

Designing Adult Education Activities: A Case of Civic Education Programmes by National Commission for Civic Education in the Ashaiman Municipality in Ghana

Sally Adwoa Afriyie*

University of Ghana

Abstract

This article discusses the efficiency of the design of educational activities of the National Commission for Civic Education (NCCE) in Ashaiman municipality in Ghana. Using a descriptive case study design, data was collected from seven (7) Community Based Groups in Ashaiman. The results of the study indicated that to a large extent, there was efficiency in terms of programmes' relevance to context of participants, content of programme and processes adopted in programme design. However, there was little efficiency found in the area of developing and articulating objectives of the programme to participants.

Keywords: Adult education activities, civic education, programme design, efficiency

*Sally Afriyie is a teaching assistant at Department of Adult Education and Human Resource Studies as well as a part-time tutor at the Department of Distance Education in the University of Ghana.

Correspondence: safriyie2001@yahoo.com

Introduction

The emergence of democratic societies has warranted a high sense of political socialisation and participation of citizens in national governance. This spells change for both government and citizenry whose specific knowledge, competencies and character may not be appropriate for the democratic dispensation. For the survival and flourishing of such societies therefore, there is the need for the critical education of the mass of its citizens to acquire the requisite knowledge, skills as well as embody the values and manifest the behaviours that accord with a democratic culture (Office of Democracy and Governance, 2000).

In this case, civic education becomes essential for every nation that truly values its democratic system. In Ghana, as in most of the African countries, civic education is not a novel phenomenon. It has been an agenda of governments stemming from the colonial era. According to Zakariah-Ali (2000) mission churches carried out the duty of educating their members on civic issues. These sessions were mainly informal and were geared towards making Christian converts effective in their new faith. It focused primarily on imparting reading and writing skills as well as values of good neighbourliness to its members.

It follows that in the post-independence era, governments put in efforts to establish various civic education bodies, these included the Centre for Civic Education (CCE) by the National Liberation Council under the chairmanship of Dr. K.A Busia. The Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) government also set up the Peoples/Workers Defence and later National Commission for Democracy (NCD). Subsequently, the Consultative Assembly of the Fourth Republic, made provision for the establishment of the National Commission for Civic Education (NCCE) under the 1992 Constitution (Kumah, 2000).

Till date, the NCCE is the core body mandated by law to offer civic education to citizens. Over the years, Ghana has witnessed the emergence of nongovernmental organisations, private individuals and even corporate bodies who have contributed to civic education and the work NCCE. This has therefore led to the proliferation of civic education activities all over the country. However, according to Finkel and Ersnt (2005), very few evaluations of the effectiveness of these civic education activities have been conducted. Additionally, there have been increasing reports of incidence of ethnocentrism, political intolerance, corruption at all levels of the economy, violation of human rights and gender inequality especially in female political representation in governance (OSIWA, 2007; Bokor, 2011).

More specifically, reports over the years have indicated a high incidence of violence in Ashaiman. According to Nunoo (2008), there have been increasing clashes between some residents and the Police. Additionally, the Ashaiman Municipal Police reports that, within January and September 2007, it recorded 5,531 cases of assault, theft, threat to kill, fraud and possession of narcotics drugs apart from other serious crimes such robbery, murder, defilement, causing damage, offensive conduct, rape and unlawful entry (Nunoo, 2008).

All these problems in addition to people's poor attitude to change have made it increasingly difficult to maintain peace and harmony in the communities despite several interventions adopted by the government and civic organisations to improve the alarming situation (Acheampong, 2009). In the light of increasing riots, crime and general unrest, all stakeholders are to take a key role in addressing these issues. The task of NCCE as the core civic education body has now more than ever become essential to the survival of the individual, the community and the nation as a whole. Thus, the question that still remains to be answered is how efficient has the design of educational activities of the NCCE in Ashaiman municipality been?

