

**THE SOCIAL COMPOSITION OF SKILL ACQUISITION  
AND ITS LABOUR MARKET OUTCOMES IN GHANA**

**Kenneth King, David Korboe and Robert Palmer**  
**31<sup>st</sup> July 2006, Accra**

**Overview of the Skills and Labour Market Challenge in Different Partner Countries**

In Ghana, India, Kenya and Pakistan, it is assumed that the delivery of skills and their utilisation in formal and informal labour markets will be different. These differences may well be substantial in terms of institutional variety, ministry responsibility, political priority and the nature of the enterprise environment. In other words, there will be institutional and delivery-context particularity; but it is anticipated that there will be comparability across the different research sites both because of the focus upon the pathways available to trainees from poor families, and because of the shared concern to follow these needy young people from sites of skill acquisition to sites of skill utilisation. There will also be a degree of methodological comparability, while again allowing for some differences due to context and to the research skills of different country teams. The following pages sketch the current policy context of skills acquisition in Ghana, and point to some preliminary lessons learned from a first two weeks of researching this theme in Southern Ghana. They then discuss the main research question and research objectives under this strand. Four possible stages of the work are proposed, and a detailed field-guide is added for the first two stages which have already been applied in the current research. Provisional outlines for the second two stages are also included.

**The Particularity of the Ghanaian Context**

By good fortune, policies for technical and vocational education and training (TVET) and for youth employment have been of priority concern to national policy-makers and to development partners during 2006. Parliament just passed on 27<sup>th</sup> July 2006 a Bill to establish a Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (COTVET), which has been almost 10 years in the making. Its remit is to formulate national policies for skills development across the broad spectrum of formal, informal and non-formal education. Its reach will cover the formal and informal economies. It will seek to rationalise the assessment and certification systems for skill. Echoing our research strand on skills, COTVET is mandated to secure 'quality in the delivery of and ensure equity in access to' TVET (GoG 2006b: 3). A policy framework for TVET has been consulted upon and finessed over this same period of 10 years, and it has been agreed that the reformed system will be 'demand-driven' and 'competency-based' in order to help close the currently huge gap between skill acquisition and the employment demands of the world of work.

There are three imperatives that are keenly felt to have driven this focus on skill: the 'democratic imperative' requires that education and training opportunities should be diversified to serve the needs of all sections of the population; the 'poverty reduction

## 31.07.06

imperative' suggests that in a country where the majority of the population survive on less than a dollar a day, 'the challenge to reducing poverty can only be met through a wide-scale and continuous provision of relevant productive skills'; but the 'economic imperative' makes it necessary in the context of globalisation, 'to produce a highly skilled workforce to support industrialisation and make the country more competitive' (GoG 2004a: v, emphasis in the original). Hitherto, the challenge to link skill with poverty reduction has been secured by a series of ad hoc training schemes. With the Council (COTVET) in place the expectation is that a comprehensive demand-driven system can be established and financed.

There are hugely ambitious plans for implementing this new curricular approach, and for embedding it in a new Ghana National TVET Qualifications Authority, along with an Industrial Training Advisory function and a Training Quality Assurance system. None of this will be at all easy, as the current skills provision is deeply fragmented, and, arguably, the largest segments of skills training are to be found, outside the public domain, in the private training centres (both for-profit and non-profit), and in the enormous traditional apprenticeship system, which operates across the country, North and South, and in rural and urban areas. There are immediate challenges of financing, quality, access, and coordination as the new system comes on stream. And there are powerful temptations by Government to formalise what has been informal, and to take over what has lain beyond the reach of public responsibility.

