Fund was to survey the educational conditions and opportunities among the Negroes of Africa, with a special brief to find the type or types of education best adapted to meet the needs of the natives.<sup>(39)</sup> The Commission consisted of competent educators, who criticised constructively the well-intentioned, but often misdirected educational work of some institutions in Africa. Their investigations were supported by a solid phalanx of facts, collected from many publications, which explained governmental policy in the past, and the hopes for the future.<sup>(40)</sup>

The Commission noted the type of education being given in schools in terms as those expressed below:

... one grave fault, almost everywhere apparent was that pupils were treated like empty jars to be filled with Western learning, with no sufficient consideration for

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(39) Phelps-Stokes Fund 'Education in Africa', Thomas Jesse Jones (ed.) Report, New York, 1922, p.XIII.

(40) Ibid., p.XVIII.

the immediate practical use of the learning in relation to the actual needs of the community. (41)

Morrison summed up his opinion about the existing educational system in Ghana as being:

... obsessed with the main object of imitating English elementary education of the big cities as closely as possible. It had the good points of such an idea, but still more it had the weakness of mere imitation and the limits which come from a one-sided clerical form of education unadapted to the needs of the masses of a rural and comparatively primitive people. (42)

The Phelps-Stokes Commission objected to the educational system in Ghana, as it was founded on principles and a philosophy which had outgrown their usefulness. It argued that:

... the time has passed when the old thesis can be successfully maintained that a curriculum well suited to the needs of a group on a given scale of civilisation in one country is not necessarily the best for other groups on a different level of development in another country or section. (43)

The Commission diagnosed the many problems that confronted African education and made very fruitful suggestions. A summary of their findings indicates that:

... The record of government service in Africa is a mingling of the good and the bad, the effective and the ineffective, the wise and the inverse. Despite the failures and injustices of the governments in handling the Natives, the advantages to Native life provided by the colonial governments have on the whole over-shadowed the disadvantages. (44)

The educational policies of the government and missions in Africa were described as inadequate and to a considerable extent unreal so far

(41) Ibid.

(42) Morrison, W.M., Education for Nationhood - A Study in African National Education Among the Negro Tribes of the Gold Coast. Ph.D. thesis, Hartford Seminary Institute, 1923, p.171.

(43) Phelps-Stokes Report, Op.cit., p.XXIII.

(44) Ibid., p.8.

as vital needs of the people were concerned.<sup>(45)</sup> Of the educational zeal of the missions, the Commission was of the opinion that none could question their sincerity and noble devotion, but they found that defects of the educational system had usually been due to their conception of education. Some were thinking of education merely as the imparting of information, or at most as the development of the mind without relating to the whole life of the pupil. In thus limiting education to classroom instruction by books, missionaries were following the ideals prevalent in the home country.<sup>(46)</sup>

Many of the failures of educational systems in the past were attributed by the Phelps-Stokes Commission to the lack of organisation and supervision. Governments and missions were accused of not applying to their educational work the second principle of administration as in other undertakings of importance.<sup>(47)</sup> The commonest mistake of educational development in Africa was the lack of co-operation among the three dominant groups which patronised education, namely the government, missions and commercial concerns, who worked in their respective spheres without adequate consideration for each other.<sup>(48)</sup>

Apart from praising the missions for already having begun to introduce natural and amusing games that worked a great deal of good, not only amongst the boys and girls, but also amongst the adult community of the villages,<sup>(49)</sup> little attention was given to sports and games. Whilst the Commission thought European or American recreation worthy of

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(45) Ibid., p.10.

(46) Ibid., p.10.

(47) Ibid., p.12.

(48) Ibid., p.12.

(49) Ibid., p.25.

emulation, it also advocated a careful study of the possibilities of adopting Native games, or of modifying them in such a way as to eliminate the undesirable qualities and emphasise the helpful. It emphasised the games and ceremonies of tribal life as being among the more fruitful areas of research.<sup>(50)</sup>

Referring specifically to Ghana, the Phelps-Stokes Commission commended the efforts of the government for its attempt to relate education more nearly to the needs of the people, but found that quantitatively, educational facilities were inadequate.<sup>(51)</sup> In particular, the Commission described the educational activities of the Government as 'noteworthy for their efficiency and extent, especially in comparison with those of other colonies.'<sup>(52)</sup> The statistics compiled by the Commission showed the number of schools in the country to be 216, with a total enrolment of 27,500 pupils. There were also 250 small unassisted schools, with 7,500 pupils.

As a result of the Phelps-Stokes Report and the findings of the Education Committee set up by Governor Guggisberg, plans which had been under consideration were put into action, and a government secondary school system established.

The first government secondary school, Achimota School (or the Prince of Wales College) was inaugurated in 1924. The objective in building the school was:

... to correct the mistakes which have been made in the educational system of Africa. It will take the African boy or girl at the age of six, and carry them through the

(50) Ibid., p.25.

(51) Ibid., p.121.

(52) Ibid., p.129.

kindergarten to the University courses. It will give to the African, not only professional training, but also technical courses that would teach boys and girls the dignity of labour. (53)

More succinctly put by Slater<sup>(54)</sup> Achimota school aimed 'at giving a really first-class education to the boys and girls comparable to the standard of an English public school.'

The institution included a school and a college. The school consisted of a kindergarten and a lower primary school for girls. The college comprised a boys' upper primary school, a secondary school and a university college for advanced education. The existing Training College for teachers was incorporated into the school. Achimota became the responsibility of a separate department of government.

Achimota inherited the traditions of the best British educational system. In the School, the English 'house' system was installed, forming the basis of competitive sports and games. In the preparatory, primary and middle school, the 'section' system, red, green, blue and gold, was used. The pattern of a sports afternoon, or two period of games on one afternoon, when the whole school would participate in 'inter-class' or 'inter-house' matches, was also copied from the British.

The influence of Achimota on the development of P.E. was phenomenal. Not only did the copious facilities, including gymnasias, swimming pool and countless playing fields and athletic ovals serve to show a British model institution at its best, but the interest that teachers showed in P.E. generally encouraged the students and younger pupils to cultivate all the virtues of sport and games. At its initial stages, over ninety

(53) Achimota College Report, 1926-1927, Government Printer, Accra, 1927.

(54) Slater, Sir R., 'The Gold Coast of Today', Journal of African Society, Vol.XXVII, No.CVIII, July 1928, p.325.

per cent of the staff were foreigners, most being British, with a large contingent of Oxbridge graduates. Such teachers carried over the unique British traditions of athleticism of the previous century into Ghanaian schools. Enthusiasm for sports and games was further strengthened by the establishment of the Cadet Corps, Boy Scouts, Girl Guides and the Red Cross movements in the school. These youth movements were daily observable in reputable British institutions and aimed at inculcating morals, discipline and patriotism. They all used sport and games as a medium for promoting the values expressed. In particular, the Cadet Corps was an obvious attempt to generate interest in the armed forces as a future career. Such students who showed devoted interest in the Corps were sent to Army Officers' training courses at Sandhurst in England.

Many criteria distinguished Achimota from other institutions in Ghana. Firstly it possessed superior buildings, extensive playing fields and many excellent sporting facilities. Secondly, it was staffed almost entirely by the cream of the British Colonial Civil Servants, predominantly Oxbridge graduates. Furthermore, the 'house' system, internal structure and ethos were typical of the English public schools. Its entry requirements were more vigorous and extremely competitive, and the school charged higher fees than the later secondary institutions.

To date, Achimota and most of the early secondary schools that were established in Ghana play games such as cricket and lawn tennis, which have long been classified in the country as 'gentlemen's games', reserved for the aristocrats. Equipment for many sporting activities was happily brought in by European teachers and headmasters on their return from annual leave in Britain. Such interest and love displayed in the model school in Ghana laid an envious and indeed unshakable foundation for P.E. in schools, which developed immensely in the years that

followed.

It must be pointed out that despite conscientious attempts to make Achimota a model British school in Ghana, efforts were made to inculcate Ghanaian culture. For instance, there was a programme of tribal drumming and dancing at weekends. During such time, students of various ethnic origin participated, and it was greatly enjoyed by all. This arrangement reflected partly the provision in the 1919 syllabus, which stated that dance, if properly taught, is one of the most useful means of promoting a graceful carriage with free easy movement.<sup>(55)</sup> In promoting cultural and tribal activities, the authorities were in agreement with Chapman, in that dance shares the same medium as activities like games, athletics and swimming, requiring a similar practical mastery of the body.<sup>(56)</sup> By encouraging tribal and cultural activities in the school curriculum, Achimota was demonstrating the harmony that is illustrated by its school emblem - UT UNUM SUNT - In order that all may be one. The black and white keys of the piano, which constitutes the school's crest, exemplified the need to recognise indigenous and foreign activities in their general contribution to the development of the student. The fact that this tradition persisted throughout the colonial period shows that the administration was aware of the necessity to adapt aspects of education to cultural needs. The seed of a growing cultural pride and identity were sown in a leading institution.

The popularity of drumming and dance figured prominently in most secondary boarding schools later established. Film shows and variety entertainments that were a regular Saturday night activity were interspersed with cultural activities and drumming in boarding schools.

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(55) Syllabus for Physical Training for Schools, H.M.S.O., London, 1919.

(56) Chapman, O.M., 'Dance as an Aspect of P.E.', Movement Studies and Physical Education, Kane, J.E. (ed.), R.K.P., London, 1977, p.171.

It became customary in such schools to mount gymnastic displays for an Open Day and also demonstrate some traditional cultural activity. By so doing, Ghanaians were reconciled to the type of P.E. programme being transmitted in schools. Each type of activity seemed to promote special virtues, and was unique in its own right. Furthermore, in the realm of physical education and sporting activities, what counted most was the degree of enjoyment shown by the participant. The writer found no evidence to suppose that these activities were not popular with children.

Another significant event that enhanced development of P.E. in Ghana was the introduction of 'Empire Day' celebrations. The Empire Day Movement was formed in England during the 19th century as a result of an article written by the Earl of Meath<sup>(57)</sup> entitled 'Reasonable Patriotism'. A similar article had been written and published earlier on the same topic.<sup>(58)</sup> In both articles it was proposed that children should be taught to respect their country through gaining knowledge of its great achievements and should express that respect in a variety of ways. Hence the Empire Day celebration was advocated to celebrate the fiftieth birthday of Queen Victoria (on 24th May) and by 1902 some countries had adopted the proposal. England recognised it in 1916, after which time Empire Day became an important celebration in many British Colonial Territories. The celebrations included sports meetings and games of an elaborate nature. In Ghana, schools and colleges played a vital part in these celebrations.

Empire Day was regarded as the biggest celebration in the school

(57) Earl of Meath, 'Reasonable Patriotism', Nineteenth Century, Vol.39, 1896.

(58) Deprecators of the Nation, Fortnightly Review, Vol.61, New Series, 1887.

calendar. In consequence, painstaking preparations including competitive sports, games, bonfires, parties and other activities were organised. All the dignatories of Ghana, including the chiefs, civil servants, commissioners and the Governor, took an active part in its celebration.

On the morning of 24th May, schools in different localities in the country marched from their establishments to an officially determined and prepared public park. They were joined by the local chiefs and government representatives to salute the Union Jack. The Governor, the District Commissioner, the Government agent or his representative took the salute. Afterwards the Queen's (and later the King's) Message was read to the gathering by whoever had taken the salute. A march through the principal streets followed, in each town or village, to the accompaniment of school bands and traditional drums and music. During the afternoon, sporting activities of diverse forms were held at different centres, at which competitive sport, particularly athletic events were held amongst schools, with some open events for the spectators. Since enjoyment was the keynote of the celebrations, sporting activities were often fraught with fun events, such as: the potato race, sack-race, three-legged races, the egg and spoon race, threading the needle, tug-of-war, etc. These activities were for children of all grades. In addition, netball, rounders, soccer, volleyball, hockey, cricket and other games were played between schools, clubs and establishments.

As a reward for participating in the celebration, each child attending school received a commemorative cup, badge and flag. Additional prizes were presented to winners of games. Most of the prizes were of school materials, pens, pencils, books and so on. Sweets of all types were also given to the infant pupils. The local people enjoyed themselves in activities akin to their area of habitation, e.g.

boat racing, swimming and wrestling competitions among those living along the coast, whilst those in the northern part participated in horsemanship and different cultural activities.

The celebration was brought to an end with tea parties for the children, and bonfires and fireworks at night. The next day was always declared a holiday for the school children. On the whole, the period of celebration was always coloured by an admixture of foreign and traditional cultural activities. Participants, particularly the Europeans, found expression in popular games and activities. Unrestricted in any way, people expressed their cultural heritage during this period. It was customary for the young children to watch with great admiration the exhibition of many cultures. Direct and indirect imitation of different cultures made the celebration very unique in promoting understanding among the various ethnic groups that made up Ghana.

The curtailment of Empire Day celebrations in Ghanaian schools after Independence came as a blow to many pupils, who looked to the occasion as a momentous period in their school programme. Research conducted in schools by Jahoda<sup>(59)</sup> concerning changes brought to Ghana by contact with Europeans reveals many interesting facts. With regard to Empire Day, he noted:

... most boys admitted that they greatly enjoyed Empire Day and regretted its disappearance. The children were happy about the celebrations because of the tea parties, prizes and cups for sports.

As far as participation in leisure activities was involved, Jahoda stated that 'many boys were pleased with the development of sports,

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(59) Jahoda, G., Urban Adolescent's Views on 'Social Changes in the Gold Coast', p.69, pp.51-72. W.A.I.S.E.R. (West African Institute of Scientific and Educational Research, March 1953.

especially athletics and boxing in the Gold Coast.<sup>(60)</sup> It is very likely that memories of the Empire Day Celebrations are still cherished by older citizens who enjoyed and participated in the events.

After the establishment of Achimota College, Governor Guggisberg, himself an ardent sportsman, saw the inauguration of the first inter-schools and colleges Athletic Competitions in 1926. This meeting was held under his patronage. The following year saw sports enthusiasts, Ribeiro and his friends, donating a shield, in remembrance of the late Kwegyir Aggrey,<sup>(61)</sup> to the school and colleges Athletic Association. The Aggrey Shield, as it is known, set the pace for fierce competition in Athletics throughout most schools and colleges.

The expansion of education began in 1922 with the inauguration of four government Junior Trade Schools, which were situated at Kibi, Assuantsi, Mampong and Yendi. These were organised on Boy Scout principles, offering skills training in carpentry, metal work etc. to boys who had passed at least Standard 4 in primary school.

The Boy Scout Movement, founded in Britain in 1910, was received with zeal and enthusiasm. When Guggisberg made a firm commitment to transplant the movement into Ghana, it was already firmly established in Britain. One of the reasons for its success was its method of training and discipline. Apart from adhering to many military principles, the Scout Movement took a very keen interest in various sports and games. Official Reports of this period confirm:

... Games, especially Association football continue to increase in popularity. Hockey is played regularly at some

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(60) Ibid., p.70.

(61) Aggrey Kwegyir - A Ghanaian educationist who was a member of the Phelps-Stokes Commission on African Education.

of the schools, but cricket is not so popular, possibly on account of the expense of maintaining the necessary equipment; it is however encouraged in all Government schools. The Junior Trade School at Kibi plays Rugby and football with enthusiasm and considerable success. (62)

This was the first Report of a school playing Rugby football. Indications are that adequate support was lacking in many of the institutions. The public showed little or no interest and eventually the sport 'died' a natural death. Even in Achimota, where many types of games were played, Rugby football did not command the lasting appeal that other sports, such as cricket and hockey enjoyed.

As an index to the nature of Ghanaian attitude, showing that acceptance of foreign games was not without due consideration of their appeal, and in support of the view that even though Ghanaians easily adopted British practises, those that remained after Independence were the only ones that had meaning for and appreciation of the public. This could as well be the situation for some of the traditional cultural activities given up after initial contact with the European settlers.

In any case P.E. in Ghana post 1930 continued to closely follow the traditions and principles of the British, though the 1920's had seen the transition, mainly due to Guggisberg's personal love of sports, and enthusiasm for P.E. which, coupled with his government's indefatigable determination to accord the subject official recognition, was sufficient to change the subject from mere drill to a wider ranging concept, one of the more important subjects on the curriculum.

The subject began to attract public recognition, even though the values and objectives were little understood. Apart from support given

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(62) Colonial Reports - Annual. No.1464. Gold Coast Report for 1928-29. H.M.S.O., London, 1929, p.37.

by local authorities in providing playing fields for their schools, the lack of qualified teachers to teach P.E. reduced the popularity and indeed the genuine benefits it brought.

Changes in the thought behind the teaching of P.E. revived waning interest in the 1930's. A new syllabus of P.E. was produced in 1933, and soon after its publication, the Board of Education in Ghana accepted it as the official syllabus for all Ghanaian schools.

Economically, Ghana's development for the first thirty years of the century was one of rapid growth. Of the agricultural exports, the cocoa industry was the most important. The country was producing one third of all cocoa output in the world. The following figures show the extent of growth and development in the industry:

Cocoa Development in Ghana 1900-1930

<u>Years</u>	<u>Five Year Average Per Ton</u>
1901-1905	3,172
1906-1910	14,784
1911-1915	51,819
1916-1920	106,072
1921-1925	186,329
1926-1930	218,895

The boom in the cocoa industry meant increased revenue for the country, thus the money was available to improve development in progress, particularly that of education. It was the economy alone that had improved by this period. Slater<sup>(63)</sup> argued that to describe West Africa

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(63) Slater, Sir R., 'The Gold Coast of Today', Journal of African Society, Vol.XXVII, No.CVIII, July 1928, p.323.

as the 'Whiteman's Grave' in the 1920's was 'a grievous travesty of fact' because literally hundreds and thousands of white officials, traders and missionaries could and were living useful, happy and generally healthy lives.

Many improvements were taking place in the field of sports and games, the formation of amateur sporting Clubs, started in the 1920's, received greater support in the 1930's, when the economy was flourishing. Soccer, hockey, cricket, lawn tennis and athletics were the only main organised sports at the time. Large numbers of followers, from all walks of life, were participating in the clubs.

The introduction of the 1933 syllabus<sup>(64)</sup> opened a new chapter in the history of the development of P.E. both in Britain and in Ghana. It was a major revision of the previous 1919 syllabus, to ensure justification of the general methods, and that the exercises described in that syllabus were in harmony with the experience gained during the previous ten to twelve years, and with the accepted changes in thought and practise which had taken place in P.E. generally and with modern orthopaedic teaching.<sup>(65)</sup>

P.E. in Britain from 1933 had to face up to the residue inherent in an evolving culture, such as lower levels of fitness, obesity, nervous tensions, degenerative diseases, and other social evils associated with the industrially and technologically developed countries. P.E. seemed to be the only panacea needed to wrestle with the dilemma. Among the list of prevailing trends which gave rise to demands for greater care, and need for health in the 1933 syllabus, were pressures

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(64) Board of Education, Syllabus of Physical Training, H.M.S.O., London, 1933.

(65) Syllabus for P.E., 1933, Ibid., preamble of Chapter 1.

of socio-economic factors and 'civilisation'. These influences were seen as hampering the 'opportunities for natural physical growth.'<sup>(66)</sup> It was therefore necessary that children and young people should receive physical training, by well considered methods, devised in a broad and catholic spirit to promote and encourage the health and development of the mind and body.<sup>(67)</sup>

The period after 1933 could also be termed as a time of fitness, for the biological need for exercise was widely recognised as being indispensable for the survival of man. 'Fitness' became the catchword. Historically, fitness assumes a place of importance during times of war and political crises, and this epoch was no exception.

Also contained in the syllabus was the notion that any worthwhile P.E. teaching must be based on sound principles and method, in order that its full benefits could be realised. Before the revision there had grown an expert knowledge of P.E., especially among teachers who had used the previous syllabus. Britain had established a firm foundation in the subject and had competent P.E. organisers appointed by Local Authorities to assist development.

Many features of the 1933 syllabus were commendable. It reorganised the schools into junior and senior classes; the former for children under eleven years and the latter for those above that age. The exercises were introduced with a view to the elimination of faults of posture and carriage in school children. A large number of simple games were described, intended to lead up to the more advanced field of games. While the programme of lessons and tables perpetuated a

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(66) P.T. Syllabus, 1933, Ibid., p.9.

(67) Ibid.

somewhat formal gymnastic pattern of work, the inclusion of activity exercises ensured forceful and vigorous movement in every lesson.

In criticism, the 1933 syllabus over-emphasised the importance of posture, by stating that the maintenance of good posture was one of the primary objects of physical training. Teachers were not considered successful in their practise unless their pupils could assume good bodily positions naturally and as a matter of course, without evidence of strain, or stiffness. The syllabus was so elaborate in the method it set out that it was regarded as a comprehensive handbook of P.E.

Some of the objectives that necessitated the formulation of the 1933 syllabus were not directly relevant to Ghana, but it was accepted and used nonetheless, the reasons not being hard to find. Ghanaians of the period were over-anxious to imitate the British system of education, and they were in no position to assess either the relevance or validity of the contents themselves.

Unlike agriculture and other manual work which was abhorred, the type of P.E. recommended was a novelty in comparison to the more usual recreational activities, thus the appeal to the native Ghanaians was a matter of course.

There were, likewise, no major barriers to the performance of the exercises and games recommended. The main difficulty was in understanding the foreign concepts presented, which were unfamiliar to teachers in a tropical country. The problems caused by limited professional guidance and the lack of equipment and facilities were more immediate.

A teacher of European origin described how:

... When I first went out to the Gold Coast in 1936, all schools had been given the 1933 Board of Education Syllabus, but few if any of the teachers understood it, so all were working on the old 'army' type of drill. By this method the teachers barked out their commands and the little boys jumped to attention, shot out their arms and back again, bent

their trunks forward and backwards to numbers and when it was all over, breathed a sigh of relief as hundreds of little khaki clad figures marched, with high arm swinging, back to the classrooms. (68)

In Britain, owing to the climatic conditions, P.E. could not be taken out-of-doors throughout the year. Consequently, gymnasias had to be built to cater for most of the activities of the P.E. lesson. Ghana had the type of climate enabling outside activity most of the time, and with the exception of Achimota, gymnasias were not included in any of the facilities for schools and colleges. This meant that the exercises were almost always performed under the tropical sun. They were held in playing fields that were often overgrown, and had to be cleared and maintained by the children. The nature of the undergrowth often made it undesirable to ask the children to lie on the grass in order to perform certain activities. The absence of facilities such as mats and mattresses meant that if the teacher was determined to follow the exercises precisely, great discomfort would be experienced by pupils when in contact with the native vegetation, which in many cases was not merely harmless grasses. (69)

The schools did not have sufficient washing facilities, certainly no showers, to cater for the pupils after P.E. or games lessons. Children who had perspired freely as a result of their exertions under the tropical sun often had to change immediately afterwards into their school uniforms, with the obvious problems of hygiene resulting.

Having said that, it must be acknowledged that even though the government was expecting teachers to use the 1933 syllabus judiciously, many teachers did not adhere to it. Lack of P.E. organisers and

(68) Blackwood, M.W., 'Physical Education in the Gold Coast', Journal of Physical Education, 1953, pp.61-62.

