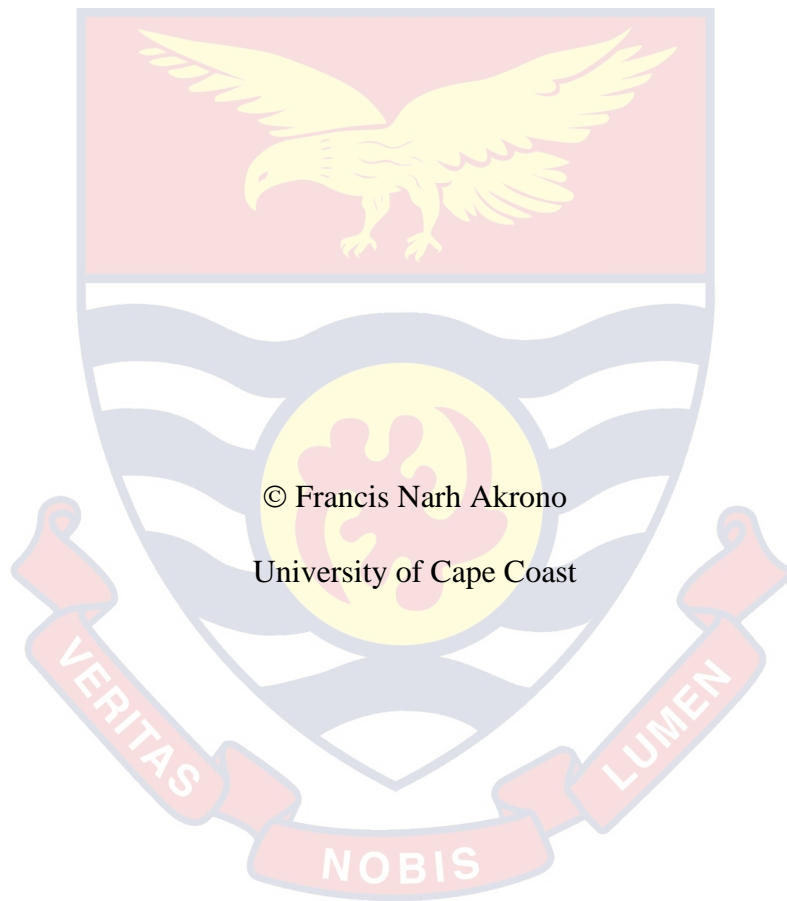


UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

**IMPLEMENTATION OF THE HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT
STRATEGIES FOR EMPLOYEES IN THE PUBLICLY-FUNDED
UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA: MYTH OR REALITY**



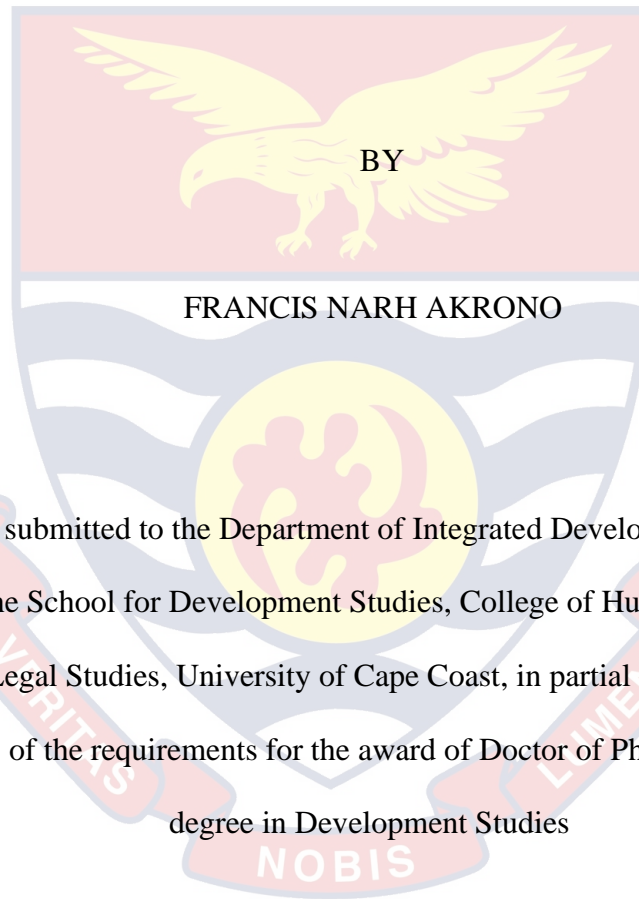
2019



© Francis Narh Akrono
University of Cape Coast

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT
STRATEGIES FOR EMPLOYEES IN THE PUBLICLY-FUNDED
UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA: MYTH OR REALITY



This thesis submitted to the Department of Integrated Development Studies
of the School for Development Studies, College of Humanities and
Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy
degree in Development Studies

AUGUST 2019

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature.....Date:

Name: Francis Narh Akrono

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature..... Date

Name: Professor C. K. Brown

Co-Supervisor's Signature Date

Name: Professor Francis Enu-Kwesi

ABSTRACT

The seeming inadequate implementation of human capital development strategies has been a major challenge facing public universities in Ghana. The study was therefore intended to investigate the implementation of the human capital development strategies. The mixed-methods research design, was used to collect and analyse the views of the respondents in this study. Data were collected from 291 teaching staff and 63 administrative senior members who were selected through the multi-stage sampling technique from a population of 4,282. The purposive sampling technique was used to select 42 key informants comprising Provosts, Deans, Head of Human Resource and Head of Finance in the universities for the study. Data were collected through the use of interview schedule and an interview guide. The data analysis was done using the SPSS (Version 20) software. The Chi-square test was used to examine the associations between the human capital development strategies and the organisational factors. Key informants interviews and documentary analysis were used to substantiate the findings. The study found that top management's support and allocation of resources have positive associations with human capital development strategy implementation. It was concluded that strategy implementation in the publicly-funded universities is a reality as seen in the support by top management and the allocation of finance and other resources projected in their strategic plans. However, there are limits to the achievement of the reality due to funding inadequacies. It was recommended that the publicly-funded universities must diversify their mode of income generation to resource the implementation of their human capital development strategies.

KEY WORDS

Development

Employees

Human capital

Implementation

Publicly-funded universities

Strategies



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to many high ranking and respectable dignitaries who by their support and guidance made this study a success. My first appreciation goes to my able and dedicated supervisors, Professor C.K. Brown and Professor Francis Enu-Kwesi, Department of Integrated Development Studies of the School for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast (UCC), for their careful reading and critical comments and suggestions which were extremely useful in improving the thesis and putting it in good shape.

I would also like to acknowledge my deep gratitude to Professor Jophus Anamuah-Mensah, Director of the Institute for Educational Research and Innovation Studies (IERIS), University of Education, Winneba, and Dr. David Essaw, Head of Department, Environment, Governance and Sustainable Development of the School for Development Studies, UCC, for the encouragement, guidance and also for providing me with very useful literature to enhance this study. Finally, my appreciation goes to my wife and children for their encouragement and prayer support.

DEDICATION

To Mr. Theophilus Tetteh Akrono of blessed memory, Mrs. Paulina Akrono, Mrs. Benedicta Akrono and my children for their encouragement.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

Content	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
KEY WORDS	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
DEDICATION	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xvi
LIST OF APPENDICES	xvii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
Background to the Study	2
Statement of the Problem	15
Objectives of the Study	22
Research Questions	23
Hypothesis	23
Significance of the study	23
Scope of the Study	25
Delimitations	26
Limitations	27

Definition of Terms	27
Organisation of the Study	28

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND
CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

Introduction	31
Institutional Context of the Study	32
Theoretical Background	37
Human Capital Theory	38
Resource-Based View Theory	47
Knowledge-Based View Theory	51
Structural-Functionalist Theory	56
The Concept of Human Capital	59
Human Capital Development	63
Implementation of Human Capital Development Strategies	69
Summary	94

CHAPTER THREE: EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE AND CONCEPTUAL
FRAMEWORKS

Introduction	95
Empirical Evidence on Implementation of Human Capital Development Strategies	95
Lessons Derived from review of Existing Literature on Implementation of Human Capital Development Strategies	112
Conceptual Framework for the Implementation of Human Capital	

Development Strategies	113
Summary	116
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	
Introduction	118
Philosophical Discussions on the Research Approach	118
Research Design	126
Study Organisations	129
The Study Population	133
Sampling Procedures	135
Sources of Data	138
Data Collection Instruments	139
Ethical Considerations	141
Pre-Testing of Instrument	142
Data Collection Procedures	143
Data Processing and Analysis	153
Summary	154
CHAPTER FIVE: IMPLEMENTATION OF THE HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES	
Introduction	156
Profile of Respondents	156
Human Capital Development Strategies	166
Opportunities in the Human Capital Development Strategies	170
Model of Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies	

in the Publicly-Funded Universities	176
Summary of the Findings on Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies	185

CHAPTER SIX: ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS AND
IMPLEMENTATION OF THE HUMAN
CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Introduction	187
Relationship Between Organisational Factors and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies	188
Summary of Findings on Organisational Factors and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies	211

CHAPTER SEVEN: ENHANCEMENTS AND CHALLENGES
ASSOCIATED WITH THE IMPLEMENTATION
OF THE HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT
STRATEGIES

Introduction	213
Adherence to the Modalities Guiding Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies	214
Summary of Findings on Enhancements and Challenges Associated with the implementation of the human capital development strategies	237

CHAPTER EIGHT: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND
RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction	239
Summary	239
Conclusions	246
Recommendations	248
Contributions to knowledge	251
Areas for Further Research	252
BIBLIOGRAPHY	253
APPENDICES	298



LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 Summary of the Empirical Evidence	105
2 Key Contrasting Implications of Positivism and Social Constructionism	121
3 Population of Senior Members in the Publicly-Funded Universities	134
4 Distribution of the Sampled Respondents by Public Universities	137
5 Sex Distribution of Respondents by Institution	157
6 Marital Status of Respondents	158
7 Status of Respondents in the Institution	159
8 Distribution of Respondents' Highest Level of Education	161
9 Sex Distribution of Respondents' Highest Level of Education	162
10 Sex Distribution of the Rank of Respondents	165
11 Documentation of the Human Capital Development Strategies by Institution	168
12 Ever Sponsored for Further Studies by Institution	171
13 Ever Sponsored for Conference by Institution	172
14 Ever Sponsored for Seminars/Training Workshops by Institution	173
15 Mode of Accessing Opportunities for Professional Development is Easily Accessible	178
16 Sponsored for Further Studies	179
17 Sponsored for Conferences	180
18 Sponsored for Seminars/Training Workshops	181
19 Extent of Agreement that Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies is Influenced by Organisational Factors	188

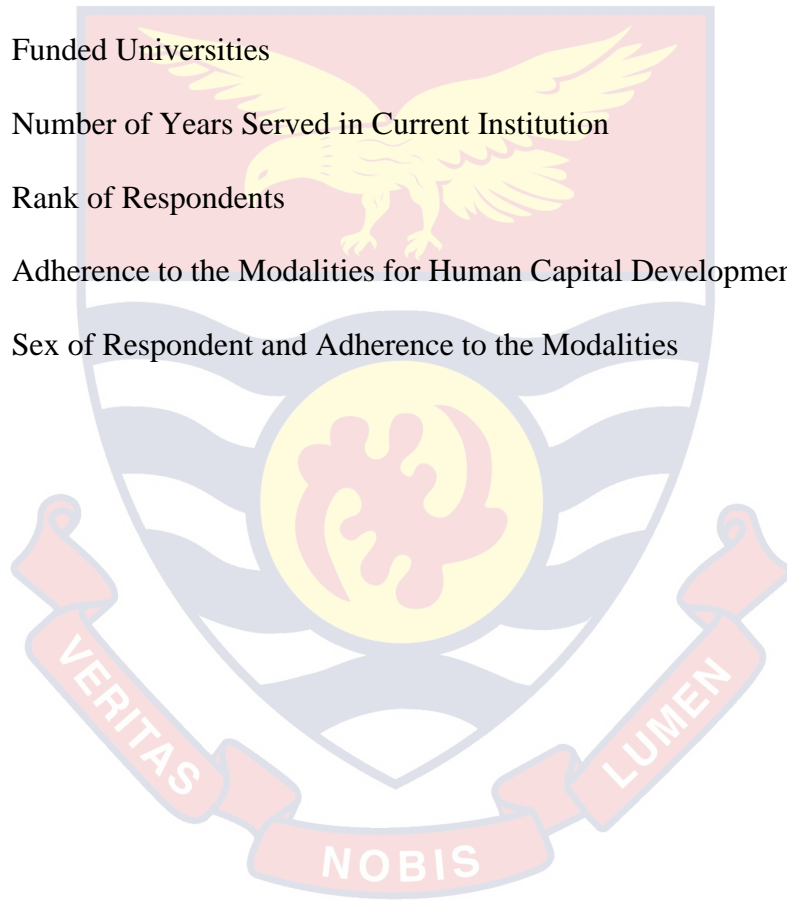
20	Institutional Response on the Association Between Top Management Support and Human Capital Strategy Implementation	190
21	Institutional Response on the Association Between Resource Allocation and Human Capital Strategy Implementation	191
22	Institutional Response on the Association Between Dispositions of the Implementing Department and Human Capital Strategy Implementation	192
23	Institutional Response on the Association Between Inter-Departmental Communication and Human Capital Strategy Implementation	193
24	Relationship Between Top Management Support and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies	195
25	Relationship Between Allocation of Resources and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies	201
26	Relationship Between Dispositions of Implementing Department and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies	205
27	Relationship Between Inter-Departmental Communications and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies	209
28	Adherence to the Modalities by Institution	217
29	Adherence to the Modalities by the Number of Years with the Institution	219
30	Rank of Respondent and Adherence to the Modalities	220
31	Reasons Management do not Adhere to the Modalities in the Human Capital Strategy Implementation	222
32	Institutional Response on the Level of Improvement in Knowledge and Skills from Human capital Development Strategy Accessed	225
33	Challenges with Implementation of the human Capital Development	

	Strategies	228
34	Efforts Made by the Publicly-Funded Universities to Mitigate the Challenge of Inadequate Finance and Other Resources	235



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Conceptual Framework for Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies	115
2	Generic Organogram for the Governance Structure of the Publicly-Funded Universities	132
3	Number of Years Served in Current Institution	163
4	Rank of Respondents	164
5	Adherence to the Modalities for Human Capital Development	215
6	Sex of Respondent and Adherence to the Modalities	221



LIST OF ACRONYMS

EDA	Economic Development Administration
EMS	Environmental Management Standards
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GETfund	Ghana Education Trust Fund
HCD	Human Capital Development
HEI	Higher Educational Institution
HRM	Human Resource Management
KNUST	Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology
NAB	National Accreditation Board
NCTE	National Council for Tertiary Education
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
RBV	Resource Based View
ROI	Return on Investment
SCA	Scarce Competitive Advantage
SPSS	Statistical Product and Service Solutions
UCC	University of Cape Coast
UDS	University for Development Studies
UEW	University of Education, Winneba
UG	University of Ghana
UMaT	University of Mines and Technology
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix	Page
A: Interview Schedule on Implementation of Human Capital Development Strategies	300
B: Interview Guide for Key Informants in the Publicly-Funded Universities	307
C: Table for Determining Sample Size from a given Population	309
D: Ethical clearance from the Institutional Review Board	310
E: Letter of introduction from the School for Development Studies	311
F: Introductory letter from the University of Education, Winneba	312
G: Introductory letter from the University for Development studies	313
H: Introductory letter from the University of Ghana, Legon	314
I: Introductory letter from the University of Cape Coast	315
J: Introductory letter from the University of Mines and Technology	316
K: Introductory letter from the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology	317

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The study of the implementation of human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana was necessitated by the challenges that might have resulted from certain organisational factors that the public universities usually grapple with in the implementation of their human capital development policies. These challenges according to Baah-Boateng (2013), usually affect the extent to which the public universities are able to develop many of their faculty and staff to enhance their capacity on the job. From the perspective of the human capital theory (Becker, 1964, 1993), if this trend is not checked, it could result in what Kearney (1993) referred to as lack of skills, pedagogical excellence and innovation required to assure the quality transfer of knowledge. This challenge could also affect the productivity of the faculty and staff (Niringiye, Luvanda, & Shitundu, 2010).

In order to improve upon the situation, this thesis relies on theories, such as the human capital theory (Becker, 1964, 1993), resource-based and knowledge-based views (Barney, 1991, 1995; Theriou, Aggelidis & Theriou, 2009), and the structural functionalist theory (Holmwood, 2005) to reinforce the need for institutions to place much priority on the development of their employees to enhance their productivity.

Background to the Study

Human capital refers to the knowledge, skills, competencies, experience, and attributes that individuals have and which contribute to the achievement of organisational goals and enhance individual value on the job market (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2001). Human capital development, therefore, is any activity that increases the quality of the employee. It is about recruiting, supporting and investing in people through education, training, coaching, mentoring internships, organisational development and human resources management (Fugar, Ashiboe-Mensah, & Adinyira, 2013).

Human capital is noted globally among organisation and management scholars to play an important role in economic development because of its promise to secure long-term economic growth, deliver competitive advantage and create value (Marimuthu, Arokiasamy, & Ismail, 2009). As the global economy shifts towards more knowledge-based sectors, human capital development becomes a central issue for policy-makers and practitioners engaged in economic development, both at the national and regional levels (Oluwatobi & Ogunrinola, 2011).

The notion of human capital goes back to Adam Smith. Smith's (1776) view of human capital was tied to the creation of economic wealth and development. Adam Smith, therefore, viewed human capital as all the skills, competencies, knowledge and abilities embedded in individuals that allow them to be more productive in their fields of endeavour (Demeulemeester & Diebolt, 2011). This understanding is consistent with

analyses presented by classical economists who hold the view that human beings should be perceived as capital. This capital, when developed, has an output that gradually contributes to the national product. According to Simkovic (2013), the amount invested in human capital, which increases national output, also results in increased national wealth. It is referred to as an organisation's intangible assets that manifest as competencies and commitment of its staff (Sofoluwe, Shokunbi, Raimi, & Ajewole, 2013).

The diverse contributions of human capital to the development of organisations can be illustrated by the human capital theory, resource-based and knowledge-based views, and the structural functionalists' theory. The main argument of the human capital theory is that an educated population is a productive population (Marimuthu et al., 2009), while the resource-based and knowledge-based views establish human capital as the most valuable resource that every organisation requires and must be developed (Bohnenkamp, 2013; Kirsimarja & Aino, 2015). According to the structural functionalists' theory, human capital development will enable the individuals to perform their functional roles effectively for the organisation to obtain sustained competitive advantage (Satterfield & Hughes, 2007; Kraaijenbrink, Spender & Groen, 2009).

Sustained competitive advantage, according to Baharom (2008), could be obtained by organisations from their human capital investments when strategies or policies governing their investments in human capital development are well implemented. Human capital development strategy implementation for people in organisations is very necessary because

according to Hupe (2011), people in organisations are important and essential assets to the success of the organisations. Nevertheless, the successful implementation of human capital development strategies in organisations is dependent upon a number of factors explicated by the top-down and bottom-up approaches to strategy implementation (Chompucot, 2011).

The top-down approach (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983; Van Meter & Van Horn, 2013) sees implementation as a concern with the degree to which the actions of implementing officials and target groups coincide with the goals embodied in authoritative decision. The approach postulates that main actors are regarded to be the decision-makers who are responsible to formulate an efficient statute, which suits to the kind of existing problem (DeLeon & DeLeon, 2002). To increase the level of efficiency, top-down theorists thus demand a clear and consistent statement of the policy goals, a minimization of the number of involved actors, a limitation of the extent of change necessary and an institution which supports the points of view of the policy makers in order to guarantee that the implementers sympathize with the new statute (Matland, 1995).