Thus the TVET Policy Framework anticipates that 'a massive intervention is necessary to modernise and improve productivity of the [informal] sector'. It expects to 'reform and strengthen the traditional apprenticeship system by introducing a competency-based training and assessment system', and it goes on to claim that the informal apprenticeship system can actually be integrated into the National Qualifications Framework (GoG 2004: 33-4). Following through on this notion of formalising the informal apprenticeship, the policy-makers have stated openly that Government will assume full financial responsibility for the first year of this local skill acquisition system (GoG 2004b: 26). Surprisingly, the figure mentioned, in interview in the Ghana Education Service, for the first year is \$500 per apprentice, to be paid to the master or mistress, - an amount that is very many times higher than the cost of the entire three years of the present traditional apprenticeship.

Another very different piece of the policy architecture that has been constructed, at least on paper, in the first few months of 2006 is the *Youth Employment Implementation Guidelines* (GoG 2006). This derives from the pledges of the current Government to provide work for the million unemployed youth who registered optimistically in 2001. In due course, this highly political initiative led to two rounds of a programme originally termed the Skills Training and Employment Placement (STEP). This only covered some 27,000 youth, and did not provide any start-up support for entry to work after the 3-12 months of training. Although the initiative was claimed to have succeeded in young people starting their own businesses and securing employment, it is probably telling that it was renamed the Skills Training and Entrepreneurship Programme, as it had signally

## 31.07.06

failed to connect with job opportunities the very large number of young people who had originally registered.

However, this strain in Government thinking has re-emerged as the Ghana Youth Job Corps Programme, under the National Youth Employment Programme, located in the Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment. The President's Foreword to the glossy 50 page launch brochure notes that the 'introduction of the Technical, Vocation and Education Testing Policy [sic] (TVET) will help to sharpen the technical and vocational skills of our young men and women and make them more competitive... we also desire that they be placed in employment opportunities that are productive and rewarding' (GoG 2006: iii). This inaccurate reference to the COTVET programme is the closest the document comes to acknowledging the huge investment in consultation leading to an eventual consensus around a TVET policy framework. Instead, the brochure lays out a Ten-Module Youth Employment Programme which covers plans for youth job creation across a wide spectrum of economic activities – from Youth-in-Trades and Vocations, to Youth-in-Agri-Business and Youth-In-ICT. Thus the Youth-in-Trades and Vocations makes no reference at all to the work of the last decade on TVET. Nor is there any mention of the possible role of the Integrated Community Centres for Employable Skills (ICCES) when it comes to listing potential public training providers (GoG 2006a: 8; 27-29)

The plans to pay the beneficiaries of all these Modules both moneys to cover the purchase of inputs as well as a monthly stipend are extremely difficult to follow (GoG 2006: 17-22), while the document also contains a series of specimen forms on which credit applications and disbursements could be filled in by groups of young people.

It is hard to take seriously the sheer complexity of this national initiative with its national, regional and district Task Forces and Monitoring Teams. It is admitted in the Introduction by the then Minister for Manpower, Youth and Employment that many well-intentioned initiatives in Ghana have not prospered due to implementation difficulties, and lack of 'very clear and user-friendly guidelines' (GoG 2006:v). It is also admitted that it would have been preferable to have had a national stakeholders' summit from which an employment policy and strategy could have emerged, but the sheer urgency of the youth unemployment situation suggested that some immediate action was required.

A third dimension of the policy architecture is the work of what used to be under two ministries, Private Sector, and Trade and Industry. These are now combined. Business and regulatory reform, as well as public sector reform, have been promoted in order to make for a more enabling environment for private sector competitiveness. A broad survey of the informal sector is underway nationally which should provide the status quo on the sector. Equally, there appear to be new initiatives on land, loans and the rolling out of the programme of the National Board for Small-scale Industry (NBSSI).

At the moment there seems to be little or no coordination amongst these three initiatives we have briefly discussed – in Skills Development, in Youth Employment, and in the creation of an Enabling Environment.

### **Policy Ideals vs the Reality of Options for the Poor**

This policy infrastructure contrasts sharply with the realities of opportunities for the poor to secure access to quality skill provision and to move into decent or productive work. There is, however, an important definitional question here: Who are the poor in Ghana? Above it was mentioned that the majority of the people in Ghana have to make do on less than a dollar a day. According to the development partners, such as DFID (UK), the poor in Ghana make up something like 35% of the entire population. The different peoples of Ghana have their own classifications of poverty. These local definitions of poverty will need to be listened to including at the institutional level.