(69) In Ghana there are many native grasses which cause skin disorders when, even if briefly, they contact bare flesh.

supervisors made it almost impossible to check, and in the initial adoption it became more of a 'white elephant'. As Blackwood reported, despite the inclusion of physical education in the curriculum of Ghanaian schools for many years, 'there had been no Education Department Organiser or Inspector'. Boys games and athletics had been coached and encouraged by schoolmasters, Missionaries, government officials, District Commissioners, and Education Officers as well, playing an important part.<sup>(70)</sup> Whilst a teacher could not use the syllabus as it was meant to be applied, he could not abandon it entirely. The games section held great appeal for teachers and pupils alike, and as some of the games involved mass participation and required less equipment, it was not uncommon for a teacher to use the period mainly for games, rather than a balanced series of exercises.

The quality of teachers in Britain at this time was being improved, with new professional programmes for training P.E. teachers being implemented, whereas Ghana drew all her teachers from the classroom staff. The problem was that there were more untrained teachers than trained. Even those who received some attention in their training course had problems of interpretation and in understanding some of the exercises in the syllabus. The problem posed by the use of foreign textbooks has been highlighted by Ormsby:

... Teachers trained in England find, when using books and ideas easy and familiar at home, that the whole mental background of native pupils is so different that they become useless. (71)

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(70) Blackwood, M.W., 'P.E. in the Gold Coast', Ibid., p.61

(71) Ormsby, Sir, Op.cit.

This problem did not affect those teachers of foreign extraction only, but also the native teachers who used foreign textbooks.

This made the position of pupil teachers worse. Colleges like Carnegie and Loughborough, which were established in the 1930's, contributed significantly to the solving of perennial shortages in P.E. personnel in England. No-one in Ghana considered that specialist training in the subject was perhaps overdue, and so P.E. plodded on like an orphan in need of parental care. Those teachers who were keen gave of their best in the circumstances, whilst those who were confused made do with games instruction, or any other convenient substitute, i.e. weeding the playground, working in the school garden, or even running several times round the school building or playing fields.

The main values and objectives not being understood, neither the teacher nor pupil was convinced of its value to themselves or of its usefulness in general. This when living in a daily environment that required the performance of a wide spectrum of physical activities in order to survive, a little like sending a pig to a mudbath and keeping him there, never allowing him the delights of dry land.

Though there was evidence of growth and development in Ghana, the problems of over-crowding and sedentary work were not as yet made manifest. On the other hand, the effect of social conditions in Britain during the late thirties compelled the Board of Education there to take further measures to improve child health at school. The Board issued Circular 1445, in January 1936, as statement of their views of policy to be pursued regarding all aspects of P.E. The circular was designed to assist Authorities and others in the preparation of a comprehensive plan of development. The latter part of the decade saw the initiation of further government plans for encouraging recreational and physical activities among those who had left school. The Circular 1445

emphasised four main essentials:

- (a) the need for better accommodation for P.E. and games in schools,
- (b) the need for an adequate allotment of time to physical activities in the curriculum.
- (c) the need for teachers trained in modern educational gymnastics, and
- (d) the need for utilizing the service of men and women Organisers in the areas of all Local Educational Authorities.

After the publication of the Circular 1445, it became a principle for new senior schools to be built with gymnasias, changing rooms and showers, and more attention was given to providing plenty of playground and playing field facilities. As a general rule, in the elementary schools, time was found each day for some kind of physical activity. In many training colleges, advanced courses in educational gymnastics were established, and the facilities for a year's specialised P.E., which for men had hitherto been available only at the Carnegie P.E. College in Leeds, were extended by the institution of a similar course at Loughborough College.

The provision of adequate facilities for P.E. and recreation for persons over school age was greatly enhanced in February 1937 in a White Paper on P.T. and Recreation (Cmd. 5364) and in the subsequent Act. The aim of the government's scheme was to create a new way of life and attitude of mind, involving recognition by people of all ages of the great benefits - mental, moral and physical - which accrued from a fit and healthy body.<sup>(72)</sup> The Act further extended the powers of the L.E.A.'s

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(72) Board of Education, Report of the Chief Medical Officer, H.M.S.O., 1937, p.41.

where necessary. With great urgency, Britain accelerated the development of physical education in the late thirties. A National Advisory Council for P.E. and Recreation was set up, to serve as the central advisory body on all matters concerning P.E. Recognition of the importance of the medical aspects of physical exercises and recreation was seen in the provision for the appointment of a medical expert to the Staff of the Council. One of the main functions of the Council was the co-ordination and guidance of the work of the L.E.A.'s and voluntary organisations concerned with promoting physical well-being. With this in view, arrangements were made to set up twenty-two Area Committees, throughout the country.

The duties of these committees included surveying their areas to determine what provision for physical education existed, and means of supplementing it. They also acted as channels through which applications for capital grants were made to the University Grants Committee. An amount of two million pounds was allocated for the development of opportunity for physical recreation within a three year period.

The White Paper (Cmd. 5364) also foreshadowed the establishment of a National College of Physical Training, with the function to assist in helping make good the deficiency of teachers and leaders in this field. It was also contemplated that the college would investigate some of the many outstanding problems connected with the physiology of P.E. Thus it can be seen that P.E. in England during this period was greatly stimulated by public and government debate, conferences and many

critical articles appearing in various publications.<sup>(73)</sup>

It can now be understood how P.E. in Britain grew from strength to strength during the thirties. Apart from the 1933 syllabus, none of the measures described were implemented, or even suggested for consideration, in Ghanaian schools. P.E. in both countries was to enter another phase following the Second World War.

The period from 1945 to 1957 saw new developments in Ghana, during which time the teaching of P.E. was boosted by the organisation of several Refresher Courses. After the War, the concept of remedial-therapeutic justification for P.E. began to change. Continued pressure by the Ministry of Education in Britain resulted in the publication of Circular No. 51, dated 15th June 1945, which approved provision of facilities for recreation and social and physical education. This Circular, by implication, gave further recognition to the importance of recreation and social development in the school curriculum.

Different attitudes and methods of P.E. were developed, and schools started to imitate the apparatus used for commando and combat training, by members of the armed forces - logs, ropes, climbing frames etc. Climbing, hanging and swinging on these pieces of apparatus helped increase the strength of the children. A new enthusiasm in movement studies was also being generated by Rudolf Laban and had a profound

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(73) For example refer to:

- (a) Fitness in Other Countries, Times Magazine, Feb. 12th 1937.
- (b) Whipple, A.H., The Government's Physical Training Proposals, Education, May 14th 1937, p.616.
- (c) Commons Debate on Physical Training, Schoolmaster, Feb. 11th 1937, p.255.
- (d) National Physique, Physical and General Education, School Guardian, March 20th 1937, pp.93,94.
- (e) Physical Education, School Guardian, Vol.62, No.2, 1937, p.69.
- (f) Physical Education. Need of Trained Teachers. Conference at Montague House, Whitehall, 1937.

influence on P.E., particularly in Britain. Laban drew attention to elements and principles of movement which were of value in a classifying sense, and expediently allied to the then current educational theories. This new approach presented itself as material for another methodology for teaching P.E. at all levels. By this method physical education changed from being subject centred to being a child centred activity, and dance formed an integral part of gymnastics. Interest in Laban's work generated the opening in 1946 of the Art of Movement Studio in Manchester, which heralded the introduction of modern dance to schools in England, later to find expression in some Ghanaian schools. Even though dance had been taught previously in British schools, the formal opening of the studio at Manchester gave the first systematic course of training.

The support of the Ministry of Education lay in the provision of grants to students attending the Studio, from 1949 onwards. This was after the formation of the Laban Art Movement Guild in 1947. What made Laban's theory of movement more appealing was the freedom of expression advocated, as opposed to the former regimented and more formal approach.

Ghana was unable to take full advantage of Laban's new concepts, as teachers with the required expertise were unavailable. Refresher Courses for teachers were being run by the Ministry of Education in Ghana, however, to introduce the new approach. One of the courses involved twenty male teachers, another sixty male and female. There was a series of weekend lectures presented and so on. In addition two or three individual teachers attended P.E. classes at Achimota for a month. (74)

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(74) Blackwood, M.W., 'P.E. in the Gold Coast', Journal of Physical Education, 1952, p.64.

Blackwood has confirmed that 'during the War there were many good practise games and matches between the Army (both British and African officers and men) and the school boys and students.'<sup>(75)</sup> Many of the playing fields could not be used during the war, as trenches were dug in them. This made P.E. outdoors often difficult and sometimes impossible. Interest in P.T. revived when the trenches were no longer needed and filled in. Agility exercises and games were again possible with the addition of a plentiful supply of bean bags and skipping ropes.<sup>(76)</sup>

The account given by Blackwood indicates the difficulties faced in teaching because of the 'tight starched dresses which they were sometimes unwilling to soil or crease.'<sup>(77)</sup> War shortages baulked the growing desire for convenient P.T. dress, as materials became too scarce or too expensive. In consequence smaller children frequently worked in their knickers, whilst vest and knickers were an unpopular costume for the older girls.

Towards the end of the forties, 'the seargeant major attitude had changed to a friendly one' in the teaching of P.E. in Ghanaian schools. Despite the change in method, however, the name of the subject remained the same, though in the parent country it had been discarded in favour of P.E.

In keeping with the innovations the official publication of the Ministry of Education's 'Moving and Growing' in 1952 became a new-look syllabus.<sup>(78)</sup> It was an illustrated text, describing factors which

(75) Blackwood, M.W., Ibid., p.61.

(76) Ibid., p.64.

(77) Ibid., p.64.

(78) Ministry of Education, 'Moving and Growing', 1952.

affect movement, the main characteristics of movement lessons, and offering guidance to teachers. This was followed by 'Planning the Programme', Part II, which gave more detailed help to teachers in the selection of movement.

By the mid-fifties, a rather more dynamic, self-discovery and expression, recreative social phenomenon had changed the concept of P.E. in Britain. In Ghana, owing to lack of gymnasia and other facilities in the schools it was not possible to utilize this impulse. The two new syllabuses were in due course introduced into the country, and attempts were made wherever possible to put the new concept into action.

First steps taken by the Ghanaian Ministry of Education were in asking schools to provide mats for use in those exercises involving children lying on the ground. Elementary schools were requested to provide basins with water, so that the children could use their own towels to rub down after P.E.; furthermore, teachers were advised not to allow children without P.E. clothing to participate in the lesson. Parents were to be asked to provide the child with the necessary attire, for reasons of hygiene. Finally, the Ministry ruled that everyone attending Elementary school must have a kit-bag for P.E. lessons, to contain simple items, such as a bat, ball, bean-bag and skipping rope. It was a move designed to cut down school expenditure, but did have the advantage of helping and encouraging children to develop their skills with these materials whenever they chose to.

The increased emphasis on recreation and social development as the scope of P.E. activities broadened, was clearly observable post 1950. While Britain was providing more gymnasia and swimming baths, Ghanaians turned their attention mainly to the different ways of improvising equipment and apparatus, which, for lack of adequate finance, were impossible to import. Some P.E. lessons as well as craft periods were

used for that purpose.

Before Ghana gained Independence P.E. in the country had passed through many changes. The early traditional diverse methods of physical activity, involving drumming and dancing, ceremonial, hunting skills and indigenous games, had virtually vanished. Ghanaians had discarded most of the pre-colonial life-styles in preference to modern approaches; for instance, in agriculture, emphasis shifted from pastoral-nomadic life to one of agricultural economics, from subsistence to cash crops and from single crop to diversified agro-industrial approaches.

In P.E. the shift was from a regimented military approach to less formal and traditional gymnastics, from physical training with the teacher as instructor and distributor of knowledge to self-centred, exploratory free movement.

Thus emphasis in Education generally had moved from a systems approach to an action approach, from traditional to modern. P.E. had come to include a gamut of physical activities involving all forms of physical movement. The subject matter became boundless, much as in the same way its identity became diffused, and the nature of P.E. became a focus of much heated discussion.

In its growth towards professional maturity both in Britain and Ghana, the field of P.E. was influenced by a continued synthesis of beliefs as well as by challenging established plans and methods, together with ongoing re-planning and re-structuring of value hierarchies. The P.E. course inherited from the British was not designed by man alone, but shaped by factors seemingly beyond the control of man. Social and economic factors seem to have played a more prominent part in determining its route, especially in Ghana. These influences together with the fundamental problems of human movement and action have rendered the domain of P.E. centrifugal rather than centripetal.

In the circumstances, it is not surprising that at the time of Independence, the real value and importance of P.E. in the school curriculum was neither properly known nor understood in Ghana. The Schools Council Report<sup>(79)</sup> was evidence of empirical revelation of the divergent values and range of objectives in P.E. Apart from the agonising pain researchers had to endure in order to reach an agreeable consensus on nine objectives from an incalculable number to be found from the review of relevant literature, the respondents also:

... offered sixty-one suggestions regarding other objectives which might have been included in some form or another. (80)

The enquiry into the teachers' perceptions of the outcome of P.E. made it clear that the expanding objectives of the subject far exceeded the previous provision of exercises, planned specifically to promote health development and the acquisition of motor skills.

It is not difficult to conclude that, by the time Ghana took control of her own destiny, as a self-governing nation, the history of P.E. had been punctuated by interesting examples of outcomes and beliefs. The variability in beliefs and values in and through time has stimulated questions about the existing diversity in programmes and also in the assessment of professional issues.

With all the problems and possibilities inherent in P.E. at that time, the British relinquished control over Ghana in this and every other policy issue, on the 6th of March 1957, the day of Independence.

An example of British impact during colonial rule was made manifest when the Duchess of Kent opened the first Parliament for the

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(79) The Schools Council Report, 'Physical Education in Secondary Schools', Kane (ed.) Schools Council Research Studies, London, 1974.

(80) Ibid.

country. A correspondent of The Times wrote:

... the ceremonial followed very closely the traditional English form, and so well has Ghana assimilated it that it seems entirely appropriate. (81)

This was a fitting testimony of that which Britain had been able to impart and which Ghanaians had accepted.

It has been seen that education in Ghana from the period of European contact to the end of 1957 had shown remarkable similarities with that of Britain. From the beginning, economic and social factors ascertained who received its benefits. Class distinction was the hallmark of British education, just as in Ghana, it was reserved during the early stages for the sons and daughters of the Colonial administrators and of the chiefs.

The graduates of British Universities of repute were brought to Ghana as administrators, civil servants and teachers. Their traditions were passed on to Ghana, without much cognizance of local customs, traditions and aspirations. The period from 1900 to the end of the Second World War saw many developments both in education as a whole and in physical education. Various attempts were made to adapt the educational system to the needs of the native peoples, but in P.E. British traditions took stronger hold and gained greater popularity as time passed. Not only were the existing syllabuses in the subject applied in Ghanaian schools but definite attempts were also made to ensure that they were religiously followed. The traditional English games, such as soccer, cricket, rugby, hockey, tennis and athletics, were encouraged in all schools, and clubs were formed both by schools and public organisations for competition in these activities. Whilst

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(81) A Correspondent: 'Ghana - A Commonwealth Dominion', The Times, Thursday 7th March 1957, Col.I, p.8.

a game like soccer developed to the point of becoming a recognised national game, rugby did not enjoy the same popularity, and ceased to be played within a few years of introduction.

At this time P.E. was becoming tremendously popular in Britain as an answer to some of the political, social and health problems that beset the nation. Various legislations, Ministry Regulations and Acts of Parliament made sure that the subject was not only taught proficiently, but that the infrastructure for teaching was also soundly based. In consequence, great care was taken to train qualified personnel to teach it, in addition to making painstaking efforts to increase the existing facilities. Documents to explain the subject and instruct the method of teaching were published and Refresher Courses of varying duration and depth were organised to assist both teachers in schools and those engaged in work with the public.

Ghanaian P.E. did not attract the attention and concern so noticeable in Britain. The main reason for this may have been the lesser effects experienced in Ghana of the industrialisation process, thus similar effort to that which obtained in Britain was felt to be unwarranted. In any developing country where the available resources are under pressure from competing developments equally beneficial, as in Ghana, it is not surprising that so little attention was paid to the promotion of P.E., especially so when physical strength and prowess were considered to be more a natural gift than an acquired skill.

There was consequently greater preference for literary learning, and the growing economy, with subsequent prestige attached to 'white collar' employment, made it desirable, if not lucrative, to send children to school. Education became not only a status symbol, but an economic necessity. Classical education became rapidly sought after, traditional physical activities were correspondingly gradually discarded for modern

games, some of which, notably golf, cricket and lawn tennis, carried extra status. Physical Education and Sports became integral parts of the school curriculum, and were organised from primary school level to secondary and Training Colleges.

The Second World War brought a temporary halt to progress in Education generally. In P.E. particular, trenches in the fields made it impossible for Ghanaians to use the only area available for teaching the subject. Whilst indoor facilities provided a suitable alternative for the British, Ghanaians were content to perform those activities that limited space would permit. Military drill fulfilled the conditions, and it was duly perpetuated even when efforts had been made in England to usher in new methods and concepts of P.E.

The advent of the War brought a new surge of political consciousness to the Ghanaian people - a feeling of emancipation. The birth of the spirit of liberalism that accompanied those Ghanaian forces taking part in the War caused frustrations which precipitated relentless demand for self-government. Public disturbances and uprisings following these developments paved the way for the Independence movement, spearheaded by Kwame Nkrumah.

The main problem facing the evolution of P.E. during the Colonial period concerned methods of teaching. Obviously a good idea in the hands of an unqualified tutor could cause lasting havoc or disaster to others. In the same way, the manner in which sport and games are introduced and the competence of those who teach or coach determines to a large extent how interest in sports participation is motivated. It is in this sphere that P.E. in Ghana has suffered its greatest blows and setbacks. Evidence adduced from this study seem to support the view that, whereas competent qualified teachers were, at the early stages, appointed to teach most of the subjects in the Ghanaian schools,

early P.E. teachers were mostly retired army officers who were assigned for colonial duties. Not all schools had P.E. teachers.

Furthermore, the reasons for introducing drill in Britain during the 19th century were radically different from those applicable to Ghana. Whereas in Britain the system was primarily introduced to combat ill-health, malnutrition and to produce efficient recruits for the armed forces, no records support that such conditions existed to justify similar action in Ghana. On the contrary, it has been confirmed that the nature of living in the early 19th century and the occupational traditions of the people made the average Ghanaian child comparatively healthy. Indeed, his ill-health was not particularly associated with insufficient neuro-muscular development, but rather disease transmitted by parasites, such as malaria. From the health point of view, therefore, Ghanaians did not need drill as did the British. Nevertheless, the values of Military Drill were more diverse than those of therapeutic importance.

The usefulness of military drill during the period may have been justified from the point of view of its moral and civic need, such as creating habits of sharp obedience and other related values. Even then, one could argue that the basic traditional upbringing reflected this discipline, probably more than military drill. It is obvious that the way in which these drills were conducted, without reference to the children's background, created unquenchable ill-feeling amongst the young pupils, most of whom often walked a minimum of six miles each day on a return journey to school. Military drill seemed fatiguing, rather than helpful in developing healthy and desirable qualities in the young. It would appear therefore that the main philosophical seed-bed upon which the structure of Physical Education was nurtured during the early colonial period, bred discontent amongst the school children.

The inability of the early organisers, as well as the teachers, to impress upon the young the ideals and the benefits of P.E., coupled with the harsh methods that were employed, seemed to have undermined the real foundation of the subject, in relation to its respectability with regard to other subjects. In addition to these early problems and misconceptions, the first half of the 20th century witnessed aspects of the P.E. lessons being used as a form of punishment in class against problem pupils. Fatigue exercises were used to punish truants and other offenders. Physical Education was regarded as a subject to suppress the gregarious and 'tame' the disruptive.

Two historical influences affected the development of P.E. in Ghana during the 19th century and early 20th century. The first was the growing acceptance of and need for a white collar education and employment. In a rapidly expanding economy, educated manpower was at a premium. The inducement to adopt academic and literary education was too great to make non-examinable subjects attractive to school children or teachers.

The second factor of historical significance was the introduction of the Cambridge Overseas Certificate Examination. This examination was widely recognised as the passport to individual progress and advancement in the new social order that was evolving as a result of European contact. The examination system fostered competition which seemed inconsistent with the long term needs of the country. Almost every aspect of school life was geared to examination success. As a result material which was not included in the examination received little or no attention in the curriculum.

Nkrumah later showed his opposition to the undue emphasis placed on examinations by abolishing the existing condition whereby failure in English meant failing the whole examination. He introduced a type

of certificate (the Kwadwo Botsio Certificate) which recognised ability according to the subjects passed, as opposed to fulfilling any laid down rules concerning optional and compulsory subjects. This method was short-lived, and after he was ousted from Government, the nation returned to the old colonial system.

Other conditions increased the natural hatred that existed for P.E. in schools. As the curriculum encouraged rote learning and put undue emphasis on the examination system, paper qualification became the passport to prosperity, prestige and higher social status. This meant that any subject outside the recognised examinable subjects were regarded as not only a waste of time, but a real impediment to progress. This was underlined prominently during the period when payment by result was the criteria for judging the teacher's ability. Periods set aside for P.E. were often used for manual work, for example, the weeding of the school compounds and clearing of school gardens, whilst times allocated for these activities were used as extra teaching periods for examinable subjects. Any means that helped many pupils to pass their examination enhanced the economic standing of the teacher. This approach to learning and payment of teaching staff was inimical to the better understanding of the subject and consequently added to the clouds already engulfing it.

It should not be surprising, therefore, that later official government publications complained vehemently that the country's main problem in P.E. is the lack of understanding of what the subject is, and the numerous prejudices that account for the various conceptions held. Indeed the African Sports Meeting in Addis Ababa did admit, without mincing words, that one of the greatest setbacks to the subject in African States was the lack of understanding of the subject.

There were no periodicals or measures to explain the objectives

and need of P.E. to the people at any time during and after colonial rule. A review of the history of P.E. in many countries seems to indicate that concepts of P.E. lack general consensus. In the many countries, including Britain, which channelled the curricular development of the subject, indications are that a diversity of opinions exist to explain the conceptual and educational significance of P.E. in the educational process. Not only do philosophers, such as Peter Brandshaw and others, question and attack the concept of P.E., but also within the profession itself, sharp debates rage on issues appertaining to the nature and scope of the subject. Ghana can therefore take consolation in that even though her ailment may not be the same as in other countries, it has some generic characteristics of the British.

The need exists for the formulation of an educational method to blend theory with practice, so that basic concepts behind the introduction of new ideas and strategies can be more fully comprehended, before practise is commenced.

All evidence in Ghana supports the fact that the existing predicament in the conceptual understanding of P.E. was mainly due to the lack of theoretical treatment of the subject in schools. If only teachers had spent a few minutes of their time to explain the rationale behind the children's activity in P.E., much of what appeared to be confusion could have been clarified.

Despite the various reasons advanced to explain the type of P.E. introduced to Ghana and the concepts generated from its activities, it has been observed that the development of the subject in Ghana has been progressive and has been adapted to the changing needs of the society. After the 1933 syllabus and the period of the Second World War, new dimensions have been added to the subject. Methods of teaching have been modified in line with prevailing educational philosophies.

The nature of P.E., in particular the methodology, has undergone fundamental changes. Not only did the introduction of new books, for example, 'Moving and Growing' and 'Planning the Programme' add more to the concept of exploration and creation by individuals, but the system of regimentation has also, to a large extent, been curtailed or modified, giving way to self expression.