The bottom-up theorists also acknowledge the fact that implementation occurs at both the macro and the micro levels (DeLeon & DeLeon, 2002). They postulate that implementers at the micro-level think about their work and form their own opinion about the tasks they receive from the macro-level, improve upon them or adapt them to the real circumstances (Berman, 1978). The bottom-up theorists believe that the

worker, who is connected with the actual situation, can judge better than the policy makers who do not have the same information as the worker does. As Palumbo, Maynard-Moody, and Wright (1984) put it: “if local implementers are not given the freedom to adapt the program to local conditions, it is likely to fail” (p. 61).

In every economy, the pursuit of economic growth and development is dependent upon organisations with well-experienced human capital (Farid, Chaudhary & Malik, 2012). This human capital has to be consistently developed for organisations to accomplish their goals (Ahmad & Mir, 2011). The development of human capital, according to Holton and Yamkovenko (2008), is the ultimate responsibility of a university or higher educational institution. This is in consonance with the views of some economists that a university is a long-term investment that is very profitable, especially in supplying trained manpower in various areas (Hanushek & Woessmann, 2008). This, according to Vogel and Keen (2010), provides a strong rationale for governments and private households to invest substantial portions of their resources in university education with the expectation that higher benefits would accrue over time.

Economically, universities are expected to provide the industry with skilled and innovative human capital for enhanced productivity (Yueh, 2013). From the institutional perspective, universities must have well-experienced human capital to be able to churn out the calibre of workforce needed for the growth and development of organisations and the economy (Aziah & Abdul, 2011). The implementation of the human capital

development strategies, therefore, is the most important means through which the universities can have the efficient faculty and staff required for the achievement of their knowledge production role (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1981).

Therefore, the central argument of the thesis is that organisations develop human capital, which provide them with competitive advantage to achieve their mission and vision (Kearney, 2009). However, in order to be able to develop this capital, organisations need to effectively implement their human capital development strategies (Hupe, 2011). Thus, effective implementation of human capital development strategies will ensure that organisations have the right calibre of human capital for the achievement of their mission and vision (Olaniyan & Okemakinde, 2008). This is illustrated by the human capital theory, which explains that institutions that give prominence to human capital development also have higher levels of productivity. This is because such institutions usually have a greater stock of well-informed manpower that helps to raise productivity levels, sustain competitive advantage and generate added future value (Ferreira & Martinez, 2011). Human capital development generates substantial gains in terms of increased productivity (Ndinguri, Prieto & Machtmes, 2012). Employers desiring higher results from their investments should, therefore, make human capital development a prime objective (Olusegun, & Adenugba, 2013).

Human capital is created when changes occur in persons and bring about skills and capabilities that make them very productive. These

changes, according to Hanushek and Woessmann (2008), occur through investment in education and training programmes. According to the human capital theory, schooling and training are investments in skills and competences (Marimuthu et al., 2009) and that, institutions with more educated and skilled workforce can achieve a higher level of productivity since they can easily adopt and implement new technologies, thus reinforcing returns on education and training. A study by Seleim, Ashour and Bontis (2007) for example, analysed the relationship between human capital indicators such as training attended and performance in software companies. The result showed high performance with high productivity which could be translated to organisational performances. This is indicative of the fact that human capital, like natural resources, cannot be productive by themselves. They must be cultivated and channelled into productive activities to contribute positively to growth and economic development and for the realisation of institutional goals (Kurtz & Brooks, 2011).

According to Chaudhary, Iqbal and Gillani (2009), the human capital theory provides a basic justification for large public expenditure, in both developing and developed nations, on education, as human capital investment. As the knowledge-based view theory indicates, the ability to create value required for economic growth is not based much upon physical or financial resources but on a set of intangible tacit knowledge-based capabilities of the human capital. These tacit knowledge-based capabilities, according to the structural functionalists, must consistently be developed through education and training, for an efficient delivery on the functional

roles (Theriou, Aggelidis & Theriou, 2009).

Trained manpower is a prominent and crucial asset in the efforts of propelling a nation's development (Marimuthu et al., 2009). This is because a nation's progression and abundance, as Farid, Chaudhary and Malik (2012) state, is not measured by the quantity of natural resources but the quality of creative human resources that facilitate the society's development efforts in various areas of life. According to the human capital theory, the most important factor that must be available in the economic development process is human capital and not technology (Fugar et al., 2013). Human capital is very essential because even though technology is good, if a firm which invests in capital also employs educated and skilled workers, not only will the labour be more productive but will also be able to use the capital and technology more efficiently, and will lead to increasing returns on investment (Siddharthan & Narayanan, 2013).

The knowledge-based view theory elucidates further that the development of human capital or highly skilled manpower takes place in many forms. Formally, it occurs in higher educational institutions, such as the universities and relevant specialised institutions (Holton & Yamkovenko, 2008). Besides formal schooling, organisations also offer specialised training internally on the job for their employees and also through apprenticeship and mentoring, leadership roles and talent management (Adeyeye, 2009). This is in line with a statement by Marimuthu et al. (2009) that organisations seek to optimise the knowledge, experience and skills of their workforce through comprehensive human

capital development programmes. This is done not only to achieve business goals but for a long-term survival and sustainability of the organisation (Farid et al., 2012).

Universities play a crucial role in nation building and, therefore, require employees who are skilled and well-informed (Baharom, 2008). The effectiveness of the universities in the development process, as explained by the structural functionalist theory, depends on how well the employees of the universities perform their roles (Bassi, McMurrer & Siesfeld, 2008). This also depends on the strategies in place to enable the staff develop their skills and competencies to make the institutions more competitive.

As the structural functionalists note, institutions are more competitive, if they have functional resources that fit other resources and actions of the institution (Kraaijenbrink & Groen, 2008). Universities, as a system, according to Aziah and Abdul (2011), must be equipped with highly skilled human resource so that, through teaching, learning, and research, they will be able to churn out human capital with skills and abilities needed by the organisations for increased productivity, improved social life and economic development.

Well-structured implementation of human capital development strategies of the universities could help enhance skills and abilities of their staff and improve their performance (Bassi, McMurrer & Siesfeld, 2008). This will have a positive effect on the functional role of the universities for increased productivity (Macionis, 2009). When the universities play such roles then, as the structural-functionalists note, higher educational

institutions would be contributing to the smooth functioning of society. Osman-Gani (2015) for example, notes that implementation of human capital development strategies in Singapore's educational institutions contributed immensely to the country's economic growth. This is because the educational systems train the most qualified individuals for the most socially important positions. Moreover, education teaches people not only the thinking skills that maximize their potential, but also teaches them to be good citizens who get along well with others (Leydens, Lucena & Schneider, 2012).

According to Olaniyan and Okemakinde (2008), human capital plays a vital role in the development drive of every nation and that the initial human capital, available in a region, has the ability to influence its growth. This is explicit in the statement by Siddharthan and Narayanan (2013) that the level of human capital in 1960 influenced the growth of cities between 1960 and 1990, and those cities with higher level of human capital grew faster in the long run. This also gives an indication that a low level of human capital may be a constraint to investment and expansion in sectors that require skilled workers.

Human capital has also been found to have a positive influence on productivity in organisations (Dae-Bong, 2009). This implies that institutions can increase their productivity levels, if the human capital is given the needed boost. As the resource-based view theory indicates, institutions can achieve sustained competitive advantage (SCA), if they can acquire and control valuable, rare, imitable, and non-substitutable resources

and capabilities. Human capital has those qualities as valuable, rare, imitable and non-substitutable (Kraaijenbrink, Spender & Groen, 2009). Institutions, therefore, stand to derive much benefit when their human capital is given the needed boost. This is in consonance with a statement by Mehta (2011) that organisations could succeed in today's rapidly changing and increasingly competitive marketplace, if intense focus is applied to aligning human capital with corporate strategy and objectives.

Studies carried out on human capital and their implications on performance indicate that human capital enhancement will result in greater competitiveness, performance and growth in output (Guthrie, Flood, Lui, & Maccurtain, 2009). Growth in output in many advanced countries has resulted from the improvements in human capital. In China, for example, Fleisher, Li and Zhao (2010) found that human capital enhancement positively affected output and productivity across provinces. Many developing economies, however, have greater challenge in this area simply due to the fact that such economies lack the required human capital. It is worth noting that, irrespective of the availability of physical capital, the quality of human capital is very essential. This is because, if the quality of human capital is inadequate, physical capital cannot be productively utilised and output will stagnate (Farid, et al., 2012).

In a study to determine the extent to which human capital and technology contributed to economic growth in China, Kuo and Yang (2008) confirmed that human capital contributed significantly with similar magnitude as technology to economic growth. The findings, according to

Holton and Yamkovenko (2008), give a clear indication that institutions, such as universities and nations in general must focus on the creation of human capital besides investment in physical capital.

The inclination towards higher education, according to Ahmad and Mir (2012), has increased with time, and the universities are being recognised as the caretakers of the business world of tomorrow. In this regard, the role of the employees working in the universities becomes very complex and demanding. University employees are required to be provided with adequate facilities and opportunities that will help to develop their capability in order to deliver their duties and responsibilities effectively.

The publicly-funded Universities are mandated, among others, to develop knowledge required in various sectors for the development of the economy (Friedman, Miguel, Kremer & Thornton, 2011). As part of their establishment, universities are also expected to have policies that are aimed at developing their faculty and staff to enable the universities to meet their knowledge production function (Effah & Hofman, 2010).

Developing countries, including Ghana, also recognise the role universities play in human capital development and have enacted policies and strategies leading to the establishment of universities. Ghana's public universities are mandated by the law that established them, to churn out human capital for the various sectors of the economy and beyond. For example, the University of Education, Winneba Act, 2004 (Act 672) enjoins the university to play a leading role in the country's drive to produce scholars whose knowledge would be fully responsive to the realities and

exigencies of contemporary Ghana and the West African region (Government of Ghana, 2004).

Similar mandates can be found in the University of Cape Coast Law 1992 (PNDC Law 278) and the University of Ghana Act 2010 (Act 806). Section 2 of the University of Cape Coast Law stipulates that the university should execute its knowledge production function with particular reference to the needs and aspirations of the peoples of Ghana and other countries in Africa (Government of Ghana, 1992; Government of Ghana, 2004; University of Ghana, 2010).