Poverty reduction has been an explicit priority of successive Ghanaian governments and of several of its development partners such as DFID. For many poor Ghanaians, employment and income accumulation represent the single most important way to break free from poverty. In Ghana, 'employment', particularly for the poor, means self-employment or employment within the informal or small and micro-enterprise (SME) sector in both rural and urban areas.

Ghanaian governments have periodically reformed the education and training system in the country with the principal objective of making it more relevant for the world of work. There have also been several government-led vocational and technical skills programmes (e.g. such as the three-year NVTIs<sup>1</sup>, the Technical Institutes, the three-year ICCES, and intensive short-duration STEP<sup>2</sup>) and donor-funded projects (e.g. VSP<sup>3</sup> programmes) seeking to facilitate the transition from school to gainful work and address the problems of under- or unemployment in Ghana, particularly in the informal economy.

The latest initiatives in the provision of skills training include the public private partnership which is constructing a Ghana Industrial Skills Development Centre (GISDC) in Tema in 2006 (SQA 2005), an intention to move the vocational orientation out of JSS<sup>4</sup> into SSS<sup>5</sup> in 2007,<sup>6</sup> the plan, mentioned above, to take under Government responsibility and financing the first year of the apprenticeship programme, and the ambitions to train many thousands of young people under the National Youth Employment Programme.

Although, in the new millennium, skills training has been stepped up and especially under the current government, however, with the exception of a few externally-required evaluations of the donor-funded projects, there has been virtually no research

---

<sup>1</sup> National Vocational Training Institutes

<sup>2</sup> Skills Training and Entrepreneurship Programme, previously the Skills Training and Employment Placement Programme.

<sup>3</sup> Vocational Skills and Informal Sector Support Project.

<sup>4</sup> Junior Secondary Schools

<sup>5</sup> Senior Secondary Schools

<sup>6</sup> There is a sharp contrast between the proposed four streams in SSS which are clearly demarcated in the White Paper of 2004 and the absence of discussion of these four streams in the analysis of SSS in the full President's Committee Report of 2 years earlier

## 31.07.06

investigating how effectively the skills acquired are being translated into the labour market. Policymaking, therefore, is not rooted in evidence-based arguments. The government can only speculate on what it is that graduates of these programmes do, but there is a strong presumption that the objectives of their training schemes are being met. This is the underlying assumption of the Ghanaian skills development agenda: that provision of vocational skills will have beneficial impacts on the poor – making them employable, equipping them with the skill and know-how to enter and/or progress in self-employment and, ultimately, reducing poverty through raised incomes. But there is really very little research evidence to back up this optimism.

A further key aspect of the skills debate is that, until now, these government- and donor-funded skills training programmes are not large-scale; they only reach a minority of the estimated 250,000 annual basic education graduates. Of each year's cohort, a crude estimate of 150,000 Junior Secondary School graduates have no opportunity to enter either formal education/training. Most of these 150,000 enter the informal economy, with many taking up traditional apprenticeships. In recent years, even the minor scaling up of skills training (particularly through STEP) has given rise to serious concerns about programme quality and outcomes. In addition, there are questions concerning who is getting access to this training; are the poor and marginalised excluded, or rather do they rapidly drop out, as some anecdotal evidence suggests?

The Government's proposed skills agenda is wide and includes increasing the global competitiveness of Ghana's human resources, but it is also concerned with the relationship between skill and poverty. Hence a related, rather fundamental, question that has also been widely neglected is whether the children of the poor are even to be found in the various types of training provision, whether school-based, institution-based, or enterprise-based. There is, therefore, very little good data on what we may term **the social composition of skills provision**, but the substantial cost of much skills training, even including fees for training in the traditional apprenticeships of the informal sector, would suggest that the children of the poorer families are unlikely to be significantly represented. This perspective emphasises that a precondition to discussing whether skills training institutions impact on the poor is to know whether the children of the poor actually participate in such training provision at all.