Aim of the study

The aim of the study is to examine the design of the educational programmes carried out by NCCE in the municipality. To achieve this therefore, the study adopts the following research questions:

- i. How relevant is context of the educational programmes to participants in the municipality?
- ii. How relevant is content of the educational programmes?
- iii. How appropriate are of programme objectives?
- iv. How efficient are the processes used for programme design?

Review of related literature

Civic education activities of NCCE

Barber (1992) opines that civic education is a process of equipping citizenry with the competencies to participate in democratic discourse, the ability to think critically and act deliberately in a pluralistic world, the empathy to listen and accommodate others for the common good of the society. It is in this light that Galston (2001) asserts that all education is civic education, in the sense that individuals' level of general educational attainment significantly affects their level of political knowledge as well as the quantity and character of their political participation.

In Ghana, NCCE is the key executors of civic education functions. According to the 1992 Constitution of Ghana, it is also the first constitutional body in Ghana charged with the duty of educating and encouraging the public to defend the constitution at all times, against all forms of abuse. In order to fulfil its mandate therefore, civic education is imperative and essential to the Commission. It conducts civic education activities nationwide through the district and municipal offices. These district and municipal offices oversee the implementation programmes at community level. These activities include flagship programmes, collaborative programmes and other educational activities that the government deems relevant to the work of the Commission. Generally, civic education programmes ranges from human rights and the law, voter and election education, community participation to constitution and good governance (Katusiimeh, 2004). Thus, civic education programmes focus mainly on the Constitution of Ghana, human rights, democratic governance, peace building, conflict resolution, gender equality and sustainable management of the environment.

According to NCCE Mid-Year Review (2000), the flagship programmes are the key activities of the Commission including the Constitution week celebration observed in April every year, Social Auditing Game, Constitution Game, Project Citizenship and Civic Education Clubs (CEC's) which are nonpartisan clubs set up in schools, churches and workplaces. The collaborative programmes done in conjunction with other organisations include child right protection with United Nations International Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF), Anti- corruption campaign with Ghana Integrity Initiative (GII) and African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) as well as voter education with the Electoral Commission (The Open Society Initiative for West Africa, 2007).The others are the Democracy Education programmes, Health sensitization programmes, Nation Building and Conflict Resolution programmes carried out in the violence prone areas of the country (Tani – Eshon, 2000).

Conceptual frameworks on programme design

Education is a well-planned learning process that seeks to develop the knowledge, skills and attitudes of citizenry so as to inform their choices for the benefit of the larger society. Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) have commented that although models for designing educational programmes are technically useful, they have often overlooked the human aspect such as the personal attitudes, feelings and values involved in the educational process.

Recently, however, the focus of models for designing civic education has shifted from input based education to a more learner oriented education (Tibbitt and Torney-Purta, 1999). Accordingly, Tyler (1975) suggests that for an effective learning process one must look again to the learner to identify the needed change in the knowledge and behaviour so as cope with contemporary life. Nonetheless, it should not be a recipe and a substitute for using one's professional and personal judgement on what is a good approach to enhancing learning (O'Neill, 2010).

Literature presents various dimensions of designing an effective programme. Hodge (2010) and Tyler (1975) take a learner oriented approach and suggest that in the designing of programmes, consideration must be given to some key principles. First of all, learners want to be sure as to what they will gain from the educational process as well as the progress that is being made. Also, activity is essential for learners thus the learning experiences must incite interest, have vividness and intensity. Accordingly, as noted by Tyler (1975) the learning experience should always provide for the practice of behaviour implied. However, the desired behavioural change should be within the range of possibility and focus on participant's background and experience. He also emphasises on the diversity of activities since many different experiences can achieve same outcomes.

Most expansive however are the suppositions of andragogy provided by Malcolm Knowles. Knowles principles of adult learning as it is also called are based firstly on the assumption that adults can learn. This is affirmed by studies on adult learning which clearly indicate that the basic ability to learn remains essentially unimpaired throughout the life span (Knowles, 1973). Thus, individuals who may not actually perform well in learning situations or apply their knowledge can attribute it to being away from organised education for some time thus causing the underestimation of their ability and confidence to learn.