When in the 1950's Ghana established a faculty for the training of P.E. teachers, in Achimota, it ushered in a new era in the development of the subject. The faculty followed the curriculum of British P.E. Colleges, such as Carnegie and Loughborough. Like other institutions in many parts of the world, Specialist Training for Physical Educationists has its own problems and setbacks. Analysis of the content of the syllabus, the method of selection of candidates, training procedures, and of equipment available for training P.E. teaching staff shows that though much has been achieved in Ghana, yet much more remains to be done.

#### Progress Towards Self-Government, 1946-1956

The Second World War stimulated progress of all kinds, and acted as a catalyst that led to important and far reaching changes in the constitution of Ghana. The peoples of the Gold Coast played a loyal part in supporting the British war effort. They responded generously to appeals for money, and over 65,000 men served with distinction in the R.A.F. and in the West African Frontier Forces, which fought in East Africa and Burma. (82)

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(82) Ghana, 'A Survey of the Gold Coast on the Eve of Independence', Royal Institute of International Affairs, London, January 1957, p.12.

Economic hardship resulting from shortages after the war had been won stimulated discontent against the Colonial Administration. In 1946 the Burns Constitution<sup>(83)</sup> provided for a legislative union between the Colony and Ashanti, and for the first time in British Africa, established an African majority in the Legislative Council. Even though the Burns Constitution was well received initially, only one and a half years later serious popular disturbances in the country prompted a Commission of Enquiry to describe it as 'outmoded at birth'.<sup>(84)</sup> Thus in 1947 ex-servicemen who had returned to Ghana with a new knowledge of the conditions prevailing in other nations were dissatisfied with conditions at home, and had come to realise that Africans had little opportunity to improve the position themselves.<sup>(85)</sup> These were men who had been especially made aware of the principles of democracy and the necessity of armed struggle to ensure the achievement and continuation of such principles during their service life. The frustration led to a group of ex-servicemen forcing their way into Government House. The resistance of police under attack led to the killing of two of their number. Following this incident spontaneous looting and rioting against the British broke out in many parts of the country.

A Royal Commission from the United Kingdom headed by Mr. A.K. Watson was appointed to investigate the causes of the disturbance. In its Report<sup>(86)</sup> the Commission discussed the underlying political, economic

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(83) So called after the then Governor of the Gold Coast, Sir Alen Burns.

(84) Report of the Commission of Enquiry into Disturbances in the Gold Coast 1948, Colonial No.231, 1948 (Watson Report), p.16.

(85) Ghana, 'A Survey', Ibid., 1957, p.15.

(86) Watson Report, Ibid., Colonial No.231, 1948.

and social causes and drew attention to the suspicion and loss of credibility surrounding any government activity.<sup>(87)</sup>

Following the Watson Report, the British Government, in 1949, appointed an all-African Committee, headed by Henley Coussey, an African Judge, to consider the proposals for constitutional changes outlined in the Report. The Coussey Committee's Report was described as 'a remarkable document, a political and literary achievement the like of which has never before come out of Africa.'<sup>(88)</sup> The proposals advocated a majority of Africans in the Legislature and many important reorganisations of health, education, public works and social services. By 1951 a new constitution along the lines of the Coussey Report proposals came into force.

Meanwhile a nationalist movement, known as U.G.C.C. (United Gold Coast Convention) founded in 1947 by Dr. J.B. Danguah, was advocating self-determination and government for the natives. A split between the leader of the movement and Nkrumah, a nationalist, led to the formation of a second movement, called the Convention People's Party (C.P.P.).

Elections under the new Constitution were held in 1951, and won by the C.P.P. In 1952 Kwame Nkrumah became the first Prime Minister. Five years later the Government published its proposals for the achievement of full independence, as a member State of the British Commonwealth.<sup>(89)</sup>

(87) Watson Report, Ibid.

(88) Quoted by the Central Office of Information, 'Constitutional Progress in the Gold Coast', Doc.No.3298, April 1956.

(89) Gold Coast government, Constitutional Proposals for Gold Coast Independence, Accra, 1956.

### The Colonial Period: Conclusion

Ghana had known European impact and rule from 1482 until Independence in 1957. When the Portuguese departed in 1642, the Danes in 1850, followed by the Dutch in 1872, the British - the most enduring and probably the most renowned of the Colonial rulers - controlled Ghana until 1957. British contact with Ghana covered a period of 326 years, after the building of their first fort on the Gold Coast, and 83 years rule after proclaiming the Gold Coast a British Colony. During this era the British Colonial Power transplanted many of their traditional concepts and practises to Ghana - the judicial system, the political institutions and the educational system.

From the beginning of the 20th century in particular, Ghana had used an exact copy of educational syllabuses introduced in Britian, and had taken the same Cambridge School Certificate Examinations. From the 'Oxford Readers' to the famous 1933 P.T. syllabus, as used in Britian so it was implemented in Ghana, with no special modification. Even though some slight variations existed in the Mission schools, except where equipment and facilities were limited, British philosophies and practices in P.E. were followed as closely as possible. Despite a few educational policies such as 'payment by result' and the examination system - which posed problems concerning the values and objectives of P.E. in Ghana - the subject eventually developed to assume major importance towards the end of the Colonial administration.

In line with the social, economic, technological and industrial advancement that followed the Industrial Revolution, the early concepts of P.E. were modified. In particular that concept linked to an elitist system, in which the values and aims were associated more with moral and physical development of the child through prescribed forms of physical developmental exercises, or activities involving games and sports,

was gradually changed. Similarly the superseding system of mass education, in which utilitarian considerations were uppermost, was replaced by a more general education and P.E., which gave the individual child the facility and opportunity to adapt to new situations and to apply such skills after leaving school. P.E. programmes to encourage and train talents capable of creativity and inventiveness were evolved.

The chapter has served to illustrate advantages and disadvantages inherent in colonial education. The descriptions of educational goals or purposes as expressed by the policy-makers influenced by national military and economic needs in one country, being insufficient in themselves and inadequately applied to serve the needs of another.

So far as general education was concerned, the missions and the ruling government stressed the immediate need for industrial and agricultural training in the elementary educational programmes in Ghana, and this indoctrination became reflected in the aspirations of native Ghanaians.

Historically, the development of schooling in Ghana has been intimately linked with economic changes generated by colonial over-rule. The demand for western education was mainly a consequence of the growth of new economic opportunities created by the transition from a subsistence to an exchange economy.

In examining salient aspects of early British P.E. it has been possible to illustrate the disparity between policy pronouncements and actual developments in Britain and in Ghana. The functional consequences of the transferring of P.E. from Britain to Ghana were many. The objectives and unanticipated results of P.E. development in Ghana were limited by the scarcity of resources and the difficulties faced in the dissemination and competent interpretation of new ideas and policy.

Viewing the development of P.E. in terms of the expectations of

the Ghanaians and the purposes it served for them, rather than from the perspective of the colonial power, the urgent desire for academic education made P.E. a less respectable subject in the curriculum. This was a situation that could only be resolved by the conscious policy of popularising and cultivating public awareness of the individual, national and international benefits to be gained in the pursuit of a 'whole' education, in which Physical Education plays a substantial part, competitive sport at all levels being one of the main impulses used to achieve this end.

#### CHAPTER IV

##### The History of P.E. Teacher Training in Ghana

Until the mid 20th century there had been no special Department or institution for the training of P.E. specialists in Ghana. Hitherto all the training that teachers received was given as part of the general teacher education programme in the existing training colleges. The type of training given in these colleges was of a superficial nature and did not give due recognition to the special needs of individual children. Teachers learnt how to teach some of the games and physical activities in the existing syllabus of the time. The general classroom teacher therefore treated P.E. like other subjects in the curriculum and interest in its teaching was dependent upon the individual teacher's personal interest and expertise as a performer.

After the formation of the Inter-Colleges and Schools Sports Federation in 1926, however, interest in competitive sports and games was heightened. The growing popularity of school sports was further strengthened after the Second World War, when Ghanaian ex-service men returned from overseas engagements.

They came home with enlightened concepts of P.T. and sporting activities. Their interest in games generally encouraged the formation of new clubs at local and district levels, which sparked off a new wave of interest in the schools and the public sector.

Following the formation of the Gold Coast Amateur Athletic Association (G.C.A.A.A.) in 1944, and the subsequent inter-colonial competition between Ghana and Nigeria in 1949, the stage was set to introduce Ghana into international competitive sports and games. The demand for qualified P.E. instructors and coaches became even more acute.

Meanwhile, developments in Britain in the same subject during the 1930's had resulted in 'crash' programmes to establish more P.E. specialist institutions in the country. Various criticisms and recommendations about the need for special institutions for the training of P.E. teachers raised in Britain at the time had resulted in the formation of the Carnegie and Loughborough schools of P.E. The colonial government, influenced by happenings at 'home' and in Ghana, prepared to find the best means of dealing with the crying need for P.E. specialists.

As a first step towards the realisation of their objectives, some native sports enthusiasts with a relevant educational background were awarded P.E. scholarships to reputable institutions in Britain during the late 1940's. Among the early beneficiaries was P.D. Quartey, who was given a further year's training at Edinburgh after completing a degree course there. Others included Teye-Botchway, Ayi-Bonte and C.K. Gyamfi, who were trained at Jordanhill and Loughborough. In the mid 1950's more P.E. scholars were receiving training in British institutions, E.T. Kodzi, Tehoda, Simpe-Asanti and Dzakpasu amongst them.

By the beginning of 1950, after a majority of African representatives were established in the Legislative Assembly, a firm decision was taken to establish a P.E. Department at Achimota, to train specialists to meet the growing national enthusiasm for sports and games. Thus in 1950 the first course for P.E. teachers was opened at Achimota College. The course was initially for one year, and was open to qualified teachers with Certificate 'A' teaching experience. The nature of training and methods of award and assessment in the newly established P.E. department, closely followed the early approaches of similar institutions established

in Britain during the first decade of this century.

When, in 1952, Ghana participated in the Olympiad at Helsinki, the Government realised that greater emphasis should be placed on sports development, particularly in the training of specialist coaches and teachers of P.E. The government enacted new legislation which placed the constitution of the Gold Coast Amateur Sports Council (G.C.A.S.C.) on a statutory basis in 1952.<sup>(1)</sup> In the same period the Accra Stadium was built, at a cost of £50,000, to hold between 12,000 and 15,000 spectators. Mr. A.H.R. Joseph (O.B.E.) retired from the post of Secretary of the G.C.A.S.C. after twenty-five years of devoted service to sport in Ghana, and was succeeded by P.D. Quartey, who, like Joseph, was on the staff of Achimota College prior to the appointment.<sup>(2)</sup>

In order to train the various staff needed for the economic, technological, educational and social development of Ghana, the Kumasi College of Arts, Science and Technology was begun in 1950. A year later it was established by government ordinance as an autonomous institution and an amount of £350,000 allocated to it from the Colonial Development Fund. A number of buildings were erected to accommodate both students of the college and the Teacher Training Department - including the P.E. Department - known as the Achimota Teacher Training College.

When the College was officially opened in 1952, courses were offered in the sciences. Specialist teacher-training courses were planned to include agriculture, art and craft, domestic science, music

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(1) Colonial Office - Report on the Gold Coast for the Year 1952. H.M.S.O., London, 1953, p.91.

(2) Ibid.

and physical education.<sup>(3)</sup> Thus two years after inauguration at Achimota, the P.E. Department course, together with the other specialist courses mentioned, were transferred to the Kumasi College of Science and Technology.

After a short period Miss Bailey, the first Head of the P.E. Department, left the country and was succeeded by another British lady, Miss Pottley. When she left in 1954, Teye-Botchway became the first Ghanaian to head the P.E. Department at Kumasi. Two fellow Ghanaians, Ayi-Bonte and Gyamfi, who had likewise received their specialist training in England, joined the staff at Kumasi.

Anatomy, Physiology, Games, Administration of P.E., Theory, Principles and Methods of teaching games and athletics were on the P.E. course syllabus. As the course only lasted for one year, there was very little time for external teaching practise, though regular attempts were made to give demonstration lessons, using pupils from the surrounding schools. The 1933 syllabus was the main authority used in the P.E. college and very little attempt was made to deviate from its basic principles and methods. When Whitworth Smith published 'Physical Education for Primary Schools' in 1955 however, the book was recommended by the Education Department in Ghana to supplement the syllabus. All elementary schools were supplied with this text book, which later had a Middle Schools Edition.

By 1954 it became apparent to the authorities that the one year course did not offer adequate time and training for the potential P.E. teachers and it was decided to follow British proposals in extending the course to cover a two year period. The one year's training was subsequently abolished.

Four years after being transferred to Kumasi the P.E. Department, together with the School of Art and Craft, Music and Home Economics

Departments were removed to Winneba Training College, later called the Specialist Training College. At Winneba, special arrangements were made for the earlier one-year trained P.E. specialists to have an additional one year course, to bring them up to par with those pursuing the newly established course. During the following year, 1959, the first P.E. National Organiser was appointed to the Ministry of Education and had the responsibility of planning the P.E. programmes in the Elementary Schools, and also of serving as a liaison between the P.E. teachers and the Government.

About the same time, P.E. Organisers were appointed to all regions to help stimulate interest in the teaching of the subject in the schools. The work of these Organisers was similar to those appointed in Britain during the first half of the century. Among the many duties of the Organisers was the organisation of refresher courses for untrained teachers and also they were expected to teach in Emergency Training Centres established in various parts of the country, helping pupil teachers to gain basic knowledge of teaching methods. Apart from giving talks to schools and offering many other forms of assistance, the P.E. Organiser performed routine duties associated with the general organisation of sports and games in schools. These duties (which appear in the Appendix) will be fully discussed in due course.

After 1959 the Central Government decided to change the academic year from January to December, to that prevailing in England, namely from September to June, in order to conform with established international standards. This gave the expatriate staff the opportunity of home leave in the summer holidays, and also enabled new entrants to Overseas Universities to begin their courses without undue delay. An immediate disadvantage arose in the duration of some courses in progress that year being curtailed by six months.

In the case of P.E. in 1959 all the students qualified at the end of the school year, and rather than operate a shortened course because of the envisaged changes, it was decided to have an interim period of one year during which no students would be enrolled. During that period, maximum use was made of the teachers in the P.E. Department as Lecturers who should have taught at Winneba were distributed to the regions to give demonstration lessons to teachers in the schools and colleges and to run short courses for those Pupil teachers who had no knowledge of how to conduct P.E. classes. This plan seems to have worked well, and by the time students enrolled for the 1960 school year at Winneba, many parts of the country had witnessed good demonstration lessons by accredited members of the profession.

The commencement of the 1960/61 academic year saw the admission of two groups of students to the P.E. course at Winneba. One group consisting of Certificate 'A' teachers, pursuing a two year course and the other one-year trained P.E. specialists taking an extra year to achieve parity with, and equal status to, those undertaking the two year course. These two courses co-existed until 1963, when new changes were effected.

By that time it had been realised that the specialist courses needed to be upgraded to diploma level in order to cater for training colleges and higher institutions needing professionals from those fields. Consequently new two and four year courses were established for P.E. The two year course was intended for those with the requisite qualifications and good records of P.E. teaching. Candidates were chosen from all who had previously completed two years training in the subject and possessed at least four 'O' levels, with credit grades, including English and one science subject.

The four year course required five 'O' levels, four with grades

of credit or above, including English and a science subject. Such students were not necessarily teachers, though preference was given to teachers with Post Secondary 'A' qualifications and two years teaching experience. New syllabuses were designed for both categories of diplomates, to include Anatomy, Physiology, Health Science, Kinesiology, Test and Measurement, Theory and Methods of P.E., Theory and Practice of Games and Athletics, Mechanics, Swimming and Gymnastics. At the end of the course each student was required to pass a two phase testing - in the case of the fourth year student - of these subjects. In addition to passing theoretical tests, students were expected to reach a certain level of achievement in all the practical subjects taught, including teaching practise. Furthermore, a dissertation on an approved subject was to be handed in at a specified period during the final year.

In order to place the newly established diploma courses on the right footing, the Ghana government requested international help from overseas. In response to this plea, the British Commonwealth Scheme for Co-operation in Education sent a technical adviser, Mr. Parton, an Australian, who subsequently joined the P.E. staff at Winneba.

Upon the completion of the first diploma course (two years duration) an external examiner was appointed, from Britain, to validate the examination and report on the level of performance of the Ghanaian students in comparison to existing British institutions of a similar grade. Evans, the then Director of P.E. at Carnegie College, Leeds, became the first External Examiner in 1964. His report is examined later. The Diploma of Physical Education was awarded by the Cape Coast University to successful graduates.

The general structure of the Diploma course followed the pattern of the institutions in England, notably of Loughborough, Carnegie and Jordan Hill. All the native staff in the department trained in these

institutions, and endeavoured to transfer the British ideology they studied to Ghana. While there were many commendable things transferred to Ghana, no serious thought was given to the idea of modifying the programme to meet the Ghanaian traditional heritage. To a large extent such a venture seemed to the lecturers to be diluting the content of the course, or as it was most often termed 'lowering standards'.

The greatest problem to militate against the early development of P.E. training was that idea of maintaining standards to a degree comparable with those set by the British. Good as it was, the method produced P.E. 'robots' who, according to subsequent Reports, were theoretically excellent, but found wanting in the application of theory to existing problems.

David McNair from Manchester, who served as External Examiner for the first group of fourth year diplomates in 1967, was highly impressed by the high academic level of the graduates. However, he did not seem to smile upon the general effectiveness of some of the practical work done. There was no doubt after the first diplomates had graduated from Winneba that 'status wise' their certificates were accepted as being of a high standard internationally. The striving to gain recognition, no doubt, made the Ghanaian profession an extension of similar institutions in Britain - in creed, ideology, methodology and every other aspect.

It was this conformity to British principles and ethics which prompted Cross in his recent study of the history of P.E. institutions in Ghana<sup>(4)</sup> to remark that:

... today's structure is strongly influenced by traditions established during the colonial rule ...

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(4) Cross, A., Op.cit., pp.98-99.

In the 1950's the course was identical in structure to specialist courses of training being offered in Britain ...

The similarity between programmes has been encouraged for many decades through the Specialist Training College, Winneba, inviting prominent physical educationists to pay a visit once a year offering their services as external examiners.

Allen Cross cannot be criticised for his observations above. He did, however, err in his statement that:

... one of the recent trends in Ghana has been for P.E. specialists to look to Nigeria for opportunities to further their qualifications and to gain promotion in their professional careers. (5)

The situation was that after a series of coups and counter-coups in Ghana, the economic and political atmosphere made the job market unstable. With the discovery of oil in Nigeria, and the consequent expansion of job avenues with lucrative facilities and salaries far in excess of those prevalent in Ghana, appointments in Nigeria became a 'soft option' for the educated elite, who felt that their only means of survival was being gradually eroded in Ghana. Those professionals who either escaped, or left voluntarily, P.E. teachers not excepted, were employed as teachers in the Universities and higher institutions rather than pursuing further studies. Indeed the Ghanaian Diploma was recognised as comparable to any first degree in Nigeria.

In any case, degree courses in P.E. in Nigerian Universities are a very recent phenomena - post 1970. Until this time, no institution existed in Nigeria to offer a P.E. degree higher than the standard obtained in Ghana. Furthermore, the Ghanaian version was the first in West Africa to train Nigerians during its first phases, two students being sponsored by the Nigerian government.

Despite these few errors of judgement, Cross made many useful

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(5) Cross, A., Ibid., p.114.

observations. One related to the Ghanaians' present attachment to British modes and mores, aptly pointed out that:

... Ghanaians still feel a certain bond to the British and despite the many opportunities for further study provided by other nations throughout the world, most Ghanaians would still prefer to further their education in Britain if the appropriate course and the means of financial support could be found. (\*)

From the earliest times, Ghanaians seem to have been either indoctrinated or to have consciously or unconsciously accepted that everything British was best. This widely held concept is as old as colonialism and has been perpetuated in many ways - through the spoken word, films and school text books. Many reasons account for the situation in the P.E. department, some of which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Until a few years ago in Ghana, qualified professionals from America and the Eastern Block countries received less salary and lower status than graduates of similar repute from British Universities and higher institutions. The official excuse suggested, without any reservation, that the government believed the British qualification to be of greater in-depth study than those of Universities outside the United Kingdom. There was a long intensive academic battle about this issue before policy was finally relaxed. Even then, graduates from British institutions always believed that they had obtained better education than those from elsewhere.

It was partly due to this belief and practise that Ghanaians held fast to the British methods, content and principle. To go outside the British directives and principles meant the lowering of academic standards - a taboo most educationists, particularly those trained in Britain, were prepared to fight 'tooth and nail' to defend a few decades ago. This situation, however, has been gradually abandoned during the last fifteen years, and equal recognition is now given - albeit

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(\*) Cross, A., Ibid., p.98.

grudgingly - to all diplomats from most institutions in the world.

In the anxiety to bring in qualified teachers to help in P.E. and sports, and other subjects in the curriculum, the colonial administration imported expatriate teachers to Ghana, simultaneously sending some Ghanaians to Britain to obtain specialist training in various aspects of education. Consider firstly, these expatriates to Ghana were unable to dispossess themselves of their cultural blinkers, nor rid themselves of their own past experiences and conceptions of the various subjects they taught. Most of them were active sportsmen who took upon themselves the organisation and administration of sports in the schools and colleges. They could not contribute to any fundamental rethinking about the cultural values that Ghanaians attached to P.E. nor the purposes of education to the society. Their teachings in P.E. helped to consolidate the foundation laid by the first expatriate head of the P.E. institution that was established.

Secondly, those Ghanaian scholars first sent overseas (to Britain) for P.E. courses were trained exclusively in the British traditions and philosophy of P.E. It set a pattern for the future that was difficult to break. On their return they formed the nucleus of the staff in the P.E. Department. Owing to the special esteem accorded to British qualifications, these teachers endeavoured to establish the British model in the country. The tendency was therefore to adopt the course content, structures and assessment procedures practised in England.

This approach not only reinforced the general respect given to English patterns but also safeguarded the position of the native specialists, by resisting any local adaptation thought likely to lower standards in the subject.

The gradual internationalisation of Sports and Games put a new

perspective on the training procedures in Ghana. Those sporting activities introduced by the British were the only ones recognised at the international level of competitive sport. If Ghana was to participate in such international activities, it was imperative to train personnel in those activities. The fact that these activities were essential commodities in the international market of competitive games led to the inevitability of ties between the P.E. departments of both countries, especially as Britain was among the leading nations in the competitive field. These factors necessitated the invitations to external examiners from Britain to evaluate the P.E. course after independence.

A general appraisal of the organisation and practice of school physical education post-independence suggests that tremendous efforts were made by the Ghanaian government to improve and 'ginger up' interest in the subject. The compulsory aspect of P.E. in schools emerged with new clarity, partly because of the government's official policy on the place of sports and athletic competitions in the school curriculum,<sup>(6)</sup> while in the primary schools activities designed to develop body awareness, rhythmic movement and familiar games involving running and chasing were included in the P.E. programme.<sup>(7)</sup> In the upper primary schools, group activities were stressed and games such as soccer, volleyball, netball and rounders were introduced. Simple gymnastic activities were also taught.

In the middle and secondary schools, 'Ghana News' has reported that those keen on sports have been provided with football, hockey, lawn

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(6) Nkrumah, K., 'I speak of Freedom'. Op.cit., p.58.