### **Preliminary Research Concerns**

One of the major issues is that the sector of skills development has been the object of 'almost total neglect', in the words of the President's Education Reform Committee (GoG 2004: 230). Yet it is this sector that many children from needy families attend. Indeed, it could be argued that because of the low quality, obsolete equipment, and lack of relationship with industry and employment, a vicious circle is created whereby no better-off family would consider technical or vocational education for their own children. It is particularly unfortunate that the lowest cost public provision of skills for poorer young people in the Integrated Community Centres for Employable Skills (ICCES) has been the most neglected, followed by the National Vocational Training Institutes and many of the Technical Institutes. It is impossible to exaggerate the seriousness of the

## 31.07.06

situation that prevails in some of these technical institutions, as far as quality of their teaching resources is concerned.

By contrast with public skills provision, there is a huge range of private for-profit and non-profit provision. Some of this, for example the Catholic Don Bosco training institute in Tema/Ashiaman is probably unequalled in quality anywhere in Ghana, and it has a history of training for the children of poorer families. Other NGO provision is also concerned to meet the training needs of needy children, while much private for profit provision is far beyond the means of poor parents.

There are several important initiatives which will come on stream during the period of this research. These will affect the sub-sectors where the bulk of children from poorer families acquire their skills. One of these is the proposal to take over the partial funding of traditional apprenticeship; a second is to provide multiple pathways for unemployed youth to secure productive work; and a third is the proposal to diversify post-basic education into vocational, technical, agricultural and general education. All of these will need careful monitoring over the next several years.

Equally, as the Government has begun to stress the vital importance of Growth in addition to Poverty Reduction, it will be critical to analyse the implications for the poor of growth initiatives such as the Millennium Challenge Account in commercial agriculture, or the public-private partnership in GISDC which will operate with the support of private firms in the Tema area.

### ***MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION***

- How, and under what conditions, do the main long- and short-term skill training systems (both public and non-state) contribute to labour market outcomes that help break the cycle of deprivation for the poor?

### **Research Objectives**

- To find out to what extent the poor, as defined by institutional managers of training centres, actually gain many benefits from skills training (by assessing how equitable and accessible existing opportunities for participation in skills training are); particular attention should be paid to whether poor girls are at a disadvantage when it comes to skills development opportunities;
- To assess the labour market outcomes of selected, long and short term, public and private, training systems - e.g. the extent to which skills acquired are utilised by graduates, and to consider the constraints to improving labour market outcomes;
- To find out how the trainees from poor backgrounds who successfully enter work and self-employment, especially in the SME or informal economy, learn the things that make them succeed;
- To explore how the skills acquired in different settings are affected in their potential for utilisation by the state of the surrounding economic, social, cultural and political environments.

## 31.07.06

### **Pathways for accessing skill acquisition**

There are three main modalities of skills acquisition in most countries:

- longer term training; (via specialist technical schools - or vocational institutes, of 2-4 years)
- short-term intensive training; (as short as 3-6 months)
- apprenticeship and or formal/informal training, on-the-job, within the firm (2-4 years).

In all three routes there are two possibilities: fee-paying and non-fee-paying.

In many developing countries, a concern for this research project, with its focus on the poor, is that a very great deal and an increasing proportion of both public and non-state provision of skills is now fee-paying, but there are still some options for skill acquisition without payment, for example through particular NGO training programmes or through acquiring skills on-the-job via casual labour.

### **Fee-paying skills acquisition, formal and non-formal.**

Understanding the social composition of the skill training system requires interview work with the organisers, instructors and masters/mistresses in all the three key skills training modalities.