Another assumption of the theory is that the learner has a self-concept. It has been realised that "something dramatic happens to one's self concepts when people define themselves as adults. This is mainly because they begin to see their normal role in life no longer as being full-time learners rather as workers, producers and caretakers" (Knowles 1973, p. 32)

Andragogy also assumes that learners possess a worth of experience thus the educational process emphasise the usage and appreciation of these experiences. This is especially important because adults are recognised largely by their experience as such place value on it. Hence, when they find themselves in situations in which their experience is not being used or its worth is minimised, it is not just their experience that is being rejected instead they feel rejected as persons.

Additionally, adults are perceived to have immediacy of application toward most of their learning. Education for adults is a response to pressures to cope with current life situation. They therefore enter an educational activity with a problem centred or performance centred frame of mind. All these principles bring to light the multidimensional nature of adult learning which Fasokun (2010) explains that

The most important feature of adult learning is its diversity; the multiplicity of the educational agents involved, the variety of institutional and financial arrangements, the breadth of learning needs and the different ways in which people participate in educational activities throughout the post-initial education life-span. (p,15)

Deciding on the content of civic education programmes

Based on the assertions of andragogy, the content of civic education programmes should suit the learner especially since education is offered by a broad range of providers to highly heterogeneous audiences. Thus, great emphasis should be placed on the involvement of learners in all the aspects of programme planning, implementation and evaluation. It begins with a process of self-diagnosis of learning needs or needs assessment. This process is defined as an ongoing process of gathering information from a community of learners in order to fulfil certain specific needs including personal goals, demographic background, individual knowledge base and related variables which are likely to affect the implementation of the programme (Garcia and Hasson, 1996). This is to be done with all stakeholders through community foras or focus group discussions, observations and desk study.

The main reason for needs assessment is to allow planners collect enough information about the needs of the target group which eliminates guesswork as much as possible (Harris, 1984). The process allows facilitators and learners together discover the learner's needs so as to clearly establish the gap that needs to be filled (Harris,1984). It also establishes the real situation as it pertains in the

target population. This is important in ensuring participation since learning is most effective when based on personal memory and relevant to the learner.

Generally, civic education programme needs to indicate its goal and objectives because adult learners need to know why they are learning. Learners being goal oriented also like to know the benefit the programme will bring to their lives. Programme goals are long term intentions that provide direction. The ultimate goal of civic education is to address social problems however bearing in mind the uniqueness of every problem solving and learning process, every civic education programme needs to establish clear cut objectives. Objectives are the more specific and short term intent of a programme. A programme's objectives should be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time bound (SMART). This implies that objectives must be clear, simple so as to be reliably quantified. Moreover, it should be feasible in terms of its relevance to target groups as well as time availability (Commonwealth of Australia, 2002).

For years civic educators argued among themselves over whether or not civic education should emphasise conventional content or the processes and skills of civic involvement (Todd, 1999). Though no complete consensus has been arrived at, most civic educators expect that all programmes are relevant to the target groups especially adults who have a wealth of experience. The learning process must be linked to the social, political, economic and intellectual context. To enhance the meaningfulness of content, Noe (2002) suggests that messages should carry concepts, terms and examples that are familiar to the participants.

Katusiimeh (2004), indicates that generally, civic education can be broken into four thematic areas. These are human rights and the law; voter's and elections education; community participation, as well as constitution and good governance. He elaborates that education on human rights and law education encompasses studies on the diversity and similarities of humans and the interdependence of all humans; civic rights, duties and responsibilities, education on the rule of law, peace education and the functions of public institutions. Voter's education and elections programme also centres on electoral process, transparency and accountability education. Community participation education comprises of awareness campaigns, environmental protection education, conflict management and disaster management. Constitution and good governance embraces topics on democracy, good governance processes; constitution education and education in the values and attitudes of good citizenship.