(7) International Council on Health, P.E. and Recreation. Physical Education in Ghana, 8th International Congress Report, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, July 27-31, 1965, p.43.

tennis, table tennis, basketball and baseball to choose from, and that most schools have well levelled, beautiful playing fields and other places of recreation.<sup>(8)</sup> Other forms of activities, like boxing, cricket and athletics were included in the secondary schools programme. As aptly reported by Whitfield, the programme is not only compulsory and enthusiastic participation greatly encouraged, but in 1962, nearly all sixty-five secondary schools were staffed with well trained P.E. specialists, both male and female.<sup>(9)</sup>

The Report of an Education Review Committee discussed some aspects of P.E. and made recommendations on the same. The general observation of the Committee was that 'Physical Education as taught in many schools today leaves much to be desired, it is often mere training in physical exercises.'<sup>(10)</sup> It was apparent to the Committee that teachers in the schools were still following the old concept of 'drill' and were not relating the subject to the needs of the pupils. The Committee, after reiterating that Physical Education and Games should be an integral part of the school curriculum, also suggested that the subject must be made to include the study of Human Anatomy and Health Science, if these were not already included in the Science syllabus.<sup>(11)</sup>

Under paragraph 141 of its recommendations the Education Review Committee warned that programmes of the schools should not be so overloaded as to leave no time for leisure for the pupils and that the boys

(8) Ghana News. Govt. Printer, Accra, F.S. 39, April 1964, p.4.

(9) Whitfield, M. and Hart, T.A., Physical Education and Athletics in West Africa, Journal of Health, P.E. and Recreation, Vol.33, No.3, 1962, pp.19,20.

(10) Report of Education Review Committee - Summary of Recommendations, June 1966-July 1967. Govt. Printer, Ghana, 1967, p.14.

(11) Ibid., Recommendation (R92), p.14, para.139

and girls should be trained and allowed to use their leisure profitably.<sup>(12)</sup>

Issues raised by the Education Review Committee that referred to P.E. principally concerned the contents of the P.E. syllabus and the method of teaching the subject. The Commission was not aware of the fact that the teaching methods were the result of the type of training being given in the training schools, and the government's own insistence that teachers must use a stereotyped syllabus or text book for P.E. lessons.

It has been noticed that training of the P.E. specialists followed a rigid routine, that was rooted in earlier British methods whereby teachers were given well defined tables and approach methods to the teaching of the subject. Ghanaian teachers were not given any opportunity of being flexible to the point of being able to depart completely from the established principles.

The situation was further aggravated by the fact that of those teaching the subject in schools, most were untrained. National statistics<sup>(13)</sup> show that in the period 1974-75 there were 50 P.E. teachers on the staff of Teacher Training and Specialist Colleges in Ghana, only eight of whom were female. Of the P.E. staff mentioned only two, both male, had University degrees.<sup>(14)</sup>

(12) Ibid. Recommendation, p.92, para.141

(13) Digest of Education Statistics, 1974/75, Ghana Education Service, Govt. Printer, Accra, 1975, p.112.

(14) Digest of Education Statistics (Pre-University) 1974-5, Ghana Education Service, Accra, 1975, pp.112,113.

Number of Teacher Training Colleges 1970/71<sup>(15)</sup>

Post-Sec	A Year Only	4 Year + Post-Sec.	Specialist	Total No.
5	59	6	3	73

The statistics of qualified teachers compared with the number of Training Colleges during most of the 1960's show that many Training Colleges lacked qualified P.E. personnel. Those being taught in the existing Training Colleges had only one year's training as P.E. specialists and therefore did not have adequate time to absorb the detailed training necessary. Since the course lasted only a year, most of the notes were crammed and only the essentials were given in the teaching of games and athletics. For the P.E. lesson itself, routine guidelines were followed.

The teachers trained by the one year P.E. specialists carried with them the old military concept of drill and P.E. and applied them in the schools. This process continued well into the 1970's when the advancing tide of diplomate specialists with more modern ideas were infused into the training colleges and secondary schools. With the increased outflow of qualified diplomates and two-year trained specialists each year, old ideas were gradually being regulated and replaced by modern trends. Even then, as Coward has aptly expressed, most of the teachers in the field were unwilling to change their concepts and therefore continued the old traditions.<sup>(16)</sup>

It was therefore common to observe different methods of teaching

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(15) Ghana Education Statistics 1970/71, Ministry of Education, Republic of Ghana, 1972, p.78.

(16) Coward, V.R., Op.cit., p.V.

the P.E. lesson in schools after the 1970's. The conservatives adhered to the spirit of the 1933 syllabus, whilst the newly trained specialists adopted trends that took into account the various changes that had occurred during the previous decade and earlier.

Ghana continued to show keen interest in P.E. and tried to give every support to improve teaching of the subject in schools. The country adopted a new structure and content of education in the 1970's. The underlying aims and principles of the new structure stressed, among other things, 'the development of the qualities of leadership, self-reliance and creativity through the promotion of physical education, sports and games, cultural and youth programmes.'<sup>(17)</sup>

The above objective clearly emphasised the role of P.E. in the country for the next generation. Not only has the country fully assimilated the British concept of P.E. and Games in the curriculum, but it has also underlined that the development of cultural and youth programmes must form part of the P.E. activity. This development is a clear demonstration of finding a harmonious way of extracting the best from foreign and domestic cultural activities to form a basis for future programmes in Ghanaian schools.

Some studies conducted in Ghana in relation to the influence of British colonisation have indicated that Ghanaians have a propensity to adapt to foreign culture. Twumasi<sup>(18)</sup> has shown that traditional medical beliefs and cults in Ghana have, since 1844, when scientific medicine was introduced into the country by the first doctors, survived and

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(17) Development of Education in Ghana. 1975 and 1976. Report to the 36th session of the International Conference on Education, Geneva, September 1977, p.7.

(18) Twumasi, P.A., Medical Systems in Ghana. A Study in Medical Sociology, Ghana Publishing Corporation, Accra, 1981.

adapted to Western contact and impact.

Utilising modern facilities, such as the telephone, visiting cards, laboratory coats and adapting to modern life as a whole, the traditional cults have formed their own union, the Ghana Psychic and Traditional Healing Association. Twumasi points to abundant evidence that pharmacologists are at present studying the herbal remedies involved. The side by side development of traditional medical cults and a modern medical system leads Twumasi to conclude that the two medical systems are complimentary rather than competing.

Politically, the year 1954 marked further constitutional advance in Ghana. The country was brought to the threshold of full self-government by the new constitution, introduced in April. This Act made Ghana the first African colony with a wholly elected Legislature, and an All-African Cabinet of Ministers chosen from its members. From 1951 an African majority government had taken office as a first step towards bringing the natives towards an active role in Education.

Before this period the growth of schools had not been rapid enough to cater for the school age population. By 1900 there were four government institutions of all types in the country. Reports compiled by the Education Department<sup>(19)</sup> between 1920 and 1950 show that the Government schools were increased to twenty by 1920, to thirty by 1930, and reduced to twenty-five in 1940. Further increases brought the number to forty-eight by 1950. This slow growth of government institutions influenced the African majority government, as its first step towards achieving

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(19) (a) Gold Coast, Reports of the Education Department, Govt. Printer, Accra, 1920-50.

and

(b) Gold Coast, Report of the Education Committee, 1937-41, Govt. Printer, Accra 1942, pp.29-40.

universal education, to create the Ministry of Education in 1951. The first measure taken by the Ministry was to prepare an accelerated development plan for education, which emphasised that education was the key to the people's progress, and called for a rapid development of education at all levels. In order to accelerate the training of Africans to replace overseas personnel, the government increased facilities for higher education.

The transfer of power from the British Colonial Government to the nation, on 6th March 1957, placed the control and direction of the educational programme entirely in the hands of the Ghanaian people. Local leaders carried out extensive development. At the time of transfer, the type of education provided was still largely literary and academic.

A closer look at the structure of education in Ghana from 1950 to 1975 would show that three structural patterns evolved, which were operating simultaneously below the Upper Senior Secondary Polytechnic and teacher training education:

- (a) The Accelerated Development Plan Structure of 1951, i.e. six years basic Primary Course, followed by four years Middle School Course.
- (b) The 1962/63 Structure of eight years Primary Course, followed by two years Continuation Classes, and
- (c) The New Structure, introduced in 1974. (20)

The structure in most widespread use was the six year basic Primary Course, followed by four years in Middle School. Out of 3,760 Middle Schools in the country during 1974/75 academic year, 500 were offering Continuation Classes. (21)

(20) Ghana Education Service, Digest of Education Statistics (Pre-University) 1974/75, Accra, 1976, p.2.

(21) Ibid., p.2.

These ten years of Elementary Education were free, and theoretically compulsory, promotion from Primary 1 to Middle Form 4 being automatic. The Common Entrance Examination formed the only competitive examination leading to public Secondary Schools, and could be taken in Primary 6 or in any grade of the Middle School. The Secondary Course was for five years, and led to the award of the West African School Certificate. An average twenty per cent of those in Form 5 qualified in this examination for the two year Sixth Form Course, leading to G.C.E. Advanced Level. (22)

For those who had not moved to Secondary School via the Common Entrance Examination, the Middle School Leaving Certificate Examination was available at the end of the middle school course. Middle Form 4 candidates in the Common Entrance Examination were admitted to Technical Institutes for Craft courses and to Commercial Colleges (five years leading to the Ghana Business Certificate).

There was also a second, separate, Common Entrance Examination in Middle Form 4, for entrants to the four-year Teacher Training Colleges to undertake the initial training course leading to the Teacher's Certificate 'A'. Secondary school leavers from Form 5 could also enter Teacher Training for a two-year Post Secondary Course, pursue Technician's courses at the Polytechnics, or enter other Vocational Training institutions. (23)

The New Educational Structure of 1974 proposed a two-year pre-primary course from the age of four years, to be followed by a six-year

(22) Republic of Ghana. Ghana Education Statistics 1970/71. Ministry of Education, Accra, 1973, p.iii.

(23) Ibid.

Primary Course from the age of six. A three-year Junior Secondary Course was then to be followed by a two-year Lower Senior Secondary Course, or Secondary Vocational - i.e. Technical and Business - courses. Successful students from these courses would proceed to Senior Secondary Upper Courses (equivalent to the former sixth form) to Teacher Training or to Polytechnic Courses.

The Government expenditure pattern for Education during 1969/70 to 1973/4 indicated a rise of about 1.24 per cent in total. The table below shows the percentage of actual expenditure of the Educational Sector in the total Government Expenditure Programme.

Percentage of Actual Educational Expenditure in the Total

Government Expenditure Programme 1969-1974 (24)

Financial Year	Total Expenditure	Recurrent Expenditure	Development Expenditure
1969/70	13.85	15.81	15.16
1970/71	14.92	17.22	6.90
1971/72	14.64	16.47	7.03
1972/73	18.95	21.70	6.28
1973/74	18.08	21.20	7.61

The curriculum of primary schools consisted mainly of Reading, Writing and Arithmetic with increasing emphasis on the acquisition of

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(24) Ghana Education Service. Digest of Education Statistics (Pre-University) 1974/75, Accra, p.9.

language skills, particularly in the Ghanaian languages. Other subjects taught include Religious Knowledge, Physical and Health Education, Social Studies, Music, Art and Crafts. The Middle School course offered further training in the same subjects, in addition to Agriculture, Elementary Science and Home Science.<sup>(25)</sup>

An examination of enrolment in Primary and Middle Schools from 1966 to 1971 shows trends in Ghanaian education, post Independence. The tables below illustrate these trends in enrolment in Primary and Secondary Schools:

Number of Primary Schools and Enrolment 1966-1971<sup>(26)</sup>

<u>Year</u>	<u>No. of Schools</u>	<u>Total Enrolment</u>
1966/67	7,913	1,116,843
1968/69	7,293	1,016,457
1969/70	7,239	975,629
1970/71	7,008	947,502

Number of Middle Schools and Enrolment 1966-1971<sup>(27)</sup>

<u>Year</u>	<u>No. of Schools</u>	<u>Total Enrolment</u>
1967	2,346	280,866
1969	3,200	381,551
1970	3,422	424,430
1971	3,546	442,803

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(25) Ghana Ministry of Education Report, 1968-71, State Publishing Corp., Accra, 1972, pp.18-19.

(26) Republic of Ghana - Ghana Ministry of Education Report 1968-71 State Publishing Corp., Accra, 1972, p.18

(27) Ibid.

One of the factors underlying the decreasing trend in the Primary schools was the persistent paucity of classroom accommodation, which necessitated the operation of a two-shift system in areas where no extra classrooms could be provided. Another reason was the steady closure or merger of small uneconomic schools into larger, economically viable units.<sup>(28)</sup>

The introduction of the shift system into the Primary Schools created problems in the teaching of P.E. in the afternoons. The effects of the tropical sun on children who came to school after mid-day was not conducive to out-door P.E. lessons. Due to the lack of gymnasias in the Primary schools, P.E. lessons were always held in the open air; in unfavourable weather conditions the lesson consisted of health education.

Trends in Teacher Training Education, on the other hand, continued to improve from 1950 to 1975. The table below shows the rate of growth of training colleges and student intake during the period:

The Growth of Teacher Training Colleges and Enrolment

Year	No. of Colleges	Enrolment
1950	19	1,777
1957	30	3,873
1965	47	8,000
1970/71	74	18,814
1974/75	54	11,610

(28) Ibid., p.18

In a bid to reduce the number of untrained teachers in the elementary schools during the early 1960's, the government opened thirty-five new training colleges between 1962 and 1970. This changed the rate of annual output of some two thousand trained teachers in 1966/67 and 1967/68 to a phenomenal output in 1968/69 of some 5,091 trained teachers.<sup>(29)</sup> In 1965 the ratio of untrained teachers stood at 2:1. By the end of 1970, as a result of the massive output achieved in 1968/69, the proportion of trained teachers, for the first time since 1951 rose to 50 per cent of the total teaching force.<sup>(30)</sup>

The growth in numbers of qualified teachers to the Elementary schools during the first decade after Independence, increased the interest in P.E. lessons in these schools. The qualified teachers, even though not specialists in P.E., had all been trained to teach P.E. lessons, and some of the more familiar games, in the schools. More care was given to the teaching of P.E. from this period. The assistance of detached P.E. teachers and Organisers to the Elementary schools helped teachers to keep abreast of changing trends in instruction. (The duties of the detached teachers and Organisers are shown in the Appendix).

At this point it is worthwhile to examine the P.E. course in Ghana generally. Chief Examiners' Reports would form the basis of assessing the worth of the P.E. department and the extent to which progress was being made. The particular report which forms the basis of this examination was made by Evans, a renowned British Physical educationist and a former director of P.E. at Carnegie College, Leeds.

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(29) Republic of Ghana. Ghana Ministry of Education Report, Ibid., p.45.

(30) Ibid.

Evans' Report<sup>(31)</sup> as it will be called hereafter, was divided into six main sections - Course content, Organisation, Presentation, Examinations, Teaching Staff, and Facilities and equipment.

Under the heading of course content, the Report made manifest many areas that called for modifications and improvement. Whilst acknowledging that the theoretical courses covered the essential areas of study which should be followed by specialist teachers, it also observed that, in a number of instances, rather too much was attempted. In particular, the area of Comparative P.E. was so wide that it received superficial treatment. On the other hand, some areas like the psychological interpretation of P.E. seemed to have been narrow and in need of being broadened to encompass the teaching and learning of physical skills.

One major fault observed by the Chief Examiner was 'the tendency to rely on text book material to such an extent that certain courses were based entirely on chapters in a book.'<sup>(32)</sup> It was clear that the theoretical work in certain courses - Kinesiology, Tests and Measurements, Mechanics, Physiology and aspects of the Theory of P.E., were not sufficiently related to the practical situation and that 'premium was placed on rote learning.'<sup>(33)</sup>

Other remarks showed that in gymnastics, greater emphasis was placed on the acquisition of specific skills with little opportunity for creative and expressive movement. Throughout the four years course, it was noted that students took the same course of training without much

(31) Evans, J.C., 'Chief Examiner's Report - The Syllabus and Regulations for the Award of Diploma in Physical Education'. Specialist Training College, Winneba, Ghana 1964.

(32) Ibid., p.I, Course Content Section 1 and 2.

(33) Ibid., Section 1 and 2.

scope to cater for the development of their own interests and abilities. The same rigidity in established principles reflected itself in the methods of presenting lessons to pupils. The guide to students in planning their work was regarded as 'too restrictive and did not take into account the realities of the teaching situation.'<sup>(34)</sup>

It is obvious from these observations on the course content that the staff were rigid in keeping to established methods they had learned during their training overseas. By keeping the content academic, there was no anxiety to introduce anything that was not related to what existed in England. Indeed there were no text books with African background which could supply the necessary incentive to gear some of the lessons more nearly to the environment of the students. Furthermore, the staff were probably too busy to put the course on a footing similar to what they had learned in Britain that hardly anyone found the time to introduce innovations that would cater for the interests both of the students and the general public.

As far as the organisation of the course was concerned, the Report suggested that the four years Diploma must be divided into two main phases of study. The first phase was to concentrate on the essential areas of the study, which might be regarded as the 'basic diet' for all students.<sup>(35)</sup> In order to offer ample opportunity for students to develop individual interests and abilities, the second phase was to concentrate on advanced courses as well as selective courses. These courses should aim at specialisation to a high level of attainment. The existing system was designed to cater for 'Jacks of all trades and masters of none', and produced highly competent general practitioners

(34) Ibid., Section 1, 6.

(35) Evans Report, Ibid., 2.1.

with a number of highly developed specialisms.<sup>(36)</sup>

The period for teaching practice was said to be barely adequate and it was suggested that students should be introduced to Primary School teaching of P.E. during the first year of their study rather than deferring the experience of teaching to the second year. Demonstration lessons by teachers and staff were recommended to offer opportunity to local teachers to keep abreast with new methods.

Referring to the presentation in theoretical subjects, it was advised that in order to curtail rote learning and the reproduction of factual knowledge, formal lecturing was to be minimised. Instead, practical/workshop methods involving the active participation of staff and students in the application of theories and principles were to be cultivated. To this end, tutors were expected to encourage project work and assignments which required the student to study, interpret, originate and synthesise ideas rather than reproduce lecture material or chapters from text books. Creative thought and the application of knowledge were the desirable traits to be emphasised.

A remarkable characteristic of the P.E. course at Winneba was that the 'system of assessment placed a very heavy premium on formal written examination.'<sup>(37)</sup> Apart from encouraging much memorising of theoretical work, it also devalued the importance of creative and individual work of the students and therefore acted as a negative form of motivation. Written examinations were to be designed more to test the students knowledge of application rather than asking for factual knowledge.

Of the P.E. staff at Winneba, the Report noted the absence of the

(36) Evans' Report, Ibid., 2.1.

(37) Evans' Report, Ibid., Section 4.1.

development of particular areas of specialist knowledge in both theoretical and practical subjects. The absence of this specialisation exposed the staff to covering too many subject areas. Even though Evans found the existing members of staff to be well qualified, he also saw a 'need for more specialised training and awareness of modern approaches to the training of teachers.'<sup>(38)</sup> He did not hesitate therefore to suggest that it would be of great advantage to the College if members of staff could be granted leave of absence for full-time study abroad.

On the issue of facilities and equipment, the Report confirmed the perennial inadequacy of facilities for practical activities and emphasised that if the college was to fulfil its very important and unique role in the training of teachers of P.E., then this set-back should be remedied. It advocated more playing fields, swimming baths and an additional gymnasium. At the same time, it was suggested that those courses which were concerned with the scientific aspects of P.E. should be provided with special laboratory facilities and specialised equipment, if they were to be of a practical nature and to contain important components of study. As it existed, the department had no laboratory of its own and lacked specialised equipment for such subjects as physiology of exercise and test and measurements.

Furthermore, the acute shortage of source texts for loan and reference purposes in the library was recognised as an important deficiency which tended to produce emphasis on formal lectures rather than individual study and project work.<sup>(39)</sup> The need to increase audio-visual

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(38) Ibid.

(39) Evans' Report, Ibid., Section 6.3.

aids as well as other teaching aids, if greater insight was to be achieved into teaching methods and the analysis of skills, was greatly underlined in the Report. On the whole, the Chief Examiner had this to say about the P.E. course in Ghana:

... I have been most impressed by the highly professional attitudes displayed by the teaching staff and their willingness to discuss the course. I recognise many of their difficulties and realise that many of my suggestions, if implemented, will take some time to operate. I have every confidence however, that the future of this course has good foundations which can be built upon to the great advantage of the college and the country as a whole. (40)

There is no doubt that this Report raises many issues that face P.E. development in Ghana. Some of the problems may be due to conditions in the country while others may be due to the nature and type of educational transfer under which the concept of P.E. evolved both in Ghana and in Britain.

Evans' Report also suggested that teachers must be less of 'Jacks of all trades and masters of none'. It would appear that this suggestion was not appropriate to the national needs at the time. Unlike Britain, where specialist teachers for P.E. had been trained since the turn of the 19th century, and therefore there was a less acute need for P.E. teachers, Ghanaian schools needed the all-round teachers to give general training.

One of the criticisms levelled against teachers with specialist knowledge and the lack of official syllabuses published by the British government has been the fact that the schools' physical education standard had been dependent upon the interests and the nature of the training of the teachers who teach the P.E. lessons.<sup>(41)</sup> Furthermore,

(40) Evans' Report, Ibid. (conclusion).

(41) Whitehead, N. and Hendry, L.B., Teaching Physical Education in England. Descriptions and Analysis. Lepus Books, London, 1976, p.17.

because of the evidence of 'a bewildering diversity of training in England during the 1960's' there were many criticisms about the courses offered and the inadequacy of some young primary trained teachers who were unable to cope with certain teaching situations.<sup>(42)</sup> While specialisation is necessary at certain periods of development, it is the belief of the writer that Ghana needed more general P.E. teachers at the time of the recommendation than the new system of Integrated courses and specialisms that were taking root in the English system. Indeed it could be further argued that the physical education needs of Ghana during the time were more of helping the average child in the school to develop all his abilities through general physical activities rather than of rearing specialists whose usual interest was to train highly skilled performance in acclaimed areas of specialisation.

It appears from the recommendation that while the staff put greater emphasis mainly on the physical health aspect, the external examiner seems to place emphasis on training students in special aspects of the subject. This is an obvious conflict in values as seen through the eyes of people from two distinctive socio-cultural backgrounds. Doubtless, each side had commendable aspects, but what is crucial is not so much adopting what has become the modern trend in developed regions, but rather using the available systems that fulfil the immediate needs of the society. From this assessment, one comes to the realisation of the inherent dangers in appointing external examiners with limited knowledge of the background needs of the society to assess work being done there. Apparently, many of the recommendations would

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(42) Priestly, J.T., 'The Impact and Influence of Physical Education', Bulletin of P.E., Vol.8, No.4, October 1970, p.55.

be based not only on the person's expertise as gained from his home country, but also he is likely to be influenced by his personal assessment of what is important as opposed to real national needs of the country in question.

Having said this, one must acknowledge that the system of the preparation of P.E. teachers has always raised many issues in different countries. One such issue concerns where the emphasis on P.E. teachers' training should be placed - should it be more heavily rooted in the biological or natural sciences, or in the social sciences? Others are: should P.E. teachers be trained in such a way that greater premium is placed on the teaching of skills and techniques, so that the graduate is more qualified to perform and to teach, or should greater stress be laid on theoretical aspects of the subject? As Bovard<sup>(43)</sup> has aptly stated, 'courses are but the outward expression of the philosophy of education held by the faculty.'