Fee levels and other opportunity costs will need to be analysed, along with the selection mechanisms into these training modalities. It will also be important to analyse whether quotas, bursaries or talent scholarships operate for young persons from poor backgrounds into these main skills training pathways. Increasingly, these training systems are using level of education as a selection mechanism. Hence it becomes important to analyse also whether the children of the poor are retained in the basic cycle of formal education for long enough to enter these skills training options.

### **Non-fee-paying access to skills**

All three training modalities have some scope – often very restricted – for access to skills without formal payment.

Skills via casual labour: this route involves young people attaching themselves to enterprises – whether large or small - as casual labourers, and in certain situations not getting any recompense in the initial period of their work. In this pathway, the employer gradually selects out over time those casual workers whose commitment and expertise appear most promising, and accords them greater responsibility and access to learning.

NGO provision: an alternative is acquiring basic skills training through a number of NGO programmes, both in the slums and in deprived rural areas. In almost all countries, such NGO training programmes see themselves as offering an ‘option for the poor’ through very low or no fees.

## 31.07.06

### **Research Locations**

It is preferable that there be a rural site, as well as a poor urban site. In addition, it was decided that there should be an urban site which was in a more dynamic economic environment.

**Southern sites:** Nima is a poor, densely populated, urban, predominantly Muslim, area of Accra, peopled originally by migrants from the North and it is actually the site where Keith Hart did some of his research in the early 1970s where he ‘discovered’ the informal sector. A second site is in the rural area of Agomeda (Dangme West). A third southern site is in Tema, both in the planned town itself as well as in the poorer area of Ashiaman outside the town.

**Northern sites:** the suggested sites are in Tamale and Savelugu where there are key NVTIs and other institutions where the Northern project team has good access.

### **Fieldwork (+ training) dates**

The southern fieldwork (stages 1 and 2) are due to take place in July/early August 2006. The northern fieldwork (stages 1 and 2) is due to take place during November 2006.

Stages 3 and 4 of both the southern and northern fieldwork are due to take place in the first half of 2007, at a date yet to be finally determined – though probably in late May or early June.

### **Training and Pilot-testing of Field-guide**

[between 18<sup>th</sup>–22<sup>nd</sup> July 2006 (5 days)]

After an initial discussion of basic training in qualitative research techniques, there was a review of the main objectives and aims of the research. Both southern and northern teams went out on the second day of the training to practice interviewing masters and apprentices around Accra and also doing community profiling. This trial was followed by piloting interviews with NGO vocational training centres, targeting particularly questions about the social composition of their trainees. These results were also fed back into the design of the Field-guide. The institutions to be visited the following week were contacted, in Nima and Agomeda, and preliminary discussions held with their centre managers. A second visit to Nima to finalise the approach and to work out poverty groupings was carried out at the weekend. By the end of the first week, a Field-guide had been developed (see separate attachment).

### **Data Collection**

The main data collection in the South for Stages one and two (see further below) took place between 24–28<sup>th</sup> July (5 days). It was followed by a further 5 days of more intensive investigation two weeks later. The initial week covered a wide range of no less than 17 different technical and vocational education and training centres, as well as a series of interviews with policy-makers and development partners:

- Three public ICCES institutions, one in Agomeda, one in Nima and one in Ashiaman

## 31.07.06

- Three STEP programmes, in Agomeda, Nima and Tema.
- Two public NVTIs, both in Accra, one aimed principally at women, and the other at both men and women
- Two public Technical Institutes, one in Accra and one in Tema
- Two JSS, one public and rural (Agomeda) and one urban and private but in Nima
- Three non-profit NGO VTIs in Accra and in Tema/Ashiaman
- Two for-profit VTIs, one in Accra and one in Tema
- One public-private partnership –Ghana Industrial Skills Development Centre
- Policy interviews in Ghana Education Service (Ministry of Education); Headquarters of NVTI; Ministry of Trade, Industry and Private Sector, and Presidential Special Initiatives (MOTIPP); World Bank; JICA; DFID; Education Development Partners; ICCES management; Centre for Research in Basic Education which is the coordinating centre for the three DFID education consortia; and National Youth Employment Programme.
- Visit to ISSER at the University of Legon for documentation and discussion
- Discussion with those conducting the House-hold Survey, in urban areas only.