In a report by Niemi and Junn (1998) for the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) on Civics Assessment in 1988, significant effect was realised based on the amount and recency of content of the civic education, the variety of topics studied and the frequency with which current events were discussed in programme. The less the quantum of content matter, the easier it was for participants to understand and apply learning.

Findings also indicated that the recent issues brought about easy discussions. Monotony had a way of repelling participants so that when programmes included various methods such as drama, community learning and videos, participants began to enjoy and relate to the programme. The report concluded that individual's appreciation of the programme content was dependent on factors such as background variables like gender, ethnicity as well as interest in government, political and academic aspirations.

Furthermore, civic education must provide opportunities for practice. This requires that participants have the ground for demonstrating learnt capabilities from the programme. Zemke and Zemke (1995) therefore described it as 'praxis' which is a Greek word meaning exercise or practise of an art or skill. The concept acknowledges that learners prefer activities such as case studies, games, simulation, drama and mock learning situation to passive learning like lecture. Since adults are themselves richer resources for learning, greater emphasis can be placed on techniques that tap the experience of the adult learners (Knowles, 1973). According to Noe (2002), effective practice involves the frequency of the sessions so that the more one rehearses one can be effective in the

performance of that task. It is also important that exercises are not farfetched but rather realistic as possible so as to stimulate learners.

Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive case study. This design was appropriate because it allowed in depth examination the design of educational programmes. In line with these attributes, Stake (1995:4) explains that the “first obligation” of a case study is to bring about full development and understanding of the case at hand. The population included all Community Based Organisations (CBO) and Faith Based organisations (FBO) in the Ashaiman that had participated in NCCE’s educational programmes with the duration of the study. A sampling frame consisting of ten (10) CBO’s and FBO’s was obtained from the NCCE office. Seven (7) groups selected included Afife Benevolent Society, Licensed Chemical Sellers’, Teacher’s Group, Muslim Women’s Group, Peaceful Healing Church, Muslim Men’s Group and Church of Christ were purposively selected.

Convenience sampling was used to obtain the individual discussants for the focus group discussions. This was based on convenience of time and accessibility to respondents. According to Cohen and Manion (1994) cited in Marango and Ndamba (2011), this technique is appropriate for choosing the nearest, willing and yet eligible individuals as respondents and continuing that process until the required sample size has been obtained.

For the interviews, all seven (7) public education officers of the Ashaiman Municipal office were selected. Altogether, a sample of fifty (50) respondents was selected comprising of forty- three (43) programme participants and seven (7) staff members of NCCE. The study employed focus group discussion (FGD) as the main method for obtaining data from the participants of NCCE programmes. USAID and Asia Foundation (2005) have identified that although FGD are used to complement large-scale quantitative surveys, it can also be used by itself to obtain in-depth information regarding values, practices, challenges and opinions on specific issues and local particularities. A focus group guide with five (5) open ended questions was the instrument used to direct the discussions.

Additionally, the study utilised in-depth interviews with the municipal officers’ including the municipal director, civic education officers and field officers. The interview questions contained eight (8) open ended questions. These questions were used to solicit specific information and yet allowed them give their own opinions. The interview helped clarify and fill in the gaps realised during FGD as well as compare responses of organisers and that of the programme participants so as to make the necessary recommendations.

Data analysis was done systematically, firstly by transcribing recorded data which involved listening and writing recorded data. This was done to capture all responses especially those that were lost in the process of recording manually. This was followed by a content analysis where the researcher established themes and patterns that emerged from the data. The process included coding, creating themes and re-examination of themes. The results were then used to develop credible answers to the research questions and presented in thick narratives. This form of presentation is commended for qualitative studies because it brings out the meaning, intricacies and values of respondents in their real life situations which can lead to the generation of data-driven theories (Scheff, 1995, cited in Armfield, 2007).