The universities, therefore, have highlights of their commitment towards human capital development in sections of their corporate strategic plans. For example, Objective 6.0 of the corporate strategic plan (2014-2018) of the University of Education, Winneba aims at reviewing and implementing the staff development policy of the University. Objective 3 of the corporate strategy (2012-2017) of the University of Cape Coast, also stipulates to recruit, select, develop and retain high calibre and motivated teaching and non-teaching staff (University of Education, Winneba, 2014; University of Cape Coast, 2012).

Public universities in Ghana invest in human capital development through diverse strategies. The human capital investments include: on-the-job training, mentoring, sponsorships for further studies, seminars and conferences, leadership roles, and talent management (Adeyeye, 2009). These investments are aimed at improving the skills and abilities of faculty and staff to aid them to produce scholarly works required for their

progression to professorial grades and to meet the mandate of the institutions (Nonaka & von Krogh, 2009). It is also to help the institutions to retain their staff, become sustainable and competitive in a dynamic economy (Wang & Noe, 2010). These investments are very important because, as Simkovic (2013) has observed, countries with a weak or non-existent capacity for building the human capital for knowledge generation run the risk of being marginalized.

Consequently, the publicly-funded universities have also established staff training and development sections in their Divisions of Human Resource to foster the implementation of the human capital development strategies. These units are responsible for organising training programmes for all categories of staff within the institutions (Manuh, Gariba & Budu, 2007). There are also professional development programmes designed to equip faculty and staff in their areas of pursuit.

The University of Education, Winneba, for example, has mounted a programme where most faculty who do not have any teaching experience, are groomed to meet standards required of every faculty in the university. Similarly, the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology has established a centre for professional development, where various professional courses are taught to update the skills and competencies of both faculty and staff of the university. Similar establishments exist in the other publicly-funded universities (Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, 2005; University of Education, Winneba, 2014).

The publicly-funded universities also sponsor both faculty and staff

to attend conferences, seminars and, in some instances, for further studies in very critical academic pursuits, both locally and abroad. These sponsorships are required to assist faculty and staff to update their knowledge and skills to strengthen the knowledge base required by the universities to meet their mandates. Besides the above stated strategies, the publicly-funded universities have established quality assurance units to help orient faculty and staff of the institutions to meet standards of the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) and the National Accreditation Board (NAB) (Boateng, 2010).

Following from the above stated human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities, therefore, it becomes expedient to conduct a study into the impact of these strategies on the development of faculty and staff in the light of the myth and reality in the implementation of those strategies in the public universities in Ghana.

Statement of the Problem

Ghana at independence prioritized accelerated industrial growth as the means to boost the welfare of her citizenry as well as economic growth. To achieve these goals, several factors, including building a competent human resource base, were required. The public universities that were established were, therefore, mandated to provide graduates with job-related skills to meet the demands of firms and the economy as a whole.

Institution of the publicly-funded universities in Ghana, initially, began with the University of Ghana (UG), followed by the Kwame

Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), University of Cape Coast (UCC), University for Development Studies (UDS), University of Education, Winneba (UEW), and later the University of Mines and Technology (UMaT). These publicly-funded universities have provided vocational education and training for the top professions such as engineering, medicine and law, thus developing a direct long-term link to the economy and to the practical needs of society (Manuh, et al., 2007). However, due to the ever-increasing complexity of the economy, universities were obliged to provide training for a growing number of professions. The publicly-funded universities, formed the hub of learning for the core professions of the time: law, the priesthood, medicine and the academic profession itself (Akyeampong, 2009).

The knowledge-producing roles of Ghanaian universities are implicit in their teaching, research and community services. Appointments of faculty and staff to professorial grades are made on the basis of recognised contribution to knowledge through scholarly publications at national and international levels (Effah, 2011). These tasks require highly skilled human capital for efficient execution. In order to facilitate this, the publicly-funded universities are guided by unified strategies or policies to develop their existing human capital. The policies recommend sponsorships for faculty and staff to upgrade their knowledge and skills and to aid their career progression (Manuh et al., 2007).

The publicly-funded universities also have strategic plans with projections that aim at developing the faculty and staff of the institution.

Objective 6.1 of the corporate strategic plan (2014-2018) of UEW for example, estimated to spend about GH¢56,556.16 on the implementation of the staff development policy. Similarly, objective 1.3 of the corporate strategic plan (2015-2024) of UMaT projected to spend \$14,262,000 to improve staff development. (University of Education, Winneba, 2014; University of Mines and Technology, 2015).

Nevertheless, the publicly-funded universities have not made major strides in the implementation of their human capital development strategies (Boateng, 2010). Even though all the publicly-funded universities have in their strategic plans to recruit and retain qualified faculty and staff, they are faced with the challenge of very aging faculty, retiring but no qualified replacements, especially now that the minimum entry for an academic position is a PhD (Tettey, 2010; Bingab, Forson, Mmbali & Baah-Enumh, 2015).

For example, a composite statistical report by the National Accreditation Board (NAB) on publicly-funded tertiary institutions points to the fact that, as of the 2012/2013 academic year, academics of professorial rank constituted only 10.7 percent of full-time staff and 3.6 percent of part-time staff. Majority (52.8%) of the full-time staff were lecturers while senior lecturers constituted about a fifth of the total number of academics. However, as many as 69.7 percent of the teaching staff were tutors employed on part-time basis (National Accreditation Board, 2015).

There is also the challenge of a high default rate among those sponsored to pursue programmes overseas. This challenge was confirmed

in a statement by an Acting Director of Human Resources, University of Ghana, that, study leave and sabbatical leave are mostly exit routes for many lecturers and, that have become the best excuse for lecturers quitting the classroom for good (“Legon lecturers flee classroom,” 2005). It is also revealed that the number of lecturers returning from study leave is nothing to write home about (Tettey, 2010). In addition to this challenge is an issue on limited opportunities for professional development of the senior administrative and professional staff (Manuh et al., 2007).

The publicly-funded universities continue to face the challenge of inadequate faculty (Tettey, 2010). Manuh et al. (2007), for example, pointed out that over 40 per cent of faculty positions in the public universities are vacant. The existing faculty and staff are usually faced with difficulties in accessing scholarships and grants for further studies and for research. Hence, the undue delays in their professional development and career progression as well as low research output (Effah & Hofman, 2010). These sometimes lead to dissatisfaction, underutilization of talents, shortage of skills in specific areas and consequent effect on staff commitment to the institution and productivity (Oyinlola & Adeyemi, 2014).

The apparent inadequate implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana could be attributed to a number of factors explicated, in this thesis, with the human capital theory (Becker, 1964, 1993), the resource-based and knowledge-based view theories (Theriou et al., 2009), the structural functionalist theory (Holmwood, 2005), and the top-down and bottom-up approaches (Van

Meter & Van Horn, 2013).

Firstly, on the basis of the human capital theory (Becker, 1964, 1993), people are the most ultimate valuable resource of an organisation and that if an organisation fails to leverage or consistently develop the potentials of its employees to meet current trend of events, such an organisation will not derive the maximum benefits from the employees (Ulrich, 1997a). Alternatively, the organisation may have well-structured programme in place to develop the employees but may be faced with constraints from certain organisational factors like inadequate resources such as funds (Baharom, 2008). As postulated by the human capital theory, expenditures on education and job training constitute a form of capital investment that augments individuals' human capital and leads to greater output for society (Almendarez, 2011; Netcoh, 2016).

Through the Ghana Education Trust Fund, the government supports the public universities annually to develop their human capital. Akyeampong (2009), however, has pointed out that, funding provided is inadequate to support many faculty and staff to pursue further studies. Those sponsored, sometimes, experience delays in the release of funds for payment of their fees, and that creates much inconvenience for them. Inadequate funding, according to Quartey (2009), may be partly due to government's inability to provide the required funds for the institutions. It is also as a result of the universities' inability to generate enough funds internally. Providing adequate funds in support of human capital development is very important because, as the human capital theory

expatriates, when institutions invest in education, they invest to increase the productivity of the workforce (Marimuthu, et al., 2009).

Secondly, publicly-funded universities may not invest in human capital development as a result of the seeming high default rate among the faculty and staff who were sponsored to pursue further studies overseas. This challenge, according to Manuh et al. (2007), is partly due to unattractive conditions of service. Quartey (2009) confirmed this in a report that lack of career development and poor working conditions are important motivations for the highly skilled, such as faculty and staff of the public universities, to migrate.

According to the human capital theory, human capital development leads to enhanced earnings for the individual worker. The resource-based view theory also indicates that an organisation can achieve sustained competitive advantage, if it acquires and controls valuable, rare, imitable, and non-substitutable resources and capabilities. These resources and capabilities are the human capital (Kraaijenbrink, Spender & Groen, 2009).

Thirdly, there may be limited opportunities for professional development of the faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities in Ghana (Manuh et al., 2007). However, the emerging literature indicates the valuable contributions of well-trained faculty and senior administrative staff to the universities in the establishment of quality assurance systems at all levels (Akyeampong, 2009). This is very essential because, according to the structural functionalist theory, individuals and groups are active agents within organisations. Providing them with the needed opportunities for

professional development and skills would enable them to perform their functional roles effectively for increased productivity (Satterfield & Hughes, 2007; Almendarez, 2011).

Fourthly, there may be lack of support by the top management of the universities, with regard to developing the existing faculty and staff. However, no individual can be a perfect fit at the time of employment regardless the individual's professional skills and qualifications (Ubeku, 1983). As explained by the knowledge-based view theory, knowledge acquisition by employees of an organisation, such as the publicly-funded universities, is very critical for its sustainability in the current knowledge-based economy (Theriou, Aggelidis, & Theriou, 2009). Also, it is worth noting that the quality of human capital is very essential. This is because, if the quality of human capital is inadequate, physical capital cannot be productively utilized and output will stagnate (Farid, Chaudhary & Malik, 2012).