Before any attempt is made to analyse the problems and issues raised by Evans' Report it is essential to examine, briefly, the growth and development of P.E. colleges in Britain, and their professional preparation of P.E. teachers. Such an undertaking would, it is hoped, give a deeper insight into the extent to which Ghanaian problems were either unique or related to problems associated with the British system.

A comparison of the training of P.E. teachers in England and in Ghana during the same period would reveal many areas of similarity. Not only were the criticisms made about Ghana's system valid, but also some of them were evident in the British system from which the Ghanaian

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(43) Bovard, J.F., 'Some Trends in Teacher Training Curricular', Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Vol.6, April 1935, p.3.

system had evolved. For example, in the four different courses that were opened to English men and women for training as physical educationists, there were many differential emphases placed on various aspects of the subject, depending upon the orientation of the colleges or Universities where such courses were mounted.

On the whole, there were four levels at which one could study P.E. in England:

- (a) as a degree subject,
- (b) as an advanced main subject,
- (c) as a main subject,
- (d) as a subsidiary subject. (44)

While each of these levels of study had its unique values and status, investigations about the contents of the P.E. curriculum and the values of some aspects of the subject showed that some institutions regarded some areas less useful than others. This was reflected by the remarkable fluctuation in the number of hours spent at compulsory subjects of all levels of training and the variation in time for theory and practical work. In the science subjects, such as anatomy and physiological aspects of P.E., it was revealed by Whitehead<sup>(45)</sup> that of the nine institutions which offered three-year courses examined, one of them spent 72 hours while another spent 265 hours in teaching the subject.

Even though most physical educationists seemed to agree that the study of the human body was invaluable for P.E. students, yet others believed, like Perrot<sup>(46)</sup> that:

(44) Whitehead, N. and Hendry, L.B., 'Teaching P.E. in England. Descriptions and Analysis', Lepus Books, London, 1976, p.43.

(45) Whitehead, N. et al, Ibid., p.49, quoted Whitehead, Ibid., p.50.

(46) Perrot, J.W., Anatomy for Students and Teachers of Physical Education, Arnold, London, 1959, quoted by Whitehead, N., Ibid., p.50.

... names of muscles, arteries and bones matter little to the physical educationist, but it is their FUNCTIONS and POSITIONS that are the be-all and end-all of movement.

Evidence has been cited by Joyce to indicate that what some colleges' staff considered to be the main objectives of the anatomy and physiology courses were not what their students considered to be the purpose of that work. She noted that 'there was a tendency not to employ modern apparatus and teaching aids, a failure to relate the subject to physical activity.'<sup>(47)</sup>

The issue of practical activity sessions in colleges of education had no clear-cut objective in England. Different colleges use varying ways of assessing students, even at their entrance examination. Unlike most North American Universities where students could be admitted to the P.E. department without undue emphasis on a high level of skill performance or despite the presence of some forms of physical disabilities, British schools maintained high levels of academic attainment in addition to undefined levels of physical ability. The methods of assessing physical ability differed but on the whole, due regard was always given to motor ability skills and physique. The main issue at variance between the American system and the British system related to whether physical skills were essential or not for admission into the physical education programme.

It was sometimes argued that while it was advantageous to achieve appreciable skill in the abilities of the P.E. teachers, nevertheless, the most important thing was to know and gain the skill of imparting the desired knowledge, which did not necessarily include high performance

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(47) Joyce, E.R., An Examination of Some Curriculum Aspects in Specialist Male Colleges of Education. Diploma dissertation, University of Leeds, 1967.

of the P.E. teachers. Indeed the best coach was not necessarily the best or a good performer. Among the problems underlined by Whitehead that told against many P.E. colleges in Britain was 'the uncertainty of the extent of the value of the students' own practical performance to him as a future teacher of P.E.'<sup>(48)</sup> It is obvious from this discussion that a country needs to state clearly its objectives at every level of teaching, so that students are not left in a state of assuming objectives different from those envisaged by the staff.

What had become obvious in the P.E. department in Ghana was that it was so chained to British ideals and methods that it had no philosophy of its own which took into account the needs of the nation. While external examiners are extremely desirable, their value can be measured in terms of their insight into the needs and desires of the community to which they are invited. The existing diversity of courses, and often philosophies, in British P.E. institutions, suggests that as long as different external examiners are appointed, the tendency to revise existing programmes to conform to the ideology of the external examiners would be more rampant than desirable. That 'a rolling stone gathers no moss' is a well known proverb worthy of consideration.

Another intriguing problem that erupts from the British system is evidence of less 'mind-challenging' aspects of the courses in the syllabuses that were examined by Whitehead. It was found that more time was always allocated to practical lessons, while the theoretical aspects received less attention than reasonably desirable if the academic content of the subject was to be sustained. An example is cited of anatomy and physiology having more time allocated to them than all

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(48) Whitehead, N. et al, Ibid., p.61.

the 'general theory' periods.<sup>(49)</sup> It is in the light of the existing conditions which prompted Davies to question:

... Does the training of teachers for physical education, putting all consideration of degrees on one side challenge the mind of the student?

My quick answer to this question must be, if I am to be honest, not very much. (50)

A thorny remark made by Whitehead in relation to the vast nature of subjects in the British P.E. colleges' curriculum was:

... As the end-product of those colleges are teachers of Physical Education, one wonders if the students can attend such vastly different lectures of the various colleges and still come away with a similar understanding of the purposes of physical education. (51)

The general evidence obtained from the research conducted by Whitehead et al revealed evidence of gross discrepancies between colleges about the real purpose of the students being involved in practical activity sessions, the amount of involvement, emphasis on various games and activities, etc. (For a copy of the table showing how some teachers evaluated their college P.E. courses in England, refer to the appendix at the end of this study.

Davies<sup>(52)</sup> sums up his impressions of the existing situation thus:

... What are difficult to assess are the attitudes of lecturers in physical education departments, the emphasis which is given to different parts of the syllabuses, the degree to which these men and women are genuinely interested

(49) Whitehead, N., Ibid., p.61.

(50) Davies, 'The Training of Teachers of Physical Education', B.A.O.L.P.E. Bulletin (British Association of Lecturers of Physical Education), Vol.1., 1966, pp.9-25.

(51) Whitehead, N., Ibid., p.61.

(52) Davies, 'The Training of Teachers of Physical Education', B.A.O.L.P.E. Bulletin, Vol.1., 1966, pp.9.25.

in physical education rather than being experts in the physical. Since they too are drawn from the ranks of those who have achieved high personal standards in physical activities, it is possible that printed syllabuses are weighed towards the practical and against the philosophical.

The findings from Ghana P.E. college discussed from Evans' Report seem to indicate that, owing to the country's attachment to and continual pursuance of British objectives, Ghanaian concepts and strategies of Physical Education have been dictated by the 'wind of change' that had blown across the British Territory.

Perhaps the time has arrived for a more sober appraisal of where we (the Ghanaians) are, how we arrived at the destination, and the most appropriate path to pursue for the future needs of the people and the nation as a whole. This calls for a new Ghanaian philosophy of Physical Education.

#### The Work of P.E. Teachers in Ghana

After the training of the P.E. specialist is completed, there are four different job areas to which he may be assigned:

- (a) To the Inspectorate Section of the Ministry of Education;
- (b) The Secondary Schools or Training College;
- (c) Regional/District Education Offices, as Organisers; and as
- (d) Detached P.E. teachers in Districts or Regions.

In some of these areas, appointments are made from the Head Office of the Ministries, in other cases the students have to decide and suggest to which area they want to move, depending on the availability of vacancies.

Ghana appointed its first P.E. Organiser to the Ministry of Education in 1959, by the name of Ayi-Bonte. His main responsibility

was to assist in the development of a P.E. programme for the country and serve as a liaison between the P.E. teachers and the central government. About the same period, P.E. organisers were appointed to all the regions in the country with the sole aim of helping and stimulating interest in the subject in both Primary and Middle Schools, as well as in the Pupil Teachers' training centres that were set up in the country on the eve of the accelerated development plan. The P.E. organisers were further expected to give talks and refresher courses where and when the need arose. Thus their scope of duties covered the organisation, administration, supervision and the teaching of P.E. lessons, games and sports through visits to schools and colleges.

Sports Organisers had trekking programmes which were made to conform to existing policy on Inspections and Visits to schools of the Regional Education Departments. During such visits and inspections, the Organiser is expected to guide the teachers in the effective and efficient methods of physical training. Apart from this assistance, he is obliged to examine teachers' notes of lessons in P.E. and games and to suggest ways and means of improving their content and quality. He should ensure that recommended textbooks and Teaching Notes on Physical Education and Games are available and are being carefully followed by teachers. (53)

One aspect of the Organiser's work with which the government was very concerned related to School Sports Associations. These Associations, which shall be discussed more fully later, played a very important part in the P.E. programmes of all Ghanaian schools. It was the stated duty

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(53) Instructions by Ministry of Education - Physical Education Organiser - Duties and Functions. (No date). Refer to Appendix for full details.

of the Sports Organiser to encourage the formation of Sports Associations in all districts in his region and to ensure that sporting activities and competitions were organised on a very sound basis. To this end, he was expected to assist in the organisation of inter-district and inter-regional sports meetings and competitions.

Outside the domain of P.E. the Organiser was to perform special duties related to civic and state functions. As stipulated by the circular which underlined their functions and duties:

... Arrangements for Civic or State Functions in the region on which school children are requested to take part should be supervised by the P.E. Organiser. Such functions include Independence Anniversary, Republic Day, and National Founder's Day Celebrations, National Trust Fund activities for schools and route lining by school children during visits of Very Important Persons. (54)

At the end of every school term and also the school year, the Organiser was required to submit a full report on work done in the region to the Principal Secretary, Ministry of Education.

In order to assist the P.E. Organisers in their stated duties, it was decided to appoint qualified P.E. specialists to the regions to act as District Organisers. Their duties were similar to those spelled out for Regional Organisers except that they were allocated to Districts and made answerable to the District Education Officers, who were supervised by the Regional Office. Like their counterparts in the Region, a comprehensive report on all visits they made was handed to the District Education Officer, with a copy to the Regional Education Officer.

Furthermore, the district organiser compiled and sent all the results of inter-zonal competitions and District Festivals (times and distances) to the Regional Education Office with a copy to the National

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(54) Physical Education Organiser - Duties and Functions. Ministry of Education, Ghana (no date).

Organiser, Ministry of Education at Accra. Not only is he responsible for the supervision, collection and the spending of sports fees collected from the pupils, but he also ensures that monies handed over to District/Zonal sports Secretaries are properly accounted for.

As the demand for P.E. specialists for the secondary and training colleges became fully satisfied, the need to focus attention on the Elementary schools became more pressing, especially at a period when competitions of all kinds were vigorously encouraged in schools by the government, through the establishment of National Sports Festivals. Unfortunately, the number of Elementary Schools in Ghana far exceeded the ability of the P.E. Institution to provide qualified specialists for each elementary school. The interim policy of the government was to appoint Detached P.E. Teachers to the Regions and the Districts. Professional men and women were allocated to six schools initially to take Physical Education lessons (Physical exercises) and games in the schools. They were not inspectors of the schools but teachers of P.E. and games specifically, and other general duties that would be added by the District Officer from time to time.

The programme for the work in the six schools under the responsibility of the detached teachers was determined and assigned by the Regional Physical Education Organiser. The instructions and functions clearly laid down included guidelines on dressing, behaviour and the general approach to the specified duties.<sup>(55)</sup> Specifically, they (the detached teachers) assist teachers to correctly interpret current school textbooks on P.E. and Games, help teachers in the preparation of

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(55) Ministry of Education - The Functions of a Detached Physical Education Teacher. Eastern Region, Ghana (see Appendix for detailed report).

their lesson notes, give demonstration lessons, teach games skills and organise games in general. Other equally important duties include assistance in the construction of games courts and pitches, and advice on their maintenance, teaching the techniques of refereeing and umpiring to teachers, and organising sports meetings within a school and among schools, as well as organising P.E. displays when necessary. During those periods when he is not engaged in any practical lessons in class, his spare time is devoted to making improvised P.E. and games apparatus during Handwork/Woodwork/Craft periods with a section of the class.

A general appraisal of the duties and functions of these personnel indicates that Ghana established a rather rigid form of P.E., different to the British system. Whereas in Britain the P.E. teacher enjoys greater autonomy in the selection and choice of activities, teachers in Ghana are often slaves to recommended syllabus and routine established by the Inspectorate section of the Ministry of Education. Whilst conforming to the Ministry's instructions does not offer any problem to the qualified P.E. teacher, it is obvious that the ordinary classroom teachers, most of whom are untrained, experience grave difficulties, both in the teaching and interpretation of lessons contained in some text books. For instance, when the government recommended the textbook Physical Education for Primary Schools, by Huntley, all schools were expected to judiciously follow the arrangement of exercises in the order in which they appeared in the textbook. It was possible to find the same lesson being taught in all the schools in the country during the same week. As to whether this procedure was bad or not is outside the scope of this study.

Whenever a new P.E. textbook was published, unless recommended by the government, no account was accorded the content, and no relevant ideas incorporated into the existing programme. The limitation in scope

of the individual teacher's initiative and creativity resulted in the less adventurous approach and lack of application of new techniques in Ghanaian schools, and the symptomatic lack of interest in planning for innovation and the devising of new methods. The main aim of P.E. in the country was to train children to a high level of performance in games and sports.

That this concept of competition sprang from the British, capitalist, system cannot be denied, though it must be acknowledged that the Ghanaians, by nature, are almost always competition conscious. Competition was adhered to in British schools after the fifties, but after a series of public debates and criticisms, emphasis on playing to win at all costs was greatly diminished, in favour of encouraging 'fair play'. Unfortunately Ghana does not as yet appear to have reached the same stage.

Although competition organised under healthy auspices has tremendous impact on the development of sound citizens, it is equally true that an exaggerated emphasis on competition, especially in schools and among younger children can have a devastating influence; both upon the individual and in conditioning the majority to accept themselves as failures in life, with the attendant social problems consequential to such distorted perception.

It was fear of these adverse effects of intensive competition that raised storms of protest among the English populace during the period, evidence of which can be found in many publications.

At this point it must be concluded that the establishment of the P.E. course in Ghana has done much to encourage the growth and development of P.E. in the country. Initially, between 20 and 30 specialists were turned out annually. This number increased from 1959 up to 1978 when the department was moved to Winneba. Within this period the

Department turned out over 400 graduates. A careful analysis of the overall examination achievements of the school indicate that a greater number of graduates fell within the second class group (both upper and lower) of certificate awards. Those who qualify from Ghana are readily accepted in America and British schools to undertake higher studies like Advanced Diploma P.E., Masters and the Ph.D. programmes. So far, two students of the Department are pursuing their doctoral studies in America and Britain respectively.

The problem of the P.E. department at the moment are many and complex. They range from inadequate facilities and equipment, books and finance. As far as students are concerned, rigid entry requirements have considerably narrowed the number of applicants from whom selection is made. What appears to be the main problem is the strict emphasis placed on science for applicants who wish to enter the department. Owing to the great demand for science students in many walks of Ghanaian life, those who obtained the requisite grades in the subject either preferred to take higher studies in science or to enter other professions which have higher status and better prospects. Rather unfortunately, P.E. in Ghana has lower status and poor remuneration. At the opportune time, the problems of P.E. in Ghana will be discussed fully.

Recommendations from external examiners point to major changes needed to achieve the desired goals of P.E. The Africanization of the content of the syllabus is being planned by the infusing of cultural activities and youth programmes, to make P.E. less competitive and more enjoyable. National demand for success in international events, coupled with emphasis on inter-school, inter-college and national competitions have forced administrators and qualified teachers to concentrate more on producing winners, at the expense of a general programme to benefit all children.

The nature and structure of competitions in Ghanaian schools makes it difficult to achieve the educational goals of P.E. in the correct balance. Future programmes need to be geared towards methods that cater for a larger segment of the community. Some of the practises have been the result of the earlier impact on existing traditional and cultural activities, whilst others have been adapted by Ghana as they proved to offer challenging situations and captivating appeal to the public.

Ghana has, on the whole, adapted satisfactorily to the impact of British culture. The task that remains is to tease out those fragments of traditional culture that have proved appealing and of value in themselves and discover the ways and means of harmoniously blending the two systems together. This view has been expressed in many quarters and there is an obvious need to set the wheels of research in rapid motion towards the realisation of this objective.

Unfortunately, sustained research in this field, particularly in Ghana, is still lacking. Hopefully, future generations will be encouraged to take up the task from where this work leaves it.

## CHAPTER V

### Development of P.E. Post Independence Era

Political consciousness was overwhelmingly aroused in Ghana by the achievement of independence in 1957. By this period, the nation's interest in Sports and Games had reached a height unparalleled in the country's history. The establishment of the Gold Coast Amateur Sports Association (G.C.A.S.A.) by the Sports Council Ordinance No.14 of 7th April 1952 had marked the first official and legal effort by the Central Government to organise and promote amateur sports in the country.

With the enactment of the G.C.A.S.A. Ordinance, fresh attempts were made to improve the organisation and administration of Sports in the country as a whole. However, owing to inadequate Central Government grants, the machinery set up to achieve national Sports for all could not generate the desired mass participation. There was the lack of facilities, equipment and sufficient trained personnel. These problems in various ways hampered the national enthusiasm in Sports development.

However, soon after independence, vigorous attempts were made by the Central Government to rectify the wrongs that had plagued P.E. in Ghana. On outlining the government's policy on sports and physical education, Nkrumah said:

... In the field of Sports, it is the concern of my government that an independent Gold Coast shall stand to none, and it is our intention to encourage national competitions which will produce sportsmen and athletes for national and international contests. These competitions must run through the entire educational system in order to provide us with continuous supplies of distinguished sportsmen. (1)

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(1) Kkrumah, K., I Speak of Freedom, Heinemann, 1961, p.58.

A perusal of Nkrumah's objectives for developing Sports and P.E. in Ghana shows a change in emphasis about the aims of sporting activities post colonial era. Attention was shifted from the hitherto recreational and health values to a more political and social outlook. New strategies and techniques of administration were to be employed to cope with the evolving nationalism that characterised the struggle for independence.

Having declared publicly that international achievement in Sports was the aspiration of the government, an accelerated programme was designed to enhance the rapid manifestation of that dream. As a first step, Nkrumah caused the establishment of the Central Organisation of Sports (C.O.S.) with the following message to the nation:

... On July 1st, 1960, the day of our Republic, it dawned upon me that a more positive attitude should be taken in Ghana to ensure that within the shortest possible time, our young nation takes her rightful place among the great sports nations of the world. I accordingly set up the Central Organisation of Sports and charge its Director, Mr. Ohene Djan with the responsibility of working out an effective accelerated programme to hasten the dawn of that day.

... I also commission the Director to go into the regions, towns, villages, schools and colleges and stir interest in the new approach to sports in Ghana. The Central Organisation of Sports has been established to develop Ghana Sports in its entirety, both amateur and professional.

The 'de facto' establishment of the C.O.S. by Nkrumah aimed basically at:

- (a) Evolving a new plan for the rapid promotion of amateur and professional sports,
- (b) Developing sporting performance to a height comparable to the best sporting nations in the world, and, above all,
- (c) Encouraging and promoting mass participation in Sports as a result of efforts to be generated by the C.O.S.

The new director of Sports was given unlimited power to administer sports in Ghana and was assured of the President's personal backing and support. Furthermore, a large amount of financial assistance came from the central government to aid the new establishment. Nkrumah's own interest in sports coupled with his ambition that Ghana should excel in international competitions was made manifest from his personal support and concern for the new generation of Sportsmen and Women that were produced.

As a second measure to realising the aims of the government in P.E. and sports, the President of the State ordered the Minister of Education, Dowuonah-Hammond to inaugurate the Schools and Colleges Sports Federation on 4th November 1961. In his inaugural address, Dowuanah Hammond asserted that the Federation offered the surest way to Ghana's early entry into world class sports.<sup>(2)</sup> It was also the view of the Minister of Education that Ghanaian stars of tomorrow must be 'caught young meticulously polished and carefully nurtured through competitive sport, to heroic achievements.'<sup>(3)</sup>

The objective of the Schools and Colleges Sports Federation (S.C.S.F.) was spelt out by the Hon. Minister in his address which stressed that it would be the task of the appointed officials to do the following:

- (a) Organise and develop sporting competitions throughout all  
Secondary and Technical Schools and Training Colleges;

(2) Dowuonah-Hammond, A.J., Inaugural Address of the Schools and Colleges Sports Federation, Accra, 4th November 1961.

(3) Ibid.

- (b) Devise programmes to cover these institutions to ensure that all students benefited from Physical Education and competitive sport, and to
- (c) Produce as a result a generation of stronger and healthier students exposed to the principles of good sportsmanship.<sup>(4)</sup>

In order to dispel the well-established misconceptions that Ghanaians still held about the values of sports and games in the school curriculum, the Minister stated:

... I have been greatly shocked by the attitude of some few educationists in Ghana that academic work and sports and games are incompatible. In fact, there is ample evidence from U.S.A. and the Soviet Union to convince Osagefo (President Nkrumah) and the C.P.P. (Convention Peoples Party) Government that a judicious marriage between classroom work and sports and games produces healthy, responsible and productive citizens for the service of a nation. <sup>(5)</sup>

The Director of Sports, Ohene Djan, was made the Executive Director of a Standing Committee of nine prominent sports personalities who were to act as the main policy-making and co-ordinating body with the over-all responsibility for the development and organisation of all sports and games of the Federation.

A month after its inauguration, the Minister of Education sent official letters to all the institutions in Ghana, outlining in greater detail the purposes and role of the Federation. It emphasised the need for competitive sports among the schools and colleges and directed that from January 1 1962 the Schools and Colleges Sports Federation should be the only competent body to run sports schedules in the country.<sup>(6)</sup>

(4) Ibid.

(5) Ibid.

(6) Circular to Secondary and Technical Schools and Training Colleges on 'Schools and Colleges Sports Federation'. December 1961, para. 4.

Two days after sending the circular to the schools and colleges the Minister of Education, in a Press Conference, outlined a programme of Sports Activities for the school year on the following termly basis:

1st Term: Boys: Hockey, Cricket, Table Tennis  
Girls: Hockey and Table Tennis

2nd Term: Boys: Athletics, Cricket  
Girls: Athletics

3rd Term: Boys: Soccer, Table Tennis and Cross Country  
Girls: Athletics.

As part of the organisational strategies for promoting efficiency in the control of details about the work of the S.C.F.S. the National Committee set up a sub-committee to formulate plans for the Federation. It was recommended that regional working committees should be set up for immediate implementation of the Federation's policies. To this end, some Headmasters and Principals of schools and colleges were appointed as heads for the Committees that were established in all the eight regions of Ghana. The Regional Organisers of C.O.S. were appointed Executive Secretaries of their respective regional Working Committees of the Federation to co-ordinate the activities of the Federation with the national sports body, C.O.S.