Results and discussion

Context of civic education programme

The findings on the relevance of programmes to participant’s context indicated that programmes were highly relevant to participants. This finding was based on claims of officials and also reinforced by the target groups. Specifically, responses indicated the programmes were relevant in terms of addressing the social, political, domestic, economic, health, sanitation, and civic issues in the target populations. In line with this perspective, this account was given an official:

Considering that Ashaiman is a community identified with sanitation problems NCCE intermittently organises sanitation programmes such as the cholera sensitisation programme during the cholera outbreak last year as well as education on justice and judiciary functions in effort to address the problem of high incidence of mob action and instant justice carried out (Personal Interview, February 7th 2012).

Participants also shared similar experiences:

I am first of all a parent and then a basic school teacher so the programme on children's right was relevant to me since I work with children all day (Female, Teacher's group, April 3rd, 2012).

As women we have various needs in terms of household management issues, sanitation, caring for our husbands and children as well as vocational training needs so we welcome all forms of education that seek to address these problems in any way (Muslim women's group, March 6th, 2012).

This result affirms recent indications that there has been a shift from input based education to a learner oriented education where programmes are organised to suit learner's peculiar circumstance (Tibbitt and Torney-Purta, 1999). It also agrees with the assertion of Mathews and Hudson (2001), that educational programmes should be socially acceptable, culturally relative and technically adequate to target groups.

Notably, there existed variations in responses based on sex so that while more males mentioned that programmes were relevant to their economic and political lives, women focused on social, domestic and health problems. This variation in interest corroborates the assertions of Hakim (2006), that women will actively take part in educational activities that affects their social, domestic and health problems. She also adds that averagely, men and women continue to differ in their orientations and behaviours. These differences are linked to broader differences in life goals and the relative importance of family life and careers. Furthermore, explanation of differences in gender values and priorities may have their origin in childhood socialisation processes.

Efficiency of programme objectives

The question on programme objectives yielded varying responses unlike that on the context of programmes. In this case, participants were completely unaware of programme objectives, goals or expectations which officials had indicated was set out by the constitution. A participant indicated this:

I think they normally tell us why they are here but don't specifically state that these are the objectives of this programme. I don't know, maybe, they write it down but they don't let us know so we can work hard to achieve those objectives (Male, Afife group, February 25th 2012).

This situation was enough to keep adults away from the educational process because Hodge (2010) and Tyler (1975) state, adults would like to know what is to be gained from the educational process. Similarly, the social cognitive theory suggests that for education to bring about behaviour change, it must not be assumed that people are already aware of what is expected of them. Therefore, the learning process must draw participant's attention to the expected behaviour. In line with these, the International Atomic Energy Agency (2004) explained that if the reason for education is not clearly defined by facilitators and communicated to learners prior to education, it tends to be inappropriate and ineffective because intended outcomes cannot be measured.

Relevance of programme content

In terms of content, the responses indicated that programmes were recent, holistic and most of all relevant to participants. Although, the study agrees with the fact that there is no consensus on the content of civic education activities, the results nonetheless corroborates the suppositions of Noe

(2002) that the meaningful content of educational programmes is based on concepts, terms and examples that are familiar to the participants. Hence, a participant cited that:

The content of the programme was so helpful that even though I knew about child abuse the programme really enlightened me on what really constituted abuse, how to identify abuse victims and most importantly how and where to report abuse cases (Female, Peaceful Healing Church, March 25th, 2012).

These and similar assertions reinforce the contentions of andragogy that adults have immediacy of application towards their learning so that programme content must lead towards problem solving and bring about increased performance in all aspects of life (Knowles, 1973). Thus, the civic education programmes can be said to have effectively responded to enabling participants to cope with pressures of current life situation which comprised biometric registration, domestic violence, child abuse and crime.