Furthermore, evidence reveals that many organisations that claim to foster human capital development have not paid close attention to developing their existing human capital due to the dispositions of those tasked to implement those strategies (Jain & Murray, 1984). Baharom (2008) for example, in a study on the relationship between organisational factors and human resource development policy implementation in Malaysian public universities notes that, dispositions of implementers had always been linked to the success or failure of strategy implementation in institutions. Organisations may have strategies aimed at developing their

human capital but the actual adoption of those strategies in any pragmatic sense has been sparse or a mere formality due to the dispositions of the implementers (Legge, 1995; Watson, 1995). Thus, the gap between institutional policy on human capital development and the actual implementation of those policies becomes an important research area (Gratton, Hope-Hailey, Stiles & Truss, 1999).

Nevertheless, programmes and blueprints are of no use to an institution, if they are not implemented and enforced properly to produce the required results and to achieve aspirations, goals and aims previously decided (Baharom, 2008). There is, therefore, the need to examine the implementation of the human capital development strategies and conduct an investigation of factors influencing the implementation of those strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana.

Objectives of the Study

The study was intended to investigate the myth and reality in the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana. Specifically, it was to:

1. examine the implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff in the publicly-funded universities;
2. examine the relationship between the organisational factors and the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities;
3. analyse the levels of enhancement and the challenges experienced by

the publicly-funded universities in the implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff; and

4. Make recommendations that will ensure effective implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana.

Research Questions

In order to address objectives 1 and 3 the study sought answers for the following research questions:

- How do the publicly-funded universities implement their human capital development strategies for faculty and staff?
- What are the levels of enhancements and challenges associated with the implementation of the strategies aimed at developing human capital in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana?

Hypothesis

With respect to objective 2 it was hypothesised that:

H₀ : Organisational factors have no significant association with the implementation of the human capital development strategies.

H₁ : Organisational factors have significant association with the implementation of the human capital development strategies.

Significance of the Study

This research is very important for the development of faculty and

staff in the Ghanaian public universities in several respects. First, the research illuminates the processes that develop between human capital principles and their introduction and implementation within the public universities. A number of dimensions were identified as enhancing or restricting acceptance of human capital development in the public universities in Ghana and presents a framework in which issues identified are integrated to the extent that if properly handled, could enhance the skills and abilities of faculty and staff for the development of the institutions and the nation in general.

Second, the study provides useful information for government institutions, such as the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) and the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETfund) secretariat, tasked with the responsibility of ensuring the development of the tertiary institutions. The NCTE will have the needed information on the human capital requirements of the publicly-funded universities and make appropriate recommendations to the government for redress. The GETfund secretariat, on the other hand, is responsible for the provision of funds for scholarships and projects in the educational sector. Information gathered from this study will enable the GETfund secretariat to provide adequate funding for scholarships to develop the human capital base of the publicly-funded universities.

Third, the study contributes to the growing body of empirical work in the field of human capital development strategy implementation. Thus, by focusing on in-depth reports by management of the public universities, Deans and Heads of Department, who have designed human capital

initiatives, and senior academic and administrative staff, who have been recipients of human capital initiatives, the micro-processes of human capital development can be drawn out and assessed. This study will, therefore, respond to calls made by a number of scholars, such as Nordhaug (1993), Delery and Doty (1996) and Crutchfield (2000), to develop a more empirically grounded understanding of the implementation of human capital development strategies in organisations.

Finally, the study made recommendations that will assist the governing body and management of the public universities to consider improving future human capital initiatives.

Scope of the Study

The study focused on the senior members (both teaching and non-teaching) in six publicly-funded universities, namely: the University of Ghana; Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology; the University of Cape Coast; the University of Education, Winneba; the University for Development Studies; and the University of Mines and Technology. These institutions were selected because they were the pioneering public universities that were established to develop human capital for critical areas of the Ghanaian economy. They have also operated as autonomous institutions for many years and should, therefore, have well-structured human resource policies and practices.

Furthermore, these institutions have, over the period of their existence, sponsored many of their faculty and staff, in diverse ways, to

enhance their skills and abilities for effective service delivery. These institutions were, therefore, in a good position to expatiate on their experiences with regard to the human capital development strategies for their faculty and staff. Senior members (teaching), on one hand comprised faculty or lecturers, irrespective of the level or rank. Senior members (non-teaching), on the other hand, included the administrative and other professional staff at the rank of Assistant Registrar or its equivalent and above. These categories of staff formed the main human capital required to meet the objectives of the publicly-funded universities and, therefore, gave a clear picture on the myths and realities of the human capital development programme pertaining to the public universities in Ghana.

The study also examined university strategic plans and policy documents on human capital development and the extent to which those policies were implemented in the public universities in Ghana. It then assessed factors that influence the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the universities. The study further looked at innovative ways that the public universities have adopted to generate enough funds internally, improve upon their conditions of service and retain faculty and staff after building their capacity.

Delimitations

The study was limited to senior members and, therefore, could not cover all the categories of employees, especially the senior and junior staff in the selected publicly-funded universities in Ghana. Also, the study

focused on only six of the publicly-funded universities in Ghana, even though the others that were not included may have some peculiar characteristics that might be useful to the study.

Limitations

The quantitative aspect of the study was of a lesser intensity. It did not adopt rigorous statistical approach that required testing of the variables to bring out issues on the extent to which implementation of the human capital development strategies by the publicly-funded universities, impacted on their levels of development.

Definition of Terms

The following operational definition of terms, as used in the text, were derived after a thorough review of literature.

Human capital: Skills, competencies, knowledge and abilities embedded in individuals that allow them to be more productive (Demeulemeester & Diebolt, 2011).

Human capital development: Increasing or improving upon the skills, competencies, knowledge and abilities embedded in individuals.

Human capital development strategies: Plans designed by institutions to achieve improvement in the skills competencies, knowledge and abilities embedded in individuals.

Implementation: A systematic process composed of a logical set of activities that facilitates expected outcome of an institution's

strategy.

Organisational factors: Issues that influence a company's activities either positively or negatively.

Strategies: The policies and programmes aimed at ensuring that faculty and staff update their knowledge and skills at regular intervals to enable them function effectively to meet the strategic objectives of their institutions.

Organisation of the Study

The thesis is composed of eight chapters. Chapter One provides the introduction and research background on human capital in organisations, statement of the problem, objectives and research questions. It also elucidates the scope, significance and limitations of the study, as well as the operational definition of terms, and organisation of the thesis.

Chapter Two discusses the theoretical framework and conceptual review of related literature, beginning with the institutional context of this study. Within this context, a stage is set for the description of the role of universities in human capital development and the urgent need for universities to implement strategies aimed at developing their faculty and staff who are the key players in the achievement of the institutional objectives. The literature review argues that a gap is apparent for further studies on human capital development within organisations. It further reviews literature on the implementation of human capital development strategies and challenges associated with implementation.

Chapter Three discusses the empirical evidence on implementation of human capital development strategies and the lessons derived from the review of extant literature. The chapter ends with a conceptual framework for human capital development, upon which this study is based.

Chapter Four focuses on the research methodology and proposes a research design and process of investigation for the study. Specifically, a mixed-method approach, combining structured interviews, semi-structured interviews and archival data sources is used. The chapter further presents information on the study organisations, philosophical discussions on the research approach, research design, the study population and units of analysis, sampling procedures, ethical considerations, sources of data, data collection instruments, fieldwork and data processing and analysis.

Chapter Five analyses the implementation of human capital development strategies. It focuses on the profile of respondents, strategies for developing human capital, and how the publicly-funded universities implement the human capital development strategies. Chapter Six examines the relationship between the organisational factors and the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities. Chapter Seven discusses the enhancements and challenges associated with the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities. The chapter begins with a discussion on the extent to which management of the publicly-funded universities adhered to the modalities governing the implementation of those strategies and followed with the level of enhancement experienced by

the respondents after accessing opportunities offered by the human capital development strategies. The chapter further looks at the specific challenges identified with the process of the strategy implementation and what management of the institutions had done to mitigate those challenges.

Chapter Eight presents a discussion of the main findings and examines them in the context of existing theories. It further provides a summary of the key findings, conclusions, recommendations, contributions to knowledge, and identifies areas for further research.



CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter has three objectives. First, as this thesis focuses on universities, the basic institutional context is described, including the role of universities in human capital development and the urgent need for universities to implement strategies aimed at developing their faculty and staff who are the key players in the achievement of the institutional objectives.

Second, the thesis discusses the theoretical framework that supports this study. Research on policy implementation has developed significantly over the past few decades (Friedman, 2003). Although there are numerous conceptual and empirical articles on policy implementation, academic literature on the implementation of human capital development strategies is almost non-existent (Baharom, 2008). Policy implementation still suffers from a fundamental problem related to the lack of common terminology (Kristandl & Bontis, 2007). There is no widely accepted theoretical framework for defining the implementation of human capital development strategies (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1981). This thesis tries to build a strong theoretical framework for investigating the implementation of human capital development strategies by combining various theories on policy implementation.

The researcher used the human capital theory to define and

understand the concept of human capital and human capital development. Under the human capital theory framework, various human capital development strategies were identified in relation to various organisational factors that may impact the implementation of those strategies in the universities. Based on the human capital theory, other theories related to human capital development were employed to understand different components of human capital development. Other theories and models related to policy implementation were also employed to help understand the effect of organisational factors on policy implementation.

Third, this chapter reviews related literature on human capital development strategies. It discusses the concept of human capital development, and related empirical evidence on human capital development. The discussion also encompasses the role of training in human capital development, human capital policy development and implementation, organisational factors that affect the implementation of policy, and models for policy implementation.

Institutional Context of the Study

The ultimate role of universities, as already indicated in Chapter One, is to supply human capital for national economic development (Holton & Yamkovenko, 2008). This is in consonance with the views of some economists that a university is a long-term investment that is very profitable, especially in supplying trained manpower in various critical areas of the economy in order to facilitate development (Hanushek &

Woessmann, 2008).