### **THE FOUR PHASES OF THE INQUIRY.**

#### **Stage one (July 06): Junior Secondary Schools (JSS):**

##### *a) Interviews with headteacher and other staff, eg. counselling staff*

Detailed proposals for the interviews are contained in the Field-Guide.

Given that many formal and non-formal training institutions recruit via school-leaving qualifications, it becomes important to know whether the children of the poor are retained until the end of the basic cycles of primary (6 years) and of junior secondary (3 years) respectively. In many countries, fee levels for senior secondary schooling are so high that the poor are effectively excluded unless there are bursaries; and even where primary education and junior secondary are fee-free (as in Ghana), the poor frequently do not get access to good quality primary and junior secondary provision, and hence may drop out before the end of the basic education cycle.

In two of the three southern localities, in-depth, participatory interviews with key informants were undertaken to establish the social composition of students undergoing JSS-level education – as well as of those that may have dropped-out.

In Agomeda and Nima, we selected one private and one public JSS school. The objective was to get a good picture of who does and does not survive till the end of the third year of JSS. Also what is the contribution of the JSS to skills orientation, and how do they see the planned shift of vocational orientation out of the JSS and into the SSS.

We also asked some questions about the economic environment in which these institutions operated, anticipating some of the issues that would come up in stages 3 and 4, below.

### **Stage two (July 06): Vocational Training Institutions**

In Ghana, as in India, Pakistan and Kenya, longer term provision can be contrasted with intensive short term provision, and fee-paying public and private-for-profit with NGO non-profit provision. In Ghana qualitative work was carried out with both public and private providers, in shorter and longer term modalities. There was a particular focus on the extent to which the different main pathways of the skills training system do manage to be pro-poor.

#### *a) Interview work with VTI Centre Managers, including counselling staff*

Detailed proposals for the interviews are contained in the Field-Guide.

In the two southern localities, in-depth, participatory interviews with key informants in short- and long-term skills training programmes were undertaken to establish the social composition of students undergoing skills training – as well as those that have dropped-out. The short-term programme examined was STEP, while long term, three-year programmes included ICCES and other vocational training centres such as NVTIs and Technical Institutes, as well as private and NGO-run VTIs.

In the three localities in the southern area, we looked at public and private long-term training programmes, as well as the short term, intensive training STEP programme.<sup>7</sup>

We also asked some questions about the economic environment in which these institutions operated, anticipating some of the issues that would come up in stages 3 and 4, below.

#### **Additional method for assessing social composition of VTI/STEP/ICCES/Technical Institute/NGO VTI for stages one and two**

Given the very short allocation of time for stages one and two of the fieldwork, it was decided that there should be an additional week spent in doing more quantitative work on particular cohorts of those passing out of VTIs. It was decided that this should include four institutions: two public and two non-state VTIs. The terms of reference for that additional study follow the Field-Guide, but essentially they take a single cohort of young people (approximately 50) and look in detail at their social composition and poverty status. In addition, young people who have left the institution and who have used (or not used) their vocational skills will be followed up.

This additional stage will be done during the week of 14-18 August 2006, and it is anticipated that it will also be carried out in the north.

### **Stage three (late May or June 2007):**

[A detailed Field-Guide for Stage 3 is not yet available]

---

<sup>7</sup> The short-duration STEP was delivered alongside long-term training in the same institution.