The meaningfulness of programme content, is equally based on the variety and recency of subject matter as well as high frequency of application of content. In relation to this, respondents cited that programmes covered constitution education, human right education, election education, judicial function, sanitary and health education. These fall within the thematic areas of civic education as postulated by Katusiimeh (2004). It was also specified that there was increased interest in discussions when the programmes focused on current issues. This is similar to the findings of an assessment of civics programme by Niemi and Junn (1998) which also realised easy discussions among participants when programme centred on recent issues. Significantly, the study emphasised that external factors such as facilitator's mastery of content and delivery methods played a role in individual's appreciation of the programme content.

Additionally, participants emphasised the need to increase the frequency of programme, if significant outcomes are to be achieved. This assertion confirms Noe (2002) stance that for education to achieve its outcomes, frequency of the sessions should be high so that the learners are immersed in the education to an extent that they are likely to be effective in the performance of intended outcomes. Gibson (1997) also proposes that behaviour change is a gradual process of comparing actions to the images retained, followed by rehearsals then self-correction until an acceptable match with the model of behaviour is achieved. These propositions imply that learning does not occur in an instant so the frequency of civic education must be high to reinforce the enactment of desired behaviour.

Efficiency of programme design processes

Results on efficiency of programme design processes indicated that the design of the educational activities was based on a lot of research and planning. The process of programme design involved the adoption of various strategies such as needs assessment, research, strategic assignment of programmes and target group segmentation. Although literature has not indicated the specific procedures for designing educational programme, researchers have stressed the importance of learner oriented approaches because of the realisation of the mutual interplay of social and cognitive factors in the learning process (Tyler 1975, Bandura, 1986; Tibbitt and Torney-Purta, 1999). Needs assessment tends to highlight the learner's needs thereby clearly establishing the gap that needs to be filled and eliminate guess work as much as possible (Harris, 1984).

Tyler (1975) suggests that one must look again to the learner to identify the needed change in the knowledge and behaviour so as to cope with contemporary life. This puts needs assessment and research in the forefront of the programme designing process. However, the mere mention of needs assessment does not cut it especially when most participants indicated that they were not involved in the designing of programmes. A participant indicated his sentiments in this statement:

I don't remember a time that we have been involved in the design of the programme; I believe they only identify the groups after the programme has been prepared. This is not to say programmes are not beneficial, they are but it is only that we have some learning needs if they

are able to attend to those needs then we will be in a better position to appreciate their programmes (Male, licensed chemical seller, March 7th 2012).

In fact, the essence of needs assessment is found in how it is conducted to ensure that the real needs of target groups are brought to the fore.

In a report by International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD, 2012), it was specified that participants' involvement in programme has to start very early in the design process, that is from reconnaissance stage of the soliciting of perceptions and priorities on the intervention. Findings revealed that participants' involvement ranged from active involvement, to moderate involvement then little involvement and no involvement. The four varying levels of involvement are indicated in the pyramid of involvement in figure 5.1

Figure 5.1 Pyramid of involvement

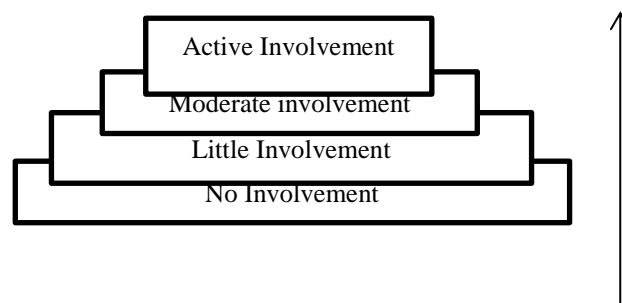


Figure 5.1 represents increasing levels of participant involvement in the programme design. Significantly, these varying levels of involvement can also progress from one level to the other. In terms of active involvement, target groups determined what they wanted to learn. Thus members decided the topic, where it would take place and when it took place. In explaining active involvement, officials indicated that:

As in the case of the educational activity carried out in the Ashaiman Zongo community, the leaders contacted the office that the group needed to know about the biometric registration process and the meeting was set up (Personal Interview, February 6th 2012).