The important role of universities in human capital development, according to Vogel and Keen (2010), provides a strong rationale for governments and private households to invest substantial portions of their resources in university education with the expectation that higher benefits would accrue over time. In this context, university education is deemed as an investment that enables individuals to be equipped with knowledge and skills that improve their employability and productive capacities that would lead to higher earnings in the future (Ahmad & Mir, 2012).

Higher education serves as basis for the formation of innovative human resources oriented to intellectual, high technology, productive, and creative activities (Soukiazis & Antunes, 2012). The educational potential of human capital is believed to be its most important component, since education gives knowledge, abilities and skills, develops professional skills and, consequently, generates conditions for obtaining competitive advantages and extra benefits (Balan & Knack, 2012).

According to Abel and Deitz (2012), advanced level of human capital and individuals' knowledge and expertise have an impact on an economy's success. The authors note that regions, with advanced levels of human capital, are perceived to have greater amounts of economic activity and fast economic development, and these regions' employees are likely to be more productive and have higher earnings. Hence, human capital development is an increasingly fundamental element of local economic development strategies. Bassey and Bassey (2011) also note that higher

education institutions, such as the universities, have an important role to play in addressing human capital needs.

As pointed out by Pidlisnyuk (2010), education is a means of training human resources to optimize productivity by encouraging the spread of technology and cultural conditions favourable to social and economic change. Universities, as described by Osim, Onya, Chika, and Ekpiken (2013), play an important role in strengthening human capital by means of putting in place certain standards of education that promote ideas, innovation and the acceptance of modern technology, with the side effect of realizing sustainable development.

According to Abel and Deitz (2012), adapted approaches that play a significant role in the economic activities contributed by universities often centre on direct employment or expenditure outcomes. On the other hand, the likely influence of universities exists beyond these standard effects for a significant reason. The authors explain that, knowledge facilitated by universities through research can play a vital role in raising the human capital in a region by assisting local businesses in creating employment opportunities with advanced human capital needs. Assem (2012), in support of the functions of universities, notes that universities play a significant role in strengthening the knowledge and skills or human capital, essential for the economic success of a region and a nation in general.

Melnychuk et al. (2003) note that universities are indispensable in promoting sustainable development and improving the capacity of people to address environmental and development matters. Pidlisnyuk (2010) also

notes that, strengthening human capital with the right skills, knowledge, competencies, mental states, mind-sets and motivation through education, remains the most common long-term strategy in the pursuit of sustainable growth. The author argues that a significant factor in strengthening human capital is reinforcing the role of education and conducting training of diversified groups of stakeholders, including scholars and specialists.

Regarding the impact of human capital on a region's economic performance, Abel and Gabe (2011) were indicative of the fact that the presence of universities explains the large differences in human capital levels across metropolitan areas. Consequently, Adelokun (2011) points out that building human capital for sustainable development requires the transformation of the educational system mainly at the university level, as universities are the main generators of human capital in their respective locations. Ahmad and Mir (2012) clarified that universities generate human capital for lower levels of the educational system, as well as for non-educational organisations. As a result, universities have a very significant role to play in the endorsement and implementation of sustainable development.

The literature reveals diverse ways by which universities can play a key role in the development of human capital in their regions. According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD] (2007), universities can attract talent to the region and help to retain and develop it. They can also widen access to higher education, especially from remote areas, for communities with a low tradition of participation in higher

education and among non-traditional learners who wish to combine work and study. Puukka and Marmolejo (2008) were also of the view that universities can improve the balance between the labour market and supply through supporting new enterprises in their curricula, creating improved labour market intelligence and enhancing links with local employers.

Thus, Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs) have a responsibility to develop knowledge that can be applied in their regions. In line with this, the OECD (2007) observes that a labour market mismatch can often be attributed to factors, such as lack of labour intelligence; knowledge gaps between the HEIs/graduates and regional employers; inadequate cooperation between HEIs and employers; and inadequate support for new enterprises. Hence, according to Guthrie et al. (2009) it is important that the HEIs create strong links with employers and the labour markets in their respective regions for the various sectors to derive the maximum benefits from the higher educational institutions.

Bassi and McMurrer (2008) explicate that the obligations of higher educational institutions, such as universities, in human capital development, require that faculty and staff, who are the key players in the universities, must have the knowledge and abilities to perform their roles. Acquisition of knowledge by the key players is very necessary because, according to Etor (2011), as a result of curriculum reviews and technology advancement, there is the need for faculty and staff to update their knowledge and skills in line with the current trend of affairs. This also depends on the implementation of strategies in place for the faculty and staff to develop

their skills and competencies to make the institutions more effective and competitive in the development process (Kraaijenbrink & Groen, 2008).

Wognum and Lam (2000) recommend that sound implementation of human capital development strategies is an essential activity to ensure the development of capable human resources within the organisation. According to Bahoram (2008) effective implementation of human capital development strategies is very important because global pressures and internalisation of business transactions demand that the human capital of an organisation be fully equipped with current development and knowledge to ensure organisational sustainability.

Theoretical Background

Theories give a systematic explanation for observations that relate to particular aspects of a study. They explain observations by means of concepts (Barbie, 2007, p. 43). According to Bryman (2008), researchers who adopt mixed methods either emphasize a preference for treating theory as something that emerges out of the collection and analysis of data or interested in the testing or application of theories in advance of data collection and analysis. In this study, the employment of theories as framework for the collection of data and analysis to aid the interpretation of data was adopted. Theories will, therefore, be further linked with the implementation of human capital development strategies to form a coherent and integrated body of literature to guide this research.

The human capital theory was employed in this study as a way to

inquire into and assess the extent to which the publicly-funded universities invest in the development of the skills and abilities of their existing employees. The resource-based view, knowledge-based view, and the structural-functionalist theories were also used to establish the fact that human capital, when developed to acquire the needed skill, would play its functional roles effectively, and therefore, become the main source of competitive advantage. They were also used to examine efforts made by the public universities to retain faculty and staff after training.

Human Capital Theory

The importance of understanding the motivations and social needs of individuals at work and how this can potentially increase production and improve the process of management is the major contribution of the human relations movement (Torrington, Hall & Taylor, 2005). Work in the neo-human relations tradition places an emphasis on the psychological and social factors that can lead employees to perform highly (Cole, 2005). This is evident in Maslow's emphasis on human needs, Herzberg's postulation of hygiene and growth factors in his theory of motivation and satisfaction, McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y, and Argyris's focus on the effects of the formal organisation on individual development within the organisation (Armstrong, 2009). These theories point to various ways to motivate employees for enhanced productivity.

The evolution of human capital theory is firmly located within the neo-human relations tradition. In the 1960s, social scientists became

interested in studies related to the economic value of investment in education (Agbo, 2007). This interest was generated by the human capital theorists' notion that the most productive course to national development of any society lies in the advancement of its population, that is, its human capital (Assem, 2012).

Human capital is defined as “the knowledge, skills, competencies and attributes embodied in individuals, that facilitate the creation of personal, social and economic well-being” (OECD, 2001, p.29) and it refers to any stock of knowledge or the innate/acquired characteristics a person has that contributes to his or her economic productivity (Garibaldi, 2006). In essence, human capital theory suggests that education increases the productivity and earnings of individuals. Therefore, education is an investment which is not only crucial for individuals but it is also the key to the economic growth of a country (Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

The history of human capital can be traced back to the 1770s, when Smith (1776) included all acquired and useful abilities of a country's inhabitants as part of capital. However, the term human capital did not attract great interest in the literature until the 1960s. Schultz (1971) points out that modern economics failed to take account of human capital and the importance of it in a modern economy. In his point of view, some important activities, such as health facilities and service, on-the-job training, formal education, and study programmes for adults can improve human capability, and, in turn, yield a positive rate of return (Schultz, 1971).

Human capital theory derives from the neoclassical school of thought in economics and is based on various assumptions. Agbo (2007) notes that in the neoclassical model, individuals are assumed to seek to maximize their own economic interests. Accordingly, as explained by the author, human capital theory postulates that individuals invest in education and training in the hope of getting a higher income in the future. This approach to human capital, according to Blaug (1992), is closely associated with methodological individualism. It is the doctrine that the roots of all social phenomena could be found in the individual's behaviours. Marimuthu et al. (2009) note that, this notion of human capital conforms to the assumption that human capital formation is typically undertaken primarily by those individuals who seek to maximize their interests.

Kern (2009) also described the assumption of human capital theory as follows: the individual acquires knowledge and skills through education and training, that is, human capital. These knowledge and skills will increase his or her productivity in the workplace. This increased productivity will bring a higher salary to the individual since the wage of a person, in the ideal labour market, is determined by the person's productivity. Therefore, as Marginson (2014) notes, people would invest in education up to the point where the private benefits from education are equal to the private costs. In light of this set of assumptions, the logic of human capital theory becomes clear that education and training increase human capital and this leads to a higher productivity rate, which, in turn, brings a higher wage for the individual.

Using the economic logic to analyse how education generates economic returns, Becker (1964; 1993) explains that the human capital theory, emphasises the labour costs relative to the return on investment (i.e., future productivity) for developing employee skills and knowledge (i.e., skills education and training). According to the human capital theory, employees own their own human capital, and firms seek to protect themselves from the transfer of their human capital investments to other firms (Lepak & Snell, 1999). Institutions, can therefore, get the best results from their human capital, when there are adequate strategies that ensure their development through education and training.

Human capital theory contends that, because an educated population is a productive population, education contributes directly to the growth of the national income of societies by enhancing the skills and productive abilities of employees. As Marimuthu, Arokiasamy and Ismail (2009) note, human capital is an important input for every organisation. Thus, when employees' knowledge, skills and abilities are continuously improved through further education and training, they become very innovative and productive (Niringiye, Luvanda, & Shitundu, 2010).

Similarly, Maimunah and Lawrence (2008) note that human capital theory is about the fact that a more educated/skilled workforce makes it easier for a firm to adopt and implement new technologies. The theory is, therefore, of the view that education and training of the workforce are very necessary for the success of every organisation (Marimuthu et al., 2009). According to the theory, education leads to increase in productivity and

efficiency of workers by increasing the level of their cognitive skills (Kern, 2009). This is in support of what Jamal and Saif (2011) indicate, that nothing happens unless a human being makes a concise decision to act, for behind technology, ideas, creativity and innovation lies the human talent. The provision of education, therefore, is seen as a productive investment in human capital, an investment which the proponents of human capital theory considers to be equally or even more equally worthwhile than that of physical capital (Kwon, 2009).