## 31.07.06

Analytical work, predominantly on small and micro-enterprises (SMEs) in two to three different localities, north and south (poor and less-poor rural and poor urban). The majority of poor graduates will probably find themselves seeking to use their skills in the rural and urban informal (SME) economy (but attention will be given to situations where training schemes have succeeded in providing access to formal sector employment). In terms of trade areas, we propose to select firms which are operating in IT/communication technology, furniture, mechanics & engineering, dressmaking/textiles and hairdressing & personal care. It is anticipated that in the rural areas, these off-farm activities will be combined with enterprise in farming. Graduates of training programmes (formal, non-formal and casual) will be identified who have been in the enterprises for at least 5 years. Retrospective life histories will be carried out for the previous 10 years, which will be sufficient to cover initial work-experience, training provision (whether single or multiple) and the last years of formal schooling).

The bulk of these life histories will be of young people who are still employed, but attention will be paid to situations where there has been a move to self-employment (this is unusual before a period of at least 5 years).

In all target groups we would aim to identify the effectiveness of different training systems in terms of: i) access (including direct and opportunity costs, relevant information, entry qualifications, applicant screening, training location); ii) quality and relevance; iii) effectiveness in terms of quality livelihood outcomes.

However, the emphasis would be on the impact of training on quality livelihood outcomes. This would involve developing livelihood outcome indicators that could be used to qualitatively assess the skills outcomes, which might include the following:

1. Occupational portfolio indicator - the extent and type of multiple occupations in employment and/or self-employment – farm and non-farm;
2. For each kind of occupation (from the above indicator) we might examine: health and safety conditions; job content; financial and non-financial benefits; working hours; job security; social insurance; level of organization;
3. Personal and collective social indicators – such as health and social capital indicators for both the graduate and their immediate family (husband, wife, children) if applicable.

### **Stage four (late May or June 2007)**

[A detailed Field-Guide for Stage 4 is not yet available]

For each of the two-three localities, north and south, within which the research is conducted, we would conduct a supplementary analysis of the kind of overall enabling or disabling environment – particularly concerned with the labour market environment - into which the trainees of the different skills programmes graduate. The household survey – which is an integral part of the larger research, might provide us with an overall socio-

## 31.07.06

economic picture of each of the urban localities (Tema, Accra and Tamale). Further interviews can be conducted with local enterprise owners, local government officials, community leaders (traditional, religious, youth, informal sector association heads etc.) and staff at training providers to complete the analysis of the (labour market) environment.

Topics to cover might include:

- How they managed to start-up an enterprise (if MSE owner).
- Local support services for self-employment start-up/ local enterprise environment.
- Social, political and cultural environments.

### **Allocation of time to the four stages of the research**

Although a great deal was achieved in the two weeks in Ghana, it is accepted by the research team that more time will need to be allocated to the following two stages of the work if there is to be sufficient attention given to teasing out the labour market outcomes for both poor and non-poor trainees and masters, as well as exploring indicators for assessing the enabling environment. There will need to be time also allocated to monitoring some of the trends picked up in these first two stages of the work. It is anticipated that the northern and southern fieldwork for stages three and four will require a month each.

### **References**

Government of Ghana 2002 *Meeting the Challenges of Education in the Twenty First Century: Report of the President's Committee on the Review of Education Reforms in Ghana* Adwinsa Publications, Legon-Accra

Government of Ghana 2004a *Draft TVET Policy Framework for Ghana* Draft of August 2004, Accra.

Government of Ghana 2004b *White paper on the report of the Education Reform Review Committee* Government Printer, Accra

Government of Ghana 2005 *Growth and poverty reduction strategy (GPRS II) (2006-2009) Volume I Policy Framework* National Development Planning Commission, Accra

Government of Ghana 2006a *Youth employment implementation guidelines: Ghana Youth Job Corps Programme* Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment, Accra

Government of Ghana 2006b *Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training Bill* July 2006, Accra

Scottish Qualifications Authority (SQA) 2005 *Ghana Industrial Skills Development Centre (GISDC): Scoping and Training Needs Analysis for establishing a Technical Training Centre in Ghana* Report to the Stichting for Technical Education in Ghana.

**31.07.06**

Ghana.Skills.Strand. Conceptual Framework and Stages of Research, 31 July 2006.doc