#### Sports Organisation of S.C.S.F.

From the programme of activities outlined for the Federation, the following sporting activities were to be played and competitions held in them during the academic year: Hockey, Soccer, Athletics, Cricket, Netball and Table Tennis. Cricket had limited facilities in most schools and therefore was not entered among the games in which competitions were to be organised at national level, among the schools and colleges. Before the commencement of each term, the Regional Committees of the Association met to draw up schedules for competition in the

prescribed activity for the term. These regional schools competitions aimed at selecting champions from each region to compete at National Championships usually held during Easter holidays. National Championships were held to choose the cream of well-bred sportsmen in the schools and colleges for the nation. Such athletes and sportsmen from the Regions were camped and trained under qualified P.E. instructors before the national championships.

In athletics, the first two winners in each event at regional level represented their regions in the national championships. Schools and Colleges were not represented in full at the National Championships, but athletes who qualified for the national finals continued to compete in their respective school or college colours, and any points they scored were credited to their respective institution. The school or college with the highest number of points at the end of the competition received the celebrated Presidential Trophy, specially presented by the President of State. Apart from the Special Presidential Trophy, each event had its own trophy which was awarded to the school or college which produced the winner of the particular event.

By awarding points and trophies to representative schools instead of the Regions at National Championships, it was hoped to boost the interest of the particular schools and colleges so that they would produce more athletes for the future. It also enhanced the prestige of the institutions, particularly their headmasters and principals, for producing competent athletes. In some measure, this subtle method encouraged many heads of institutions to allocate a sizeable proportion of their finance to improving sporting activities in their establishments. Some schools became identified as heroes for producing athletes for the nation and often benefited by obtaining greater favour in the allocation of government grants for its general development. The influence and the

publicity by the media about sporting achievements of the institutions producing good athletes also attracted many new entrants to such establishments. At its highest level, some schools developed the habit of offering the type of American sports scholarships to promising athletes and sportsmen, but this practice was not widespread.

The first five years of the 1960's witnessed the keenest and perhaps the most intensive sports competitions in the history of Ghanaian educational institutions. Relentless efforts were put in by all members of educational institutions to give sports and games a national recognition. The S.C.S.F. therefore remained a well-oiled piece of machinery for pressurising the institutions to produce national athletes under the pressure-cooker of competitive sports designed to involve all institutions in the country.

Of the achievement of the S.C.S.F., Osei-Antwi<sup>(7)</sup> states:

... Besides aiming at making good the many deficiencies and failures of past organisation, the Federation, by virtue of its association with the Central Organisation of Sport, successfully incorporated Schools sports into the forefront of the National Sports revolution, thus lending it the requisite dynamic impetus necessary to yield better results.

After the euphoria that followed the formation of the S.C.S.F., it became apparent after two years that its organisational and administrative mechanisms were unable to deal effectively with the ensuing problems generated by the general set-up of the Federation. Many complaints were launched against its activities from many parts of the country. Major among the catalogue of accusations was the feeling of a dictatorial influence by the C.O.S. and the rapidly diminishing role of the schools and colleges in directing the major operations of the

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(7) Osei-Antwi, E.B., The Schools and Colleges Sports Federation, Diploma dissertation, Winneba, Ghana, 1967, p.70.

Federation themselves. Discontent about what appeared to be an unbearably obstructive influence of the C.O.S. reached its height in May 1964, when the Conference of Heads of Assisted Secondary Schools sent a memorandum to the Minister of Education demanding the re-organisation of the Federation. The criticisms embodied in the memorandum revealed that the Conference was deeply displeased with the general organisation and arrangements of the Federation's sporting activities. Complaints underlined in the memorandum indicated that in most cases, arrangements for matches were either left too late, or the information for changes were usually unduly delayed. Furthermore, in some cases, fixtures for matches were published rather late while times allocated for matches often failed to take into account the daily routine of schools. There were instances when school matches were scheduled to commence at 2.30 pm, when it was the routine in most institutions that lunch-time was about 2.00 pm.

Other allegations included the lack of consultation with Heads of Schools in fixing matches, the increasing number of hours some students and pupils lost for their school work and the growing trend towards commercialising competitions of the Federation, coupled with the introduction of outside influences which appeared detrimental to the moral education of the pupils.<sup>(8)</sup>

To arrest these unfavourable conditions, the Heads of Assisted Secondary Schools proposed some general and specific principles for future adoption. They sought autonomy to control the Federation's sporting activities and policy making, and also suggested that the C.O.S. must

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(8) Memorandum submitted to the Minister-in-Charge of Sports on Re-organisation of the Schools and Colleges Sports Federation. By Heads of Assisted Secondary Schools, Ghana, 27th May 1964.

play nothing more than an advisory role in the Federation, and to place at the Federation's disposal its personnel and facilities when it needed them. (9)

In addition to these proposals, new arrangements for National and Regional committees set up to run the Federation were comprehensively outlined. It gave the composition and nature of activities each committee was to perform. After making some general recommendations, the Conference expressed the hope that if their proposals were accepted and implemented it would produce 'effective Federation' capable of operating within the framework of educational institutions in the country and able to keep up the ideals of the institutions, while at the same time bringing about a rebirth of enthusiasm among students and teachers in school and college sports and games. (10) An appendix to the memorandum outlined concrete proposals for the effective and harmonious organisation of Institutional Sports and Games in Ghana.

Three months after the submission of the Memorandum by the Heads of Assisted Secondary Schools (H.A.S.S.), the Minister of Education, Hon. Kwaku Boateng, requested a meeting between his Ministry and the representatives of H.A.S.S. and the C.O.S. Following that meeting, an ad hoc committee was set up to work out details of the proposals submitted by H.A.S.S. to the Minister. The ad hoc committee agreed in principle to the memorandum presented by H.A.S.S. and formulated new proposals which abrogated the hitherto unlimited control that the C.O.S. had asserted on the administration of the Federation. Autonomy in organisation and administration was shifted to the Federation with the

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(9) Memorandum submitted on behalf of the Conference of Heads of Assisted Secondary Schools for the Re-organisation of the Schools and Colleges Sports Federation to the Minister-in-Charge of Sports, Ghana, 27th May 1964.

(10) Ibid.

C.O.S. assuming only an advisory role.

The modified Schools and Colleges Sports Federation remained active until its name was changed into Schools and Colleges Sports Association following the overthrow of the Nkrumah regime in 1966. The change of name came as a result of other sweeping changes that occurred in the arena of sports administration in Ghana. Before Nkrumah's government was deposed by a military coup, the Schools and Colleges Sports Federation had introduced a National Sports Festival system into their programme.

The first National Sports Festival for Schools and Colleges was held at the end of 1965/66 academic year. It started first with soccer when each region was requested to select a regional soccer team from their array of footballers, for an Inter-Regional Football Festival to be organised at Accra. Each of the eight regions selected a team and trained them at their regional head-quarters for the Festival which lasted for about a week. The National Regional Champion was crowned at the end of the Festival which was competed by nine teams with Accra acting as one region. Following the success of the football competitions, it was decided to expand the sporting activities to include Hockey, Table Tennis and Netball. One notable outcome of the Sports Festival was that it offered an excellent opportunity to select good sportsmen and women to form the national student team known as the Academicals. The Academicals often played international matches against neighbouring African States, particularly Nigeria and Togoland.

An annual report of the Ministry of Education in Ghana in 1968/71 sums up the importance that the government placed on Institutional Sports and Games. Part of the Report<sup>(11)</sup> reads:

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(11) Ministry of Education, Education Report, 1968/71, Ghana Publishing Corporation, Accra, 1971, p.114.

... Regional and District Organisers encouraged and promoted competitions in the various sports and games in all schools and colleges in the country, in close collaboration with the staff of the Sports Council Secretariat. In addition, they have encouraged the formation of Sports Associations in the primary and middle schools whose inter-zonal, inter-district and inter-regional level of sporting competitions have become a regular and exciting feature of the elementary school calendar. Similar associations and competitions have become an integral part of P.E. programmes of secondary schools and training colleges.

Sports competitions as discussed above were not limited to the secondary schools and training colleges alone but started from the elementary schools. A similar organisation to the secondary schools was formed in the early 1960's known as Elementary Schools Sports Association. Like its counterpart in the secondary and training institutions, it also organised sports festivals at all levels.

National competition among the elementary schools was not instituted in Ghana until after mid 1960. There were inter-school competitions which were vigorously contested for in the different regions but this never grew to national level. However, in 1966 a Sports Festival was organised involving three Regions: Volta Region, Brong Ahafo, and Ashanti at the Volta Region. The success achieved in this Elementary Schools Festival attracted many observers including the then President of State, Lt. Gen. Kotoka.

In the same year (1966) the Commissioner of Education requested that a crash programme for National Elementary Schools Sports Festival be designed and held at Accra. It was to involve three sporting activities - soccer (boys), Netball (girls) and Athletics for both sexes. A trophy was to be presented for the winner in each of the events. Meanwhile, triangular Sports Festivals were held among the three regions already mentioned. The first three trophies for 1966 were all collected by the Volta Region.

In 1971, the First All Elementary School Sports Festival took place in Kumasi. This festival became an annual affair and was held at Ho in 1972 and Sunyani the following year. In many respects, these competitions were popular and attracted great crowds and many participants. While many enjoyed watching these games and sports, some parents became apprehensive about the intensity of the rivalry involved. It was evident that children who were too young to appreciate the real value of competitions were being trained in their schools to turn professional at too early an age for it to be desirable.

The national sports festival was the pinnacle of a series of zonal, sub-zonal, district and inter-district competitions that were held in the regions to select teams to represent them at national level. At the lowest level, competitions were held in different localities conveniently grouped into sub-zones, and usually comprising of ten schools in each sub-zone. Promising performers were selected to represent the zone in the district. From the results of the zonal competitions, athletes were chosen to represent the districts in the region (usually not less than six districts in each region).

At the district level, the best athletes were picked up for camping under the expertise of the District P.E. Organiser and some games masters from the district. Pupils selected from the sub-zones to represent the district received tuition in schools where they were camped. They trained under the P.E. Organisers in the mornings and the evenings, for a period of one week or more. They competed at the inter-district competitions usually held at regional capitals. The results of the inter-district competitions determined the composition of the Regional team for National Championship.

At Regional level the Organisers of Sports take up the final

training and camping of their sports representatives for the National Festival. The glory for winning the national competition goes to the regional and district educational heads rather than the schools.

Finance for these numerous sporting competitions in both Elementary and Secondary Schools came from sports fees and government grants. Of the amount that accrues from sports fees, one-third is given to the schools and the rest divided to the District and Zonal organisations to meet the cost and expenses for training, camping and transport expenses of athletes.

As an incentive to promising athletes in the schools, the government instituted a Three Star Award. Those who qualified for the award were expected to reach a certain minimum of attainment in three athletic events: either one track and two field events, or vice versa. A pupil who attains the required level of performance first informs his teachers, who in turn tell the headteacher to submit an application to the Regional P.E. Organiser through the District P.E. Organiser for testing to be effected. After the Regional P.E. Organiser or his representative has satisfied himself about the child's attainment, a certificate is issued to the child for two years' free admission to any of the country's sports stadia. Other awards include badges and sports training equipment.

The Three Star Award is graduated to meet varying standards at all age groups, starting from Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, Training Colleges and Universities. Such awards are presented to deserving pupils at a fitting ceremony, at a District or Regional or National Sports Festival. It may be recalled that in the 1950's the Duke of Edinburgh's Award Scheme in England aimed at stimulating school children above 14 years in four aspects of achievement including fitness.<sup>(12)</sup>

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(12) Duke of Edinburgh's Award Office, The Gauntlet Bryanston Street, London W1, 1959, pp.16-19.

After independence, school sports in Ghana have become a seed bed from which most that is best in the country's life can be nurtured. Demands for national prestige associated with successful sportsmen and women being regarded as 'ambassadors' of the country have put tremendous pressure upon schools and colleges, from the Ministry of Education, to produce in the rising generation the basis of skilled performance upon which champions depend. Much of the pupils' and students' time has been taken up in inter-district, inter-regional and national sporting competitions. Sports and games in Ghanaian schools were no longer a question of P.E. as conceived during the colonial regime, but a well supported and adored scheme planned by the Government for achieving many aims; paramount among them is international recognition and all that is associated with it. That sportsmasters and coaches are being over-worked in bringing this scheme to manifestation cannot be denied. As to the advantages and disadvantages associated with this scheme, debate still continues.

Even though many scholars would agree with McIntosh that 'there are few governments in the world who do not accept the political importance of success in international sport',<sup>(13)</sup> yet few would seem to support the view that intensive competition in schools is the ideal way of attaining this objective. What is clear from what has been happening in Ghana is that many forces outside the country have helped to influence the government's strong emphasis on Sports.

For instance, in a Conference held in London by African students in 1963, a Manifesto which was drawn up contained a resolution which urged that:

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(13) McIntosh, P., Sport and Safety, C.A. Watts Co. Ltd, 1963, p.199.

... in view of the fact that Sports can be a potent medium for the effective assertion of the African personality, a committee for the organisation of pan-African games be set up. (14)

Before this period, in 1948, the first Pan African Congress had advocated for the development and encouragement of cultural life by the provision of community centres and playing fields.<sup>(15)</sup> Nkrumah who was a keen advocate for Pan Africa movements was influenced greatly by these suggestions.

The Ghana government saw the promotion of sports in schools and colleges particularly in the Universities as rich pastures for breeding and recruiting national athletes. However, it was not until April 12 1971 that the African University Sports body was founded. The Ghana government, aware of its political importance, agreed to stage the first University games in the country. In his account of the history of the All-African University Games, Kodzi<sup>(16)</sup> writes:

... The Ghana Government, conscious of the importance of such international meetings, willingly and readily granted the Organising Committee \$95,000 (£45,000) to run the Games.

Furthermore, Ghanaians' attitude to sports, particularly post 1970, was given greater impetus by the Rabat Declaration, which among other things outlined the following values of Sport and P.E.:

... Sport is understood to be a universal medium for the development of individuals, groups, communities and nations.

... It can be used in the development of social and political

(14) All-African Students of Europe Conference, Manifesto, London 1963, Resolution No.10.

(15) Padmore, G. (ed.), History of the Pan African Congress, 23rd Resolution, 1952, p.61.

(16) Kodzi, E.T., History of the All-Africa University Games, Cape Coast University, Ghana, 1974.

consciousness and it is an essential part of culture and lifelong education. It can contribute towards the creation of a feeling of national identity and can help to promote understanding between different ethnic groups and nations.

... Because of its universal popularity, it can be a medium for reaching millions of people with both the message of fair play in sports and that of general development ... Sport gives a powerful impetus to the development of communications between African countries and with the world at large. (17)

These values formed the basis upon which some African nations were motivated into investing their resources for sports development.

Although the motivating mechanisms that influence the promotion of sports and games in every country are varied and diversely shaped it is hard to deny that the potential power, the economic and political gains and the dynamic social influences of sports and games can be underrated.

As far back as 1956, UNESCO drew attention to the increasing politicalization of international sport which was developing, to the extent that the Olympic Games were being regarded by many as merely a testing ground for the two great political units. Abraham Ordia (President of the Supreme Council of Sports in Africa) acknowledged that 'sports in Africa is somewhat a political factor of the first order.'<sup>(18)</sup> African countries, according to Ordia, view Sport and All African Games as a very genuine means of fostering friendship, unity and brotherhood among all African nations.<sup>(19)</sup>

There is considerable evidence to support that many countries directly or indirectly nurtured political ideas behind their sports promotion; the degree of such involvement may be relative but nevertheless exists.

(17) Rabat Declaration, 'Sports in Africa', L.C.S.P.E. Study Group on Sports and Development, April 24th 1971.

(18) Ordia, A., History of All African Games, Ebele and Chinye Co., Lagos, 1973, p.5.

(19) Ibid.

For instance, after the 1912 Olympic Games, a writer complained about the successive English poor performance in the Games. F.A.M.

Webster was alleged to have stated:

... For remember we are a nation holding vaster possessions overseas than any other country ever has held, and once let us lose our dominion and we sink to the level of the least of the European peoples. (20)

This proposal sought to stimulate governmental concern to redeem British failures and to promote future success in Olympic Games. It was considered improper by the government at the time because of its political motive. However, when on the 6th of May 1945 Roger Bannister became the first man to run the mile in under four minutes, at Oxford, he soon afterwards, at the instigation of the British Foreign Office, departed on a 'good will' visit to the United States. On the 17th May 1945, in the House of Commons, and in an answer to a question from a member on the issue Selwyn Lloyd replied that the Foreign Office had been glad to ask Bannister to accept an invitation to the United States because it was felt that nothing but good to Anglo-American relations would result. It was also confirmed that her Majesty's Government assumed full financial responsibility for Bannister's visit. Later Report indicated that the visit was a decided success.<sup>(21)</sup> In the same way, 'U.S. States Department has spent millions of dollars sending "sports ambassadors" to developing countries.'<sup>(22)</sup>

During the early Republic, Ghana's approach to the development of

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(20) Britain in the World of Sport, Brew and Hopwood Ltd., Birmingham Staff P.E. Dept. (ed.), 1956, p.4.

(21) Ibid., pp.10-12.

(22) Nolan, L., 'Politics, Money and the Olympic Games', The Plain Truth Magazine, Ambassador Press, St. Albans, June 1976, p.16.

nationalism seemed to follow a system whereby great importance was placed on indoctrinating the youth to satisfy the aims of the state. Such a strategy was adopted by Nkrumah in establishing the Young Pioneers' Movement which corresponded to the Soviet Sport School for Youth.<sup>(23)</sup> Of the Young Pioneers' Organisation Nkrumah stated that:

... Physical training plays an important part in the movement to teach the virtues of team work and the need to build healthy bodies and minds. (24)

Nkrumah's determination to support P.E. and Sports is further reflected in many statements made about sports. He wrote:

... The National Sports Council has the full support of the government. Self government in Ghana means a richer and fuller life, which cannot be attained without the spirit of fair play and enterprise which sports can provide. (25)

At the height of its support, the government of Ghana gave much financial assistance for facilities, awards and sports competitions. After independence, many ambitious schemes of community development and social welfare were begun by the government. Through self help, many schemes involving the provision of playing fields were started. This resulted in a network of playing fields at village, city and regional level.<sup>(26)</sup> During the early 1960's Rivkin observed:

... One important element of the building boom which has afflicted Accra, and some of the signs are to be found elsewhere is government financed construction of public buildings, community centres and recreational facilities. (27)

(23) Morton, H.W., Soviet Sport, Colher Books, New York, 1963, p.46.

(24) Nkrumah, K., Africa Must Unite, Heinemann, 1963, p.100.

(25) Nkrumah, K., I Speak of Freedom, Heinemann, 1961, p.58.

(26) Ghana Reconstructs, Government Printer, Accra, Vol.4, No.6.

(27) Rivkin, A., The African Presence in World Affairs, Free Press of Glencoe, New York, 1963, p.121.

The period from 1957 to 1975 could aptly be described as the new era of Ghanaian P.E. During this time, many changes occurred which were associated with nationalism, and sport was used as a weapon to weld the various tribes of Ghana together - it brought about a sense of unity and brotherhood which African States were relentlessly pursuing. Socially and politically, P.E. and sports helped to knit the people of Ghana together for the struggle for national reconstruction. While the basic British ideals remained unchanged in many ways, new ideals and values were evolved in response to national needs and aspirations. While some of the methods used may be criticised in many ways, yet viewing the prevailing trends in perspective, one can develop some sympathy towards the views and procedures adopted to achieve the stated goals. Many writers feel that new nations need to pursue such aims.

Horn has illustrated that P.E. and sport in emerging nations can contribute to health education, the growth of individual achievement, the encouragement of social and national integration, the promotion of a national identity, the maintenance of cultural traditions, a means of international recognition, and an avenue for social mobility.<sup>(28)</sup>

... Anthony<sup>(29)</sup> has argued that P.E. and Sport are potentially powerful weapons in the struggle for social progress and that such an instrument for accelerating development cannot be ignored.

A short account of sporting activities in Ghana post independence would suggest that Ghanaians have fully endorsed almost all the games and

(28) Horn, R., 'The Role of P.E. in Developing Nations', quoted by Fox, N., 'Progress in the Third World' in Gymnasium International Journal of P.E., Vol.XV, No.3, 1978, p.37.

(29) Anthony, D.W.J., The Role of P.E. and Sports in Developing Countries, Ph.D. thesis, University of Leicester, 1971, Ch.5.

sports they inherited from British colonial administration. For instance, a game like soccer has become the most popular national sport. Ghana's fame in this game has gone far beyond her boundaries. Soon after independence, many world-class football clubs have played in the country while the national team and clubs have also travelled to play in other countries. After winning the African Cup in 1963, Ghana successfully defended it two years later. However she lost the Cup in 1967 and failed to regain it in 1970, even though she reached the final on both occasions and received silver medals. Ghana again won the African Cup in Lybia this year.

Ghanaian clubs have features prominently in the Annual African Football Club Championship competitions. In 1970, the champion club of the nation, Asante Kotoko won the African Clubs Cup. Many Ghanaian players have also attained international recognition. In 1971 Robert Mensah and Ibrahim Sunday were two of the three African footballers adjudged the best in Africa. During the same period three footballers from the country were included in the African team that took part in the 'Mini-World-Cup' matches played in Brazil and in Mexico during 1973. Ghana was among the sixteen nations which qualified for the Montreal Olympics in 1976 but she refused to take part in the competition because of the participation of New Zealand which had sporting links with apartheid South Africa. Her withdrawal was linked with other African and Arab nations which withdrew from the Olympics for the same reason.

Next to football in popularity was boxing at which Ghana made her debut in the Rome Olympic Games in 1960, and received a silver medal. In the Commonwealth Games held in Perth, Australia in 1962, she won two gold and four silver medals. By 1966, Ghana was recognised as the best boxing nation in Africa. At the Kingston Commonwealth Games, Ghana won three gold, two silver and two bonze medals. While in the

Commonwealth Games in Edinburgh, she gained two gold and two bronze medals. Ghana's popularity in boxing in other international competitions was tremendous; she shared the first place with U.S.A. in her maiden appearance in the World Military Games in 1970 and occupied the second place after U.S.A. in the 1971 games. As regards professional boxing, Ghana had, on various occasions, won African, Commonwealth and World titles. Four Ghanaians had, by 1975, won Commonwealth Championships and two, the African Continental titles. The height of her glory in Boxing was achieved in 1975 when Poison won the first world title in the Featherweight division. David Kotei Poison twice defended the World Featherweight title successfully in Accra and Tokyo before he lost it in his third defence.

Athletics was another sport that had a nationwide appeal, particularly in the schools. Amateur athletics in their nascent stages were essentially part of the effort of Elementary and Secondary Schools and Teacher Training Colleges, which side by side with the aim of keeping their pupils in a condition of physical fitness, also promoted inter-school athletic competitions and football matches. These inter-institutional fixtures soon became popular annual fixtures.<sup>(30)</sup>

Ghana has featured in all the Olympic Games since 1952, except the 1976 Games at Montreal. She has also taken part in the Commonwealth Games since 1954. At the Kingston Games, Ghana broke two Commonwealth Games records: 200 metres in 20.6 seconds, and 4 x 100 metres relay in 39.8 seconds. In 1972 a Ghanaian athlete, Alice Anum, became the first African female sprinter to reach the 100 metres final and was placed sixth in the Munich Olympic Games; Alice Anum had earlier won

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(30) Deku, A.K., Sports Development and Organisation in Ghana, Ghana Publishing Corporation, Accra, 1969, p.2.

two silver medals in the 1970 Commonwealth Games. At the Second All-Africa Games held in Lagos, Ghana shared the highest honour with Kenya by winning seven gold medals each.