According to Adhlakum (2011), people invest in education so as to increase their stock of human capabilities that can be formed by combining innate abilities with investment in human beings. Examples of such investments include expenditure on education, on-the-job training, health and nutrition. However, as Bassi et al. (2008) note, the stock of human capital increases only when gross investment exceeds depreciation with the passage of time, with intense use or lack of use. Human capital theorists, according to Kern (2009), have established that basic literacy enhances the productivity of workers in low-skilled occupations. The author notes further that, the human capital philosophers were of the view that instruction that demands logical and analytical reasoning and provides technical and specialised knowledge, increases the marginal productivity of workers in high skill or profession and positions.

The human capital theorists are of the view that education and training on the job afford the employees the opportunity to acquire new skills which, when brought to bear on the institution, results in enhanced

performance, leading to increased productivity, innovation and quality service (Becker, 1993). In relation to this, Zula and Chermack (2007) indicate that human capital theory involves investing in acquired education/schooling, on-the-job training and development and other knowledge, which have a positive impact on productivity and wages. In his address to the American Economic Association in 1960, Theodore Schultz declared that education was a productive investment and was not merely a form of consumption (Schultz, 1971). He maintained that, apart from improving individual choices available to people, education provided the category of labour force required for industrial development and economic growth.

The human capital theory, however, has been subjected to various criticisms and, hence, the difficulty in adopting it as the most reliable concept for institutional development. According to Niringiye et al. (2010) the theory assumes that better educated and more skilled people obtain better jobs and are eventually more productive. The authors, however, revealed that this condition, does not prevail in the real world. For instance, human capital theory assumes that individuals are rational and they will invest in education so long as the marginal benefits exceed or equal the marginal costs (Blundell, Dearden, Meghir, & Sianesi, 1999). According to Johnes (2006), individuals cannot readily estimate the future benefits and costs of education as that could be affected by some economic and social factors.

According to Beach (2009) human decisions and preferences are

affected and limited by many other factors, such as individuals' cognitive abilities, perceptions, and habits. The author notes that individuals' decisions about their education careers are also affected and limited by social, cultural, and other factors. However, according to Bowles and Gintis (2002), individuals undertake an educational programme for a variety of reasons, including peer pressure and parents' expectations. Even the desire to leave home and the social class of parents can also be a decisive factor.

As Marks (2003) notes, every individual is influenced by a unique set of factors and motivations, when they plan their education careers. It is particularly the case in post-compulsory education since it has the characteristics of positional goods, which provides relative advantage in the competition for the job and social status (Hirsch, 1976). For instance, Purcell and Pitcher (1996) highlighted three broad categories for the reasons to go to university: hedonistic (enjoyment), pragmatic (employment), and fatalistic (passive reasons, such as parental pressure). This indicates that, unlike what the human capital theory suggests, decisions about giving up or carrying on education is not a completely rational process based on a painstakingly calculated cost-benefit analysis.

Second, human capital theorists, according to Spence (1973), claim that education enhances a person's skills and it leads to a higher productivity level in the workplace, which, in turn, will bring a higher wage to the person. According to Purcell and Pitcher (1996) what the school does is to classify students according to their intelligence and commitment through the processes of admission requirements and grading. By doing that, it

establishes a supposed hierarchy of students, based on their academic successes, by which the potential productivity level of an individual, more or less, can be predicted.

Also, as SalehElomr (2012) notes, due to imperfect information in the labour market, the education level of a person is simply taken as a proof of his or her higher ability to produce, whereas in fact there is not necessarily a correlation between education and productivity. It follows the conclusion that education may increase a person's wage without increasing his or her productivity per se (Blaug, 1976).

Another tenet of human capital theory is related to the impact of education on national economic growth. According to Benhabib and Spiegel (1994) the human capital theorists were of the view that education will not only increase the wages of educated employees but also it will generate higher productivity, lower unemployment, and greater social mobility. In other words, the average incomes of educated persons will rise. However, as Pritchett (2001) indicates, if there are positive externalities to education, national average incomes should rise even more than the sum of individual incomes.

Contrary to the assumption that education will result in increase in wages and other social returns, Blundell, Dearden, Meghir and Sianesi (1999) explain that education can increase private returns but not social returns. According to Pritchett (2001) the impacts of education may differ at the individual level and the national level. In that regard, Caselli, Esquivel, and Lefort (1996) and Mankiw, Romer, and Weil (1992) do not

find a strong evidence for the claim that investing in human capital necessarily produces economic growth. In a cross-country survey, Benhabib and Spiegel (1994) discovered that “human capital accumulation fails to enter significantly in the determination of economic growth, and even enters with a negative point estimate” (Benhabib & Spiegel, 1994, p. 166).

Islam (1995) also finds a negative correlation between schooling and growth in some countries. For example, even though schooling rates substantially increased in several countries, such as Mexico, El Salvador, Bolivia, Jamaica, Peru, and Jordan from 1965 to 2000, according to Pritchett (2013) only a slight improvement or even negative growth took place in the aggregate production levels of these countries.

Furthermore, the human capital theory does not consider factors other than education. However, factors, such as job satisfaction and working conditions, could contribute to higher worker productivity (Epstein & Freund, 1984). The human capital theory, according to Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1985), fails to recognise education as a screening or filtering device merely used by employers to identify workers with superior ability and personal attributes. According to the authors, while education may identify productive capacity of employees, it may not directly improve workers’ skills and productivity.

These criticisms notwithstanding, the human capital theory has been instrumental in shaping policies regarding education and development strategies for governments and many organisations (Hanushek & Kimko, 2000). Rastogi (2000) proposes that, in order to develop human capital, a

firm needs to employ the competency-based framework of human resource generic functions, such as selection, appraisal, promotion and compensation. As theories of strategic management have turned toward resource-based view of the firm, where competitive advantage increasingly resides in a firm's ability to learn and change through people, the human competency becomes increasingly important to generate positive performance (Kudonoo, Buame & Acheampong, 2012). The next section will, therefore, focus on the resource-based view theory and how it relates to the human capital theory to improve upon the criteria used by the publicly-funded universities in developing their human capital.

Resource-Based View Theory

Within the strategy literature, the issue of what contributes to competitive advantage has seen a shift in emphasis away from a focus on the external positioning in the industry toward an acknowledgement that internal resources be seen crucial to sustained competitiveness (Kraaijenbrink, et al., 2009). According to Bohnenkamp (2013), the work of Penrose (1959) represents the beginning of the resource-based view of the firm, which was later, articulated by Rumelt (1984), Dierickx and Cool (1989) and Barney (1991, 1995).

The resource-based view theory dwells on the assumption that individual organisations build a valuable set of resources, both tangible and intangible, and bundle them together in unique ways to generate economic rent (Hallberg, 2009). According to Kraaijenbrink et al. (2009), the main

proposition of the resource-based view is that, if an organisation is to achieve a state of sustained competitive advantage, it must acquire and control valuable, rare, imitable, and non-substitutable resources and capabilities. In other words, it is argued that competitive advantage is no longer dependent, as traditionally assumed, on such basis as external resources and technology, since these are increasingly easy to imitate (Seshadri, 2010). Rather, competitive advantage is, according to the Resource Based View, dependent on the extent to which a firm optimises resource endowments and deployments within an organisation (Bohnenkamp, 2013).

In order to be considered a source of competitive advantage, resources must meet four criteria: value, rarity, inimitability and non-substitutability (Kraaijenbrink et al., 2009). Building on this theoretical perspective of the resource-based view, Sum (2011), argues that human resources meet the resource-based view conditions for being a source of competitive advantage. According to Sum (2011), people are the strategic assets of every organisation. They are difficult to trade, imitate, and have specialised resources and capabilities that bestow the organisation's competitive advantage. Lopez, Valle and Herrero (2006) note that people are a repository of knowledge and skills and are, therefore, the most valuable and necessary asset for any organisation to compete and generate competitive advantage.

An institution may have a great strategic plan in place, yet it means nothing if its people lack access to appropriate and relevant knowledge,

skills, and attitudes to successfully support or carry out the strategic plan (Seshadri, 2010). Since people are the core driver of successful strategy implementation, it is vital for those, especially top management and executive teams, who plan and formulate strategy to realise that having their employees armed with appropriate knowledge and skills is a key element for successful strategy implementation (Sum, 2011). In an earlier report, Porter (2000) stresses that institutions operating in the knowledge-based economy become more and more dependent on the skills and knowledge of their workers.

Given the underlying foundation of human capital within the resource-based view context, Rastogi (2000) argues that human capital too constitutes the ultimate source for sustaining the competitive performance of an organisation over time. In this sense, Garavan et al. (2001) provide theoretical propositions of strategic human capital accumulation in relation to the resource-based view principles, with a focus on how firms can manage human resources to achieve competitive advantage. They also commend that the importance of the human capital pool and how it is managed through human resource processes becomes apparent to the strategic aims of the organisation.

However, Simon, Hitt and Ireland (2007) argue that individual knowledge, skills and abilities are essential, but not sufficient, and that employee behaviour is required to be aligned with the organisational policies as well. Jackson and Schuler (2003) also provide a refined view by arguing that it is not the human capital pool that builds competitive

advantage, but the human resource policies and practices that can create a competitive effect.

Also, the resource-based view theory is overly focused on internal resources and their influences on the firm's competitive advantage, while giving little attention to external environments, such as the labour market (Armstrong & Shimizu, 2007). The external environment, according to Becerra (2008), is very important for the success of every organisation. This is because the creation of human resource strategic assets depends not only on the internal organisational processes, but also on the firm's ability to recruit from the external labour market and its capacity to prevent the loss and erosion of valued expertise.