The progressive women's group has also been actively involved and at one time I remember they outlined the contents of a leadership training programme they wanted us to organise for their newly elected executives (Personal Interview, February 6th 2012).

The next level was moderate involvement where group needs were assessed. Based on the needs assessment, programmes were designed to address the issues at hand. An official elaborated on what moderate involvement entails:

Needs assessment was necessary in a situation where we offered training to the newly elected Assemblymen. We needed to conduct a needs assessment to be able to tell their educational needs in terms of the knowledge on constitution, civic rights and responsibilities and democracy in general before we designed a programme for them. This is the ideal but financial constrains does not permit us to do it as often as we should (Personal Interview, February 7th 2012).

Then again, concerning those requiring little involvement, group leaders were contacted only after the programme had been designed. In this case, the involvement was in terms of the timing and venue for the programme. In line with this, a public education officer explained that:

Most of the groups are involved greatly in deciding when and where programmes take place. We don't impose them. In fact, we rather negotiate so that by looking at our schedules we

agree on times that suit us all. For others, as a result of the good relationship we have shared with them over the years, they keep an open door so that as and when programmes are designed we only have to inform them of our coming (Personal Interview, February 7th 2012).

Lastly, the notion of no involvement occurred when target groups were not included in the design process in any way. In this case, programmes were deemed essential for all citizens so that they were organised for the public at large. These programmes took place at various places such as churches, schools, market squares and even workplaces. These programmes included the education on redenomination of the cedi, education of revision of voter's registration, cholera outbreak alert and prevention programmes which are assumed to be of national interest. A staff of the NCCE remarked thus: "The biometric registration education was organised for all community groups and even some secondary and vocational schools. This was without their involvement because it was a national assignment that all adults are to be part of" (Personal Interview, February 6th 2012).

For an effective programme, there is the need to strive for the ideal at the apex but this comes with gradual progression from one stage to the other. Green (2000) elaborates that to ensure this progression, regular education, training, skills development and encouragement is necessary so as to allow the rise within the pyramid to a level appropriate for increasing programme effectiveness where participants are involved right from the design to evaluation.

Strategic assignment and segmentation are also processes that are essential in the educational design process because they allow the right programme to go to the right people. These strategies are highly advocated by social marketing. Social marketing has been widely used in developing countries to promote social changes in terms of family planning, public health and HIV/AIDS (Martinsen, 2003). Social Marketing is defined as "the design, implementation and control of programmes calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution and marketing research" (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971; p5).

Based on this premise, programme managers do not make assumptions about characteristics of their target groups instead they use research to understand the target group's needs, wants, perceptions and present behaviour pattern (Andreasen, 1994). It is based on this premise that social marketers tend to segment their target group by dividing them into homogenous groups according to one or several criteria such as demographics, geographic, psychographics, and behaviour so as to assign relevant programme to them (Kotler, Roberto and Lee, 2002). Martinsen (2003) cautions however that these conditions work well, given that the appropriate resources and the methods are applied correctly.

Conclusion

The study has revealed that the design of educational programme was relevant to the social, economic, political and health context of target groups. Similarly, content variety and recency of subject matter contributed to patronage of programmes. Also indicative was that the processes used for programme design were learner specific which included assessment of needs, research, strategic assignment and segmentation of target group. Significantly, however programme objectives were not appropriate for achievement of goals. Ultimately, it can be concluded that to a large extent, there was efficiency in the relevance of context, content and processes adopted in programme design however, there was little efficiency with setting and articulating objectives of the programme to participants. In the light of these findings, it is not surprising that the benefits of the civic education programmes are short lived. It is therefore imperative that stakeholders give more attention to programme objectives so as to design efficient civic education programmes.

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