While other sports and games continue to gain popularity, hockey has not had the same national appeal as those already described. Hockey has been played in schools since the beginning of this century, and has had most of its followers from the Armed and Police forces. While local competitions in schools and at club levels have increased since independence, it was only in 1975 that Ghana won her greatest international tournament - the African Continental Championship. This placed her among the twelve finalists of the World Championships in Kuala-Lumpur, Malaysia, where her team earned the recognition and title of the best behaved side in the tournament; a title which fittingly describes the degree of sportsmanship Ghanaians learnt from their British Colonial masters who introduced the game into the country.

Perhaps one game that has gained tremendous support and popularity in Ghanaian schools and colleges after independence is table tennis. The schools and colleges Sports Federation holds regular championships in this sporting activity. Internationally, Ghana won all the seven trophies in the 11th West African Championships which took place in Accra in December 1966. Only three of these seven trophies were regained in 1971 during the 15th Championships held in Accra. Ghana also participated in the 1967, 1971 and 1973 World Championships in Stockholm, Munich and Japan. In addition to taking part in the Commonwealth Games since Singapore in 1971 she participated in other international competitions like the Afro-Asian Friendship Invitational Championships in Peking, China and the Asian/African/Latin American Friendship International Tournaments in Nigeria in 1975. Most of these tournaments aimed at strengthening international relationships among

the participants.

While games like basket-ball and volley-ball are fast catching on in the schools and colleges and other public institutions like the Police and Armed Forces Clubs, Ghana beat the Ivory Coast and Togoland in International Volley-ball encounters in Accra and Lome respectively during 1975.

Games and sports like Squash Raquet, Golf, Polo, Rugby, Cycling, Judo and Hand-ball are played by only a small proportion of the population. Even though Golf, Polo and Rugby were among the early activities during the colonial era, they have still not attracted much interest from the public. Lack of participation is caused by lack of finance and inadequate facilities. They are capital intensive activities and so are enjoyed only by the rich and elite. Rugby did not receive the same support as soccer, partly because it was a sport highly susceptible to injuries, and there was a lack of protective clothing. Unlike hockey where bamboo sticks and branches of trees could be used in place of actual hockey sticks, rugby required much more equipment than the average school pupil could afford.

It would seem that on the whole, Ghanaian interest in sports and games have been determined to a large extent by the degree of mass participation, the financial cost of undertaking that particular activity, and the facilities available for individual or group practice. In soccer, boxing and athletics, it was not difficult to obtain the necessary equipment or facilities. They could be practiced at no extra cost along the roads, pathways and in backyards, with little cost and minimum effort. Furthermore, these sporting activities attracted greater international following than the others. Ghana's success in these sports is partly attributed to the fact that she became associated with them at the early stages of British Colonial rule. Interest cultivated

in them has helped to place the country on the map of international sports. If these achievements since independence have anything to offer Ghana in the realms of international prestige, nationalism and internal peace and order, then it would be appropriate to conclude that the British contribution to P.E. and sports in Ghana has been worthwhile. It is the opinion of the writer that, despite the occasional ups and downs associated with the development of any profession, British influence on the development of sport and P.E. in Ghana has been tremendous and praiseworthy.

### Summary and Conclusion

The main concern of this thesis is to investigate the impact of British Colonial education upon the development of education and more specifically upon physical education in Ghana. It attempts to examine in particular, the problems and issues involved in attempting to transpose a system of education evolved in one society upon another. It covers the period from before European contact through almost one hundred years of political subjugation as a colony, and the subsequent developments following Independence.

A review of relevant literature revealed a diversity of opinion concerning the advantages and disadvantages of colonisation and colonial education. Whilst some authorities held that colonisation was a process of exploitation, some acknowledged that it was of benefit to indigenous populations and others have described the benefits as being symbiotic. Among the various criticisms made against British educational policies and programmes pursued in her colonial territories were: a lack of clearly defined objectives and policies, lack of adaptation to the needs of the colonies, and weak administration of educational policies even when they were clearly defined.

In defence of these criticisms, some scholars have argued that problems that arose out of British educational administration and policies were not wholly of her own making. The vastness of British Colonial Territories, the diversity of the socio-cultural backgrounds of their populations and the varying degrees of their political, economic and general levels of development, made it a Herculean task to formulate an educational policy which would encompass the diverse needs and aspirations of the populations. Well established British educational principles and practises were consequently transplanted into the

territories under the accepted notion that a system proven in one society would be a convenient starting point.

On the other hand, popular educational theory has indicated that an educational system that is transferred from one culture to another will not succeed unless it is adapted to the background characteristics of the society upon which it is transposed. Problems and issues associated with this theory were analogised to the transplant of a human organ from one person to another. It was apparent that in the area of cross-cultural contact and the interchange of educational systems, many complex situations could arise. Not only do different cultures react differently to outside influences, but also the same influences introduced into two countries culturally similar could have entirely different effects.

In the light of the issues raised concerning educational transfer, this study attempts to examine the development of physical education in Ghana as influenced by British colonisation. The study had three main tasks:

- (a) to catalogue the development of P.E. in Ghana since European contact;
- (b) to examine the problems associated with the transplanting of the British educational system, in particular physical education, into Ghana and the levels at which these problems occurred and how they were dealt with;
- (c) to assess the validity of the educational theory that one society could not benefit from systems practised in another society as opposed to those developed from within the former.

Evidence collected in the study has pointed to the fact that prior to colonial rule in Ghana, a system of education had evolved that differed significantly from the concept of education that had been the

feature of existing European societies. Traditional education, as it was known in Ghana, took the form of informal training by parents and other members of the extended family, clan and community. During the process the basic skills, including cultural values, religious beliefs and all things necessary for survival within the society, were passed on to the offspring through observation, demonstration, imitation and verbal instruction. Although the methods used were predominantly informal, they proved pedagogically sound and psychologically effective.

It was found that geographical influences played a major role in the occupational activities of the people, and contributed substantially to the physical development of the individual. The need to hunt successfully, take part in religious and tribal rituals, and generally cope with the testing nature of the geographical conditions, meant that the daily lifestyle of the people was extremely physically intensive. In consequence, high premium and status were accorded to physical attributes within the society. Undaunted efforts to inculcate these virtues began at infancy. The traditional society also had her own indigenous games and pastimes, of which drumming and dancing formed the most important aspect.

A general appraisal of the traditional society indicates that before European contact, they had lived a self-sufficient existence commensurate with the existing political, economic and material development of the period. They had their own various cultural activities which served to renew their strength and nurture their beliefs. They possessed in addition a system of education which was non-institutionalised but nevertheless was pedagogically sound and psychologically sound. The balance in human activity noticeable during this period was later shifted to accommodate European luxuries, imports and the influence of the Industrial Revolution.

With changes in administration and government following colonisation, a new form of education and physical education was introduced for the native population. This system of education, designed primarily to assist the growth of industrialisation, was of a highly structured formal pattern. It was a system that had its roots in a predominantly urbanised and highly industrialised society. Schools were built, teachers were imported and a curriculum was imposed that would have been appropriate to the working class children of Britain. The system of P.E. embraced within the school curriculum consisted mainly of drill evolved in Britain to combat conditions of malnutrition, postural defects and other negative symptoms arising from the typical lifestyles, as well as providing a mechanism for social control and military training.

Such a form of physical training had obvious problems in gaining acceptance as a worthwhile aspect of the school curriculum in Ghana. Parents expressed their concern for their children spending time in acquiring skills which were not immediately applicable to the betterment of their lifestyle. To begin with, their children did not suffer from those maladies that were a characteristic feature of children in overpopulated urbanised British towns and cities in the 19th century. Furthermore, compared with the relative importance of other aspects of the school curriculum, such as literacy and numeracy, physical education did not afford life career opportunities; it did not 'open the gates' to prosperous positions in the Ghanaian society.

Meanwhile, the effects of the Industrial Revolution in Britain were being gradually experienced in Ghana. The importation of British technology and the consequential improvements in the standard of living of the native population meant that it was no longer necessary to rely

on physical strength to perform most of the occupational duties that made up the lifestyle of the people. The steady improvements in the methods of transportation and communication, medical care, housing, agriculture and the importing of many British luxuries led to the undermining of the basis upon which the traditional society derived its strength for survival. Premium hitherto accorded to traditional values and physical prowess started to erode. The pressure of rapid expansion to meet the economic, political and socio-cultural needs of Ghana resulted in increasing conformity to the models originating from Britain, which had not been designed for such purposes, nor, in the view of some observers, were they well suited to the type of role they had been established to fulfil.

The ensuing social, economic, political and technological developments that rocked the nation made demands for formal education more pressing. The Ghanaians sought it not only as a means of acquiring white-collar jobs and improved means of livelihood, but also as a means of social mobility and status attainment. The Europeans gave it not only as a means of improving communication between themselves and the natives, but also as a means of recruiting suitable personnel to man the essential areas of the growing economy in which both parties had strong interests. With increasing concern for and recognition of the economic value of education the native population lost interest in manual work and the physical activities that had sustained previous generations. The aspiration to imitate the highly regarded British ways of doing things, partly the result of the lack of any suitable alternative, was greatly increased.

Carbon copies of curriculum subjects in the British schools were introduced into Ghana, and P.E. was no exception. British P.E. syllabuses for 1919 and 1933 were also readily accepted and judiciously used by

Ghanaian schools. In the same way, Boy Scouts Movements, Cadet Corps and other similar voluntary organisations that existed in British schools were established. Their aims, objectives, principles and methods of training were similarly transferred.

P.E. and sports remained an important medium in which these organisations developed in Ghana. Organised competitions arranged according to the 'House System', 'section system' or 'class system' were copied from the British model.

The effects of British impact on education were noticeable in many areas of activity, the most important being the dominance of formal schooling of the young in hierarchically ordered and highly selective systems, the prevalence of boarding institutions and the dominance of examinations and certificates.

Ghanaian educationalists, particularly those who attended further studies in Britain, resisted change in these established patterns, on the grounds that were the country's education to become significantly different from that which obtained in Britain, it would lose its international currency of acceptance.

These changes occurred at a time when P.E. as a curriculum subject was also undergoing conceptual metamorphoses, ranging from 'drill', 'Physical Training' and 'Physical Education' to 'Movement Studies'. The old system of P.E. consisting of mass participation whereby utilitarian considerations were uppermost, was being replaced in the course of the evolution by a more general form of P.E. that gave the individual pupil a facility to adapt to new situations. During this process of conceptual evolution, Ghanaian P.E. followed closely the British approach and pattern, with very little innovation. Except for the occasional use of traditional games in the P.E. lesson, no attempt was

made to devise a programme with native background. Instead the organisation and administration of sports and games were by private individuals and clubs, usually directed by foreign military personnel, civil servants, businessmen and clergy, who had previously attended boarding schools and Universities in Britain. In this way, British sports and games were constantly encouraged during the period of colonial rule.

Unlike Britain, which started to train P.E. teachers before the 20th century, Ghana had no P.E. specialist teachers until the second half of the present century. When a P.E. training institution was eventually established, all the staff had to be trained in Britain. On their return they carried with them the British methods, approach, content of syllabus and philosophies of the subject. This system helped to consolidate the teaching of the subject in relation to British principles. The qualified Ghanaian P.E. teachers from British institutions feared that were they to introduce many changes into the syllabus, the reputation and the status of the Ghanaian system, in relation to the recognised and acceptable international model, would be devalued.

When, in 1957, the Government of the Nation was restored to Ghanaians, an opportunity was provided to evolve a system of education which was more appropriate to the expertise and cultural setting of the Ghanaian people. A crash programme of educational development was launched and a new emphasis was ascribed to indigenous games and cultural activities in the new P.E. system introduced.

The national slogan laid emphasis upon 'Ghanaian Culture' and 'African Personality'. These slogans emphasised the new shift in attempting to relate the educational system widely to the cultural background of the nation. The need for cultural identify and international recognition demanded that close attention be paid to activities that enhanced these prospects.

It was apparent that no subject in the school curriculum compared with P.E. and sports in the ability to cultivate these desirable traits an emergent nation needed. It had the socialising power to unite the many cultures in the country into an indivisible nation, as well as the potentiality to improve international relations and prestige. Competitive sports fever therefore became a raging inferno at all levels of institutions in Ghana, for social, political and economic reasons.

The gradual internationalisation of sport and games offered a new perspective for the training procedures of P.E. and sports coaches. The rising popularity of sports called for a more advanced form of specialist in the subject. For P.E. teachers from Ghana to qualify for advanced studies overseas, usually in Britain, they had of necessity to possess qualifications comparable to established British Colleges.

Traditional drumming and dance were included in the school programme, but received inadequate support in the initial stages because of the lack of competent teachers to teach them. Since the subject did not form any part of the professional training of the P.E. teacher he was as unqualified to teach dance and drumming as any other member of the teaching staff. The establishment of the National Arts Council and subsequent training of suitable teachers of the subject in schools eventually integrated the traditional system with the British system.

It is apparent that the introduction of aspects of British culture into Ghanaian culture did not permanently divide the different ethnic groups in Ghana. On the contrary, formal education and European P.E. and sports have helped to bridge many of the cultural gulfs that existed before European contact. It is clear that Ghana's success in assimilating British traditions is partly attributed to the fact that the contact period was adequate to make any idea that was transplanted prove its worth or otherwise in order to command the acceptability or rejection by

the natives.

On evidence of what happened in Ghana it is apparent that all the colonial educational theories discussed had application in the country. Formal education provided certain skills if the country wanted to industrialise; it also provided skills necessary to communicate with European countries. There might have been cases of exploitation because the education was to some extent biased to prepare people in skills which helped the British economy. The early education did not teach certain things to the Ghanaians which might make the individual more aware of himself and his culture; for instance, the influx of British luxuries into Ghana in the 19th century and the lack of any teaching on how to improve and use traditional food and other items encouraged the rapid consumption of British goods with a corresponding rejection and neglect of the traditional equivalents. However, the mutual benefits that resulted from what prevailed were tremendous. In some measures the Ghanaian was transformed into another generation which was characterised by the effects of the Industrial Revolution.

On the other hand, a general appraisal of literature on education and P.E. in African countries shows a trend towards Africanization of the curriculum on achievement of independence. Most of the countries including Kenya and Tanzania have shown a trend towards a harmonious blending of inherited European traditions and practices with indigenous methods. Even though some educational and P.E. writers like Fafunwa and Adfope, both from Nigeria, have advocated for a radical approach to educational reform in preference to indigenous concepts and practices, it does not appear that radical approach is the most humane strategy. The question as to whether one type of P.E activity or lesson is better and more beneficial than another is, of course debatable. This issue

is tied up with concepts about educational relevance and irrelevance.

What really matters in the area of P.E. and sports is not so much whether the activity is culturally biased or foreign orientated, but rather whether it is satisfying to the participants and caters for their needs. Since it is impossible to satisfy every child's individual needs in a given school programme, it appears reasonable to adopt a system which not only recognises cultural heritage but is also in demand as a result of natural evolution and technological advancement. A P.E. programme must therefore be assessed on the lines of its potential to provide the aims, objectives and values that society has established. Values in this sense can be economic, political, social, physiological, personal or national, recreational or commercial.

Thus different circumstances would call for different methods and emphasis to be placed on many aspects of the subject, in accordance to the character of the communities involved. In all cases, however, P.E. should take its place as part of the normal curriculum and should be carried out without undue stress on some aspects, or neglect.

The degree to which Ghanaians have grown accustomed to British P.E. and sports can be analogised to the development of musical appreciation. The cultivation of the ability to listen to seriously conceived music without bewilderment and to hear with pleasure music of different periods, schools and varying degrees of complexity takes a long period to achieve. By dint of mere listening to sufficient music of different types and dates, a degree of knack is unconsciously acquired. In the same way, by virtue of her long association with British P.E. and sports Ghana has developed an unquenchable taste and love for British games and many aspects of recreational activity. Most people find themselves susceptible to some measure of enjoyment from some kinds of music, but the degree can be enlarged and the kinds multiplied by well-directed

training.

Ghanaians have the opportunity to enlarge the scope of the P.E. programme to incorporate the growing needs of the people. The only way whereby such a programme can be carried out is to give the P.E. teacher, the Head teachers and masters of schools and colleges the autonomy to carry out their P.E. programmes independently, outside the official rigid programmes outlined for all schools. If P.E. teachers could draw up their programmes for the schools with less emphasis on competitive games and sports, more school pupils would benefit and indeed enjoy P.E. periods than has hitherto been the case. The real values and objectives of P.E. would then be more easily appreciated and understood by the nation than the impressions which the present system commands.

One person may develop a flair for European sporting activities, another may opt for traditional recreational activities. Some P.E. programmes or activities may inspire some more easily than others. In the disinterested contemplation of which aspects of P.E. programmes should be stressed more than others, many values present themselves for either acceptance or rejection. Some P.E. programmes are valued for their own sake, and not for any philosophic, scientific, religious, historical, physiological or political values that they may convey, or any influence on conduct.

P.E. has developed to form part of the social consciousness of the Ghanaian society. English games like soccer, cricket and hockey have become national games of Ghana. Ghana holds the reputation of being the best African football nation by winning the African Cup in Tripoli this year. This achievement has helped in some measure to forge the nation's identity.

At present countries are evolving programmes of P.E. which aim not only at the development of the individual in health and sporting activities, but also as a symbol for national prestige. The new strategy which has evolved in both America and Russia has comprised introducing the young to sporting competitions at an early age in order to reach a high level of performance with a view to representing the country in international competitions. The advocates for Centres of Excellence, including Britain, hold this view of 'catching them while young'. This emphasis and current trend in sports development has to some extent enhanced the image of P.E. programmes in schools even though the status is still recognised in many circles as very low.

The high premium placed on P.E. and sports in recent times has led to the development of sophisticated methods of coaching as well as the designing and usage of expensive equipment and apparatus. The complexity of the teaching of some of the techniques coupled with the diversity of activities that can be engaged in during P.E. periods makes any standardisation either in the teaching method or events to be taught very difficult.

Part of the success of British impact and transfer of P.E. in Ghana was due to the growing international recognition of many of the games and sporting activities that they introduced.

In conclusion, this investigation has thrown new light upon the development of P.E. in Ghana. It has highlighted the ways in which a new system, based upon the needs of children in another society, was substituted for a traditional system of P.E. With the achievement of Independence, initiatives were taken to establish a system which reaped the best of traditional culture and of the Western world.

So far as educational theory is concerned, this study has emphasised

the socio-cultural determinants of a successful system of education. No established system of education, no matter how successful in the society from which it has evolved, can be imposed in its entirety successfully upon another culture. Serious attention and due consideration must necessarily be given to the historical traditions of that society, the moral values and beliefs, the existing lifestyles, career opportunities and aspirations, the expertise and finance available, the socio-economic structure of the society and the geographical and climatic conditions of the country.

There are some areas in Ghana's educational system that can be indigenised to the country's advantage; however, in the realm of P.E. and sports, international demands place greater premium upon sporting activities.

As long as indigenous sports of African origin are not developed for international competition, many emerging nations, as Ghana, will be obliged to accept and adopt national sports of alien origin as their own national sport.

Considering the progress that has been made by Ghana since Independence, one is left under no illusion that foreign games can be successfully transplanted into alien cultures, provided that facilities and expert coaching are available.

Unlike other areas of the curriculum, the acceptance of P.E. into other cultures is easier, due to the unique subject matter, appeal and performance being a natural phenomenon which transcends cultural and other barriers.

What Ghanaian education and P.E. should be and what they have been post independence has not been attributed to historical inheritance alone. The conditions and some of the factors that have given room to

the beliefs in the past do continue to exist at present and do not appear to have much to do with British colonial philosophies.

Resistance to change in Ghana has therefore been influenced not only by outside forces but also by local forces. The whole history of man has been a series of cycles of change, and Ghanaian history of education and physical education has not been an exception.

APPENDIX 1

## SCHEDULE F

EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS FOR CERTIFICATES - 1887

The examination of teachers for certificates in the Gold Coast will be held annually at towns specified in a notice previously given.

The subjects of examination will include reading, writing, arithmetic, English history, English grammar and analysis, geography, especially of the British Empire, school management, and mathematics.

**Reading:**

To read with fluency, ease, and expression, with a knowledge of the meaning, a passage from an advanced school reading-book.

**Writing:**

To write from dictation a passage given by the examiner, with examples of copy setting (large and small hands).

**Arithmetic:**

The simple rules, the compound rules, weights and measures, practice, bills of parcels, proportion (simple and compound), vulgar and decimal fractions, interest (simple and compound).

**English History:**

Outlines of English history from the conquest (1066), to the present time, with questions upon the reign of Her Imperial Majesty Queen Victoria.

**English Grammar and Analysis:**

The parsing and analysis of a complex sentence. General knowledge of the rules of English grammar.

**Geography:**

General knowledge of the physical geography of the world, with special questions upon the general geography of the British Empire and the Gold Coast.

**School Management:**

General knowledge of the working of an elementary school.

**Mathematics:**

The elements of Euclid up to and including proposition xxvi, book 1, and Algebra up to and including simple equations.

**Mensuration:**

The measurement of plane surfaces.

APPENDIX 2GHANA MINISTRY OF EDUCATION REPORT 1968-71PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The period covered by this Report has been one of consolidation and steady improvement of standards in games and sports in elementary and secondary schools and training colleges. The increase in the output of specialist physical education teachers and government's decentralisation policy of 1969, made it possible not only in making considerable in-roads in the filling of vacant posts in schools and colleges but also in taking the first steps in extending the administration of physical education to the district level.

Administration and Supervision

Administration and supervision of physical education, sports and games in public elementary schools, secondary schools and teacher training colleges are under the charge of a Senior Education Officer, attached to the Inspectorate Division of the Ministry, and who is designated the Senior Physical Education Organiser. He co-ordinates the work of regional Physical Education Organisers, and ensures the organisation of in-service training and refresher courses for teachers from both primary and middle schools and from the higher institutions.

The Senior Physical Education Organiser recommends the appointment of regional and district Physical Education Organisers and detached Physical Education teachers for the elementary schools. He is also responsible for the posting of Physical Education specialist

teachers from the Specialist Training College at Winneba to secondary schools and training colleges. With the co-operation of the Executive Committee of the Physical Education Association of Ghana, he ensures that high standards of discipline and performance are maintained by Physical Education specialist teachers and tutors in the schools and colleges.

#### Regional and District Organisation

By 1970-71, the Senior Physical Education Organiser was assisted at headquarters by one Physical Education Organiser and in the regions by Regional Physical Education Organisers. The duties of the Regional Organisers continued to be concerned with the organisation, administration, supervision and teaching of physical education, games and sports through regular visits to schools and colleges. Regional Organisers ran briefing and refresher courses as well as regular workshops throughout the period under review. Courses were run on the organisation and teaching of games and athletics; workshops were conducted in the construction and use of improvised apparatus; and refresher courses were held to keep teachers abreast with modern trends in the teaching of physical education.

The work of the Regional Organisers was greatly facilitated by the appointment for the first time, of Physical Education Organisers to a number of District Offices to provide much needed technical assistance to teachers in elementary schools. As more specialist teachers become available each year, staffing at the district level will be strengthened to ensure a more extensive and effective organisation and supervision of the teaching of physical education, sports and games.

### Schools Sports Associations

Regional and District Organisers encouraged and promoted competition in the various sports and games in all schools and colleges in the country, in close collaboration with the staff of the Sports Council Secretariat. In addition they have encouraged the formation of sports associations in the primary and middle schools whose inter-zonal, inter-district and regional level sporting competitions have become a regular and exciting feature of the elementary school calendar. Similar associations and competitions have also become an integral part of the physical education programmes of secondary schools and training colleges.

### National Conferences and Workshops

Conferences of Physical Education Organisers and all those engaged in physical education field work in the Ministry of Education and specialist teachers in schools and colleges were held almost annually during this period. Such conferences usually took the form of full-scale workshops or refresher courses but were conducted around themes which differed from year to year.

The Conference which was held at the Specialist Training College, Winneba in July 1968, sought mainly to effect a re-organisation of the professional association of Physical Education Organisers and teachers in a way that would enable Ghana to benefit from formal affiliation to the International Council on Health, Physical Education and Recreation which exists to foster international understanding and goodwill and to encourage the development and expansion of educationally sound programmes in these areas in member countries.

The Conference/Workshop held in July 1969, at the same venue, was co-sponsored by the Sports Council, and was primarily concerned with

drawing up a national athletic programme for primary and middle schools, secondary schools, training colleges, universities and the public sector comprising the Armed Forces, Police and the other clubs. This Conference/Workshop also formed part of the In-Country Training Programme for Peace Corps Volunteers. Eleven Peace Corps Trainees participated in the workshop and were successfully prepared to take positions as athletic coaches under the supervision of the Sports Council.

Among the Peace Corps Volunteers operating in the national sports programme was a late transferee from Ethiopia with special skills in the design and construction of improvised sports equipment. The Sports Council provided him with a suitable workshop at the Accra Sports Stadium. A fine start has already been made and as more funds become available it should be possible to turn out locally made sports equipment which could sell at reasonable prices to schools and colleges. This is a cherished hope and a move in the right direction in view of the acute shortage of physical education and sports equipment in schools and colleges throughout the country.

The last Conference/Workshop organised during the period under review took place at Wesley College, Kumasi, in January 1971 for forty participants drawn from all over the country. The theme of this Conference/Workshop was 'Development and Promotion of Physical Education in Ghana' and it sought to help Physical Education Organisers to reflect on the past performance and to plan for the future.

#### Problems of Physical Education

In addition to the shortage of equipment for physical education and sports already alluded to, serious lack of facilities for sports and games, particularly playing fields, which are non-existent in many

schools, hampered the further development of the 'Free Approach' to the teaching of sports and games which gathered momentum during the period covered by the previous Report. The Sports Council is hopefully considering this problem and it is hoped that as funds become available a more realistic and practical approach will be made towards solving the problem.

### Staffing

Another difficulty in the way of a more effective promotion of Physical Education in schools and colleges related to the almost perennial inability to meet the demand for teaching staff. The demand for staff has invariably been greater than the number of students coming out of training every year, especially in the case of female specialist teachers. The Specialist Training College is able to train no more than twenty specialists each year due largely to insufficient facilities and inadequate classroom and dormitory accommodation.

### APPENDIX 3

#### UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

#### REGULATIONS FOR THE AWARD OF SPECIALIST

#### CERTIFICATES AND DIPLOMAS

##### 1.0 ADMISSION TO EXAMINATIONS

To be admitted to the final examinations a candidate must have completed the appropriate course of study, passed all his internal examinations, and registered for the appropriate examination.

##### 2.0 DETERMINATION OF EXAMINATION RESULTS

The pass mark in the long essay, teaching practice and each of the papers (written and practical) for all examinations shall be 40%. In order to pass the external examination a candidate must pass both in the special subject and in Education (Theory and Practice) at one and the same examination.

2.1 A candidate who scores below 30% in any paper of the examination, written or practical, fails the examination as a whole.

2.2 A candidate who obtains less than 40% but not below 35% in one paper only and whose average aggregate does not fall below 40% may be either considered for the award of certificate or referred in that paper.

2.3 A candidate who is referred in any section or paper of the examination of the special subject (written or practical) will have his certificate withheld and will have to re-take that section of the examination and pass in it within six months from the date of the publication of the results before his certificate will be released to him.

2.4 A candidate who passes in his special subject but fails in either Theory of Education or in Teaching Practice may be referred in that section in which he failed.

##### 3.0 RE-EXAMINATION

3.1 Candidates who fail in their final examination or are referred in any section of that examination will be allowed TWO re-sits within a period of THREE YEARS following failure unless otherwise stated in these regulations.

3.2 A candidate who is referred in the Long Essay or in Teaching Practice or in both will have his certificate withheld. He would be

awarded the grade he earned on his first sitting if he obtains the requisite pass at a subsequent examination in Teaching Practice or in the Long Essay or in both.

3.3. A candidate referred in his special paper or Education Theory will be assessed and his grade determined by the new marks he has scored in the subject at a subsequent examination.

3.4 Regulations and syllabuses governing courses and examinations for candidates presenting themselves for re-examination will be those currently in force.

#### 4.0 MARKING SCALE

70%	+ A 1st Division
60% - 69%	B 2nd Division (Upper)
50% - 59%	C 2nd Division (Lower)
40% - 49%	D 3rd Division
- 39%	E Fail

4.1 For a candidate to obtain 1st Division he must obtain a grade not lower than 'B' in the Teaching Practice.

4.2 A candidate who obtains 1st Division or 2nd Division Upper but scores below a 'C' grade in Teaching Practice will be stepped down one grade lower.

#### 5.0 FIRST DIVISION GRADE

A first division grade would be awarded to a candidate who obtains not less than 70% as an aggregate of all the papers in his special subject.

## APPENDIX 4

### SPECIALIST TRAINING COLLEGE - WINNEBA

#### CHIEF EXAMINER'S REPORT ON THE SYLLABUS AND REGULATIONS FOR THE AWARD OF DIPLOMA IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

#### INTRODUCTION

The appraisal of the syllabus and regulations for the Diploma in Physical Education has taken into account four major considerations:

1. The educational background of the students prior to their entry to the course.
2. The future role of the specialist teacher of physical education on the completion of his course.
3. The knowledge and abilities of the specialist physical education staff.
4. The present facilities, equipment and environmental factors.

The report is divided into six sections under the following headings:

1. Course content
2. Organisation
3. Presentation
4. Examinations
5. Teaching staff
6. Facilities and equipment.

The details of each section have been discussed with all members of staff and the report is intended to emphasise principles which might be implemented in the immediate future.

#### 1.0 Course Content

1.1 The theoretical courses cover the essential areas of study which should be followed by specialist teachers. In a number of instances, rather too much is attempted, e.g. Comparative Physical Education, resulting in a rather superficial treatment. By contrast, parts of the syllabus are very narrow, e.g. psychological interpretation of physical education, and need to be broadened and directly related to the teaching and learning of physical skills.

1.2 There is a tendency to rely on text book material to such an extent that certain courses are based entirely on chapters in

in books. In certain courses, i.e. Kinesiology, Tests and Measurements, Mechanics, Physiology and aspects of Theory of Physical Education, the theoretical work is not sufficiently related to the practical situation and a premium is placed on rote learning.

- 1.3 There appears to be some repetition in studying different courses, e.g. Mechanics and Kinesiology and certain topics would be more appropriately dealt with in other courses.

e.g. (a) Anatomy - systems of the body in physiology,  
reproductive system in health education.

- 1.4 The gymnastics syllabus for both men and women places an emphasis on the acquisition of specific skills with little opportunity for creative and expressive movement. Many of the students experience difficulty in mastering these skills and greater opportunities should be provided for students to explore their movement potential in tasks requiring experiment and exploration.
- 1.5 Throughout the four years all students undergo the same course of training which does not cater for their developing interests and abilities. As the course progresses, students should be encouraged to develop their interests and select areas of study which will permit greater depth of study and higher levels of attainment.
- 1.6 The present lesson plan which is given as a guide to students in planning their work is too restrictive and does not take into account the realities of the teaching situation. It is recommended that a more flexible pattern or patterns should be devised which cater more effectively for the objectives of a particular lesson.

## 2.0 Organisation

- 2.1 The need to take into account the developing interests and abilities of students referred to in 1.5 suggests that the four-year course might be considered in two related phases. The first two years should be organised as a Foundation Course covering those essential areas of study which might be regarded as the 'basic diet' for all students. After the Foundation Course, more advanced courses should be provided, together with elective courses, enabling students to select those subject areas in theoretical and practical work which will allow them to specialise and reach high standards of attainment. The present system tends to produce 'Jacks of all trades and masters of none', whereas the aim should be to produce highly competent general practitioners with a number of highly developed specialisms.
- 2.2 Students following elective courses in practical subjects should, on the attainment of a high minimal standard of attainment, be awarded special College Awards signifying their specialised ability to teach and coach specific activities.
- 2.3 The course in the Theory of Physical Education should be regarded as a central theory course in which a team of tutors contribute according to their specialised knowledge, rather than as at present, a course conducted over a broad field by one or two members of staff.

- 2.4 There appears to be many instances where the integration of courses inside and outside physical education would be advantageous. In particular, the courses in Education and the Theory of Physical Education could be explored with this objective in mind. Within the various physical education courses, the careful timing of lecture topics and the use of team teaching would permit more applied practical work to take place and help the students to gain insight into the inter-relationships which exist.
- 2.5 The present organisation of teaching practice defers school experience until the second year and, in total, the time allowed is barely adequate. It is recommended that in the first year a short period of practice in primary schools, mainly for observation, would be advantageous. In the second year there should be a block practice of about 4 weeks, to be followed in the third year by a continuous practice of one day per week. The final practice in the fourth year should be extended to 5/6 weeks.
- 2.6 The use of local schools for demonstration lessons in and students is strongly recommended as this will assist not only the students but the local teachers to keep up to date with new methods.
- 3.0 Presentation
- 3.1 Every opportunity should be explored to minimise formal lecturing procedures which tend to encourage the presentation and subsequent storage and reproduction of factual knowledge. An emphasis should be placed on practical/workshop methods which involve the active participation of staff and students in the application of theories and principles.
- 3.2 The principle of integration referred to in 2.4 should be applied in those areas where the study of a theoretical study can include practical application within the students' course e.g. a course in measurement and evaluation can be integrated with:
- a) Physiology - Somatotyping
  - b) Athletics - measurement of fitness
  - c) Games - measurement of sports techniques
  - d) Physiology - the effects of exercise can be integrated with fitness training as part of the athletics syllabus.
- 3.3 Tutors should try to encourage individual project work and assignments which require the student to study, interpret, originate and synthesise ideas rather than reproduce lecture material or chapters from text books. The emphasis must be placed on creative thought and the application of knowledge.
- 3.4 It is suggested that all students should maintain a physical education file. This would contain all written work, notes on reading, lectures, discussions etc. This file should reflect the student's involvement in his course and may prove to be valuable evidence in circumstances calling for aegrotat awards.

- 3.5 During the Foundation Course it is recommended that students should have a minimal standards record book in respect to practical work. The attainment of these standards should be a requirement of the course and the onus should be placed on the student to see that he practices and is assessed by his tutors or senior students (see 5.2).
- 4.0 Examinations
- 4.1 The present system of assessment places a very heavy premium on formal written examinations. This approach tends to encourage the memorising of the student during his four years. It is also conceivable that this can encourage the student to place less value on creative and individual work during the course and act as a form of negative motivation.
- 4.2 If students are to be encouraged to play a more active and creative role in coursework, it is important that they should be given credit for their efforts and attainments in the final examination profile.
- 4.3 The testing of factual knowledge should be an integral part of each course at appropriate stages and written examinations at the end of each year should be devised to assess the student's ability to apply this knowledge.
- 4.4 In practical activities, methods of assessment should place an emphasis on the student's ability to demonstrate good technique rather than high levels of performance according to competition rules.
- 4.5 The following scheme of examinations and examination profile is presented for consideration which take into account previous recommendations in this report.

#### Scheme of Examinations

1. Preliminary Examination to be held at the end of the first year in

- i. English
- ii. Education
- iii. Theory and Practice of Physical Education\*
- iv. Principles of Physical Education\*\*
- v. Practical work.

\* 1 three-hour paper covering the practical subjects in the first year of the Foundation Course with an emphasis on method and the application of knowledge.

\*\* 1 three-hour paper based on the Central theory course (see 2.3)

## 2. Second Year Examination

- i. English
- ii. Education
- iii. Theory and Practice of Physical Education
- iv. Principles of Physical Education
- v. Practical Work.

These examinations should be the Final Part I Examining examining the Foundation Course which has been completed in the first two years.

## 3. Intermediate Examination to be held at the end of the third year and based on:

- i. Elective Courses
- ii. Central Theory Course

## 4. Final Part II Examination at the end of the fourth year in:

- i. Principles of Physical Education
- ii. Theory and Practice of Physical Education
- iii. Elective Course
- iv. Practical Teaching
- v. Thesis

## 5. Examination of Practical Subjects

The assessment of practical subjects should be continuous throughout the course. Students should be expected to reach certain minimal standards at the end of the Foundation Course. It is suggested that a system of weighting should be instituted, which takes into account a student's strength, in arriving at a single grade for practical work, e.g. 40:30:15:15: in arriving at a final percentage in Athletics, Games, Gymnastics and Swimming.

During the third year, students should be examined on those subjects not covered in the Foundation Course and on their choice of specialised options. In the fourth year students should be assessed on their specialised options (2) and one other practical subject of their choice.

N.B. Students failing to pass the Final Part I Examination at the end of the Foundation Course should be subject to existing regulations.

### Examination Profile

The following profile places an emphasis on coursework and reduces written examinations to a minimum. It is also proposed that compensation should be allowed in the theory section.

#### Subjects

##### 1. THEORY

- i. Written papers (200)
- ii. Course work (200)
- iii. Thesis (200)

##### 2. PRACTICAL (400)

##### 3. TEACHING

#### 5.0 Teaching Staff

- 5.1 It is recommended that teaching staff should try to develop particular areas of specialist knowledge in both theoretical and practical subjects. This will enable courses of study to be provided which offer greater depth of study and offset the need for staff to cover too many subject areas.
- 5.2 Students entering their fourth year and following specialised practical courses should be used in the teaching and coaching of students.

APPENDIX 5TEACHERS' EVALUATION OF THEIR COLLEGE COURSES \*TABLE A

Aspect of Work	Opinions of Teachers who attended College B			Opinions of Teachers who attended College C		
	Invaluable	Of Some value	Of little value	Invaluable	Of Some value	Of little value
Principles of P.E.	1	3	-	-	1	-
History of P.E.	-	-	3	-	-	-
Anatomy & Physiology	4	12	34	-	2	8
Seminars	17	14	4	1	2	-
Special Studies	4	-	1	-	-	1
Method Sessions	45	7	4	7	-	-
Visiting Speakers	5	-	-	2	-	-
Dance	-	-	-	-	-	3
Athletics	5	-	-	2	-	-

\* Quoted from Whitehead, N. and Hendry, L.B., Teaching Physical Education in England, Lepus Books, London, 1976, p.62.

TABLE B

Additional Comments	By teachers who attended College B	By teachers who attended College C
The theory was too frequently unrelated to schoolchildren	9	-
There was a need for instruction on how to organise a school's physical education department	21	13
The teaching demonstrations by tutors were always in ideal surroundings	8	-
More teaching practice required	21	7
Too much practical performance by the students was required	-	3
A wider range of practical activities was required		
More outdoor activities required	7	4
New trends were overstressed	17	-
First Aid instruction was needed	17	6

## APPENDIX 6

### DUTIES OF DETACHED PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHERS

As a Detached Physical Education Teacher you should devote your time exclusively to the teaching of Physical Education and the organisation of Games in schools allocated to you. You will be given six middle schools in one area as your special responsibility. Where Middle Schools in the area are less than six, Primary Schools will be added to make up the number. You should spend one week at each school and move on to the next till all your six schools have been served and then repeat.

Your main duties will be as follows:

1. To assist teachers to interpret correctly current school textbooks on Physical Education and Games with a view to enabling them to select suitable exercises and activities for their weekly lessons.
2. To help teachers in the preparation of their lesson notes.
3. To give demonstration lessons on the correct handling of Physical Education and Games in schools and the use of apparatus (fixed, portable and improvised).
4. To teach games skills and to organise games in general. The following major and minor games and athletic events should be introduced, taught and played to a high standard:

<u>Major Games</u>	<u>Minor Games</u>	<u>Athletic Events</u>
Football	Skittle Ball	Sprints
Netball	Post Ball	Relays
Volley Ball	'American' Tennis	Hurdles
Rounders		Shot putt
Tenniquoit		High Jump
Table Tennis		Long Jump
Stoolball		Pole Vault
Hockey (where facilities exist)		
Cricket		

5. To encourage both teachers and pupils to make and use improvised apparatus and to supervise the making of these.

6. To assist schools in the construction of games courts and pitches and to advise on their maintenance.
7. To teach teachers and the top seniors the technique of refereeing and umpiring.
8. To teach how to organise and hold a sport meeting within a school and among schools.
9. To organise Physical Education Display.
10. To encourage the formation of Schools Sports Associations.

At the end of the term sound foundation should have been laid in the teaching of physical education and games in each of your six schools so that teachers in these schools could continue to work to raise standards. To this end you should strive to improve standards in your schools in every possible way.

At the end of each week you should submit a record of work done including advice and suggestions given in a manifold book in triplicate. This report should contain an accurate record of what has actually been done, and what a Senior Officer from this Ministry can reasonably hope to find on a visit to the school. The original should be filed by the Headteacher of the school for his guidance and the duplicate sent to the Physical Education Organiser for the Region. The Challenge Manifold book which has been issued to you should be used for this purpose.

When you are not actually in charge of a practical lesson in any class you should spend your time profitably on the following:

1. Making of improvised physical education and games apparatus during Handwork/Woodwork/Crafts periods with a section of the class.
2. Construction and maintenance of games courts and pitches.
3. Organisation of useful games activities during recreation periods and after school when it is so desired.
4. Arranging to show films/film strips on various aspects of Physical Education, Games and Athletics.
5. Other assignments as may from time to time be determined by the Physical Education Organiser for the region or your District Education Officer.

## APPENDIX 7

### BRITISH STUDY GROUP OBSERVATIONS IN GHANA

A team of British teachers who toured Ghana on an educational project in 1979 catalogued their experiences in a book,<sup>(1)</sup> selected extracts of which are reproduced below, to illustrate the prevailing trends in Ghana after Independence. Copson stated his views of the tour in these words:

... I certainly feel I got a lot out of it. It gave me a great insight into a culture very different from our own. ... one thing that particularly struck me was that some children had to walk two miles through the bush to get to school and back every day ... (2)

Describing the Christian worship in Kumasi, Gill Tuckwell wrote of the architecture as:

... so grandiose and ostentatious, bearing reminiscences of the colonial era ...

My first visit to the Presbyterian Church in Kumasi confirmed this impression of Christian worship steeped in European tradition - formality with an aura of respectability. (3)

Writing about tribal customs of Ghanaians, the team observed:

... The people of this tribe have some impressive rituals and religious ceremonies which have been little understood by outsiders. (4)

- (1) Development Education Centre, Learning About Africa: Dilemmas, Approaches, Resources, Selly Oak Colleges, Birmingham, 1979.
- (2) Copson, E., 'Teacher Eddie's African Lessons', Solihull News, 23/12/1977, also in Learning About Africa, Ibid., p.8.
- (3) Tuckwell, G., 'My Experience of the Christian Church in Ghana', in Learning About Africa, Ibid., p.42.
- (4) Learning About Africa, Ibid., p.74.

Jean Knight described an experience of the Ghanaian attitude to funeral ceremonies in this passage:

... Since coming home, I have thought a great deal about the funeral. How shabby our treatment of the dead and the mourners seems to be in comparison with the richness and 'community care' I saw in Ghana. We isolate the family in death, we keep a conspiracy of silence about the dead person, we let people mourn alone. What I saw in Ghana, and what I have read of other communities, suggests to me that there are better ways of dealing with death than we have and that Ghanaians have come to terms with 'death as part of life'. (5)

On games and physical education Spann wrote:

... children occupy themselves with games requiring no sophisticated equipment, but which are very skilful. ... They play with hoops and sticks and practise their aim shooting birds with catapults. ... Girls play a clapping and skipping game called 'Ampe' which requires a better sense of rhythm than I have ... (6)

Some indigenous games, including 'Oware' which is still widely played in Ghana, were vividly described by Spann.

On their return from the educational tour Edmondson compares his experiences with those of life in Britain:

... we have become conditioned to the noise and bustle and pageantry of the outdoor, African way of life, and had almost forgotten that in Britain, so much of life is lived behind brick walls, even in the summer ... (7)

The legacies of British colonial rule in Ghana were outlined as:

... We gave to Ghana - largely by force and against some considerable resistance, in particular from the Ashanti - our language, institutions, education system, church, law system, football pools and beer ...

(5) Knight, J., 'The Funeral' in Learning About Africa, Ibid, p.43.

(6) Spann, M., 'Games' in Learning About Africa, Ibid, p.51

(7) Edmondson, D., 'Impressions of England', in Learning About Africa, Ibid., p.70.

Our essential interest lay in the developing of raw materials to enable the growth of industry, and later a market for our manufactured goods. The infrastructure that developed in Ghana reflected this interest, with railways linking the new ports to the centres of gold, diamonds, timber and cocoa. The raw materials were, and still are, exported with the minimum of processing. (8)

Finally, Edmondson sums up his impressions of Ghana by stating:

... My contact with Ghana, short as it was, has shown me much ... for example the dignity and bearing of the people in the face of severe physical deprivation; their resourcefulness in coping with shortages and economic problems, their love for music and inborn sense of rhythm ... there is much that we can learn from these people ...

It is a sobering thought that whilst there is a growing appreciation here (in Britain) of the values of African tradition, an increasing number of Africans are abandoning them in favour of Western ways. (9)

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(8) Learning About Africa, Ibid., p.70

(9) Edmondson, D., 'Handsworth after Ghana', Learning About Africa Ibid., p.84.

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THE IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONISATION ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION  
AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN GHANA

By Eric Asare

ABSTRACT

This cross-cultural study examines the process of transplanting a system of education into a society other than the one from which it had evolved; focusing upon the influence of British Colonial administration and policy on the development of education and most specifically, Physical Education in Ghana.

The study revealed that Ghanaian traditional methods, before European contact, and British patterns of education varied considerably, as did the purposes and philosophies they were intended to serve. In the pre-colonial era, a traditional form of education and physical culture had developed to meet the needs of the Ghanaian people. The system was substituted in its entirety during colonial rule, by a form that had evolved in Britain.

Following the achievement of Independence in 1957, new incentives were taken to establish an educational system based on traditional lines and aspirations. The reforms introduced were peripheral and unsystematic and therefore gained inadequate support. Eventually, a system was achieved that integrated the relative merits of the two previous systems.

Certain issues are raised, relating to the special nature of Physical Education as an aspect of the school curriculum.

In conclusion, the study emphasizes the various social, political, economic and geographical variance that must be taken into consideration in establishing a system of education in a given society.

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