Furthermore, the resource-based view has been based on the assumption that, a written set of human resource policies, if executed as intended, could generate outcomes as expected to sustain competitive advantage (Kudonoo, Buame & Acheampong, 2012). Truss (2001a), however, argues that this assumption is not pragmatic because it fails to account for the individual interpretations of the policies. According to Truss (2001b), the written human resource policies are not necessarily implemented due to the diverse interpretations employees have toward the human resource policies.

Despite critical arguments against the resource-based view theory, articulated in both the human resource and strategy literature, Torrington, Hall and Taylor (2005) note that the increasing recognition of the resource-based view theory has done much to promote human resource management

(HRM), in general, and human capital development, in particular. According to Kudonoo et al. (2012), human resource management strategies, based upon the resource-based model, aim at bringing together the organisation's human resource competencies and its core competencies to promote competitive advantage.

The resource-based view theory has stimulated institutions to focus on adopting strategies that place a premium on the human resource development (Ulrich, 1997a). Organisations are now highly dependent on their human capital for their competitive advantage (Jackson & Schuler, 2003). Lawler (2004) also notes that the market value of corporations increasingly depends on their intangible assets, such as their knowledge, core competencies and organisational capabilities. These changes have created a growing consensus that effective human capital management is critical to an organisation's success (Kudonoo et al., 2012).

Knowledge-Based View Theory

The knowledge-based view theory of the firm was propounded as a result of the weaknesses identified with the resource-based view theory of the firm. The knowledge-based theorists consider knowledge to be the most strategic resource of the firm. The proponents argue that knowledge-based resources are hard to imitate, socially complex, immobile and heterogeneous and, thus, are major determinants of sustained competitive advantage (Theriou, Aggelidis & Theriou, 2009). Unlike the resource-based view that agrees that, for institutions to gain sustained competitive

advantage their resources must be rare, valuable and non-substitutable, recent concepts of the knowledge-based view of the firm indicate that organisational learning plays a key role in the sustainability of competitive advantages. Individuals are, therefore, owners and controllers of knowledge, the most important factor of production (Kirsimarja & Aino, 2009).

Knowledge acquisition by employees of an organisation is very critical for its sustainability in the current knowledge-based economy. As Cavalcanti (2003) notes, knowledge workers produce more than 55 per cent of the world's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The shift from manufacturing to services has been accomplished through the usage and integration of knowledge, more than through the usage of physical resources, like land and materials. According to Helfat and Peteraf (2003), Knowledge Based View theorists believe that the knowledge-based view of the firm is the natural evolution of the resource-based view. This is because the resource with the most sustained competitive advantage is the most valuable, inimitable and immobile of all. That resource is knowledge (Theriou, Aggelidis & Theriou, 2009). Thus, all the resources in the productive process are useful but knowledge is considered to be the critical input and primary source of value (Jacobs, 2017).

Supporting the fact that knowledge is very critical for the success of every organisation, Peltokorpi and Tsuyuki (2006) note that, through the capability of using and developing knowledge, Maekawa Manufacturing Limited was able to transform itself from a supplier of physical products

and parts into a provider of comprehensive solutions. Similarly, Marimuthu et al. (2009) note that knowledge has a direct impact on the return on investment of firms.

The knowledge-based view considers firms as bodies that generate, integrate and distribute knowledge (Theriou, Aggelidis & Theriou, 2009). According to this theory, the ability to create value is not based much upon physical or financial resources but on a set of intangible or tacit knowledge-based capabilities (Drucker, 1992). Kogut and Zander (1996) expound that performance differences between organisations accrue, due to their different stocks of knowledge and their differing capabilities in using and developing knowledge.

From this perspective, the firm can be understood as a social community, specialising in speed and efficiency in the creation and transfer of knowledge (Reich, 1992; Winslow & Bramer, 1994). Thus, in the knowledge-based view, the role of organisational factors that support the development of knowledge is critical (Grant & Baden-Fuller, 2004). The competitiveness of the firm does not so much depend on its product-market positioning in relation to external competitors, but rather, on its ability to develop the knowledge of its employees (Kirsimaria & Aino, 2009).

Human capital is among key organisational resources that are hard to imitate. Therefore, according to Drucker (1957), maintaining and developing human capital is crucial for organisations to stay in the forefront. However, Octavian and Nicoleta (2010) argue that few researchers have considered the human capital development approach as one of the basic

influencing factor of the knowledge-based view. According to Son (2010), human capital is a strategic factor in production as it represents the cognitive competencies, skills, relational behaviour and knowledge of individuals that enhance productive output, and contributes to organisation productive performance.

The knowledge-based approach is subject to a number of criticisms. As Felin and Foss (2005) note, the nature of the central construct or capabilities, as indicated by the knowledge-based approach, is unclear. It is not also clear how capabilities are conceptualised, and measured, as well as how capabilities emerge and are changed by individual action. The theory also does not state clearly the mechanisms between capabilities and economic organisation (Arnold, Collier, Leech, Sutton, & Vincent, 2013). Felin and Hesterly (2007) are also of the view that assumptions about the motivations and cognitive characteristics of individuals and the nature of the links between the individual and collective levels, as propounded by the theory, are uncertain. This is because routines and capabilities do not have an anchor in individual antecedents. They can virtually be anything at the organisational level.

These criticisms notwithstanding, the knowledge-based theory complements the resource-based view to strengthen the notion on how firms could achieve sustainable competitive advantage (Nickerson & Zenger, 2004). Curado and Bontis (2006) note that the resource-based view is applied to explain that differences in performance between and amongst firms depend on the valuable resources they possess. These resources may

be physical, human or organisational and tangible or intangible. As Wang, He and Mahoney (2009) note, in the knowledge-based view of an organisation, knowledge and information are the underlying sources of competitive advantage. This implies that the knowledge stock and the learning capabilities of organisation are key economic factors in the productivity of knowledge-based organisations, such as the public universities (Mbhalati, 2012).

Both resource-based and the knowledge-based perspectives have deep roots in the field of strategic management. In line with the knowledge-based view, managers enhance the firm's capacity to produce efficiently by updating or advancing knowledge (Jacobs, 2017). Similarly, Theriou et al. (2009) note that the resource-based perspective has an intra-organisational focus and argues that performance is a result of firm-specific resources and capabilities. Both theories have a common focus that aims at ensuring that firms and organisations develop their valuable resources and capabilities for sustained competitive advantage.

The resource-based and the knowledge-based perspectives support the structural functionalists' view of human capital as knowledge, skills and abilities of people, accumulated through initial education, further education and work experience, which are useful for the production of goods, services and other knowledge (Lenka, 2012). The structural functionalist theory is, therefore, used in this study to support the earlier theories in stressing the need for institutions to develop their human capital for enhanced productivity.

Structural-Functionalist Theory

The structural-functionalist theory is a perspective in sociology that sees society as a complex system whose parts work together to promote solidarity and stability (Perrin, 1973). The origin of structural-functionalist theory can be traced to an earlier generation of writers working in the field of anthropology in the 20th Century. They include notably the British-based anthropologists Bronislaw Malinowski (1884-1942) and Alfred Radcliffe-Brown (1881-1955). The central methodological precept of the structural functionalists is that the actions of individuals are not to be explained by the immediate meanings they have for actors. They are to be explained by the function they serve for the wider social group (Holmwood, 2005). According to Parsons (1961), the roles that individuals play complement each other in fulfilling functions for society. The structural-functionalists, therefore, refer to human capital as knowledge, skills and abilities of people, accumulated through initial education, further education and work experience, which are useful for production of goods, services and other knowledge (Lenka, 2012).

Parsons (1961) notes that some roles are bound up in institutions and social structures (economic, educational, legal and even gender-based). These roles are functional in the sense that they assist society in operating and fulfil its functional needs. Higher educational institutions, according to the structural-functionalists, contribute to the smooth functioning of society. They help to rank people into various hierarchies, and different levels of talents are rewarded according to the functional importance of a position

(Macionis, 2009). Educational systems train the most qualified individuals for the most socially important positions. Moreover, education teaches people not only the thinking skills that maximise their potential, but also teaches them to be good citizens who get along well with others (Findsen & Formosa, 2011). This functional role of the educational system is seen as its positive function of the overall society. This is because those lower in the hierarchy can aspire to higher levels through hard work (Leydens, Lucena & Schneider, 2012).

Structural functionalists are of the view that individuals and groups within an organisation are active agents that can foster its growth and development (Seddon, 2001). It is, therefore, imperative for organisations to develop their human capital through organisational learning or training, to foster organisational change (Homan & Macpherson, 2005). Early work on organisational learning emphasised the importance of single and double feedback loops in organisational processes (Blass, 2005; Holland & Pyman, 2006). Thus, organisational improvement required individual insight and learning to be captured within organisational structures, procedures and routines (Kalu, 2011). The implication is that capacity-building strategies depend upon a distinctive work organisation that supports learning, an appropriate infrastructure, oriented to investment in learning, and a moral purpose, committed to making a difference through learning (Hargreaves, 2007).

Organisations, according to the structural functionalists, are required to provide the needed training that would facilitate the development of their

employees to enable them perform their functional roles effectively for increased productivity (Wenger, 1998). According to Satterfield and Hughes (2007), job-related training would result in the acquisition of new skills and improved job performance. In relation to this, Aguinis and Kraiger (2009) note that some types of training activities, including on-the-job training and training inside the organisation, and using in-house trainers are positively related to most dimensions of effectiveness and profitability. As organisations strive to compete in the global economy, human capital development on the basis of the skills, knowledge, and motivation of their workforce should be given prominence to play the functional role required for increased productivity (Ishiyama & Breuning, 2010).

The structural-functionalist theory, however, is not without some criticisms. The theory seems to overstate the extent to which education serves the 'common good' and underestimates interests of dominant groups in the society (Chilcott, 1998). Since there are individual differences in every society, acquisition of knowledge and skills through education and training would not automatically place people to the same level (Macionis, 2009). The functionalists, according to Harper (2011), see the school as a 'black box' and do not investigate the meaning of education for its participants. Thus, the theory places too much emphasis on the power of the school to shape attitudes and depict people as 'cultural dopes' without any influence of the society (Colomny, 1986; Harper, 2011). Functionalism is said to "harbour an ideological slant" that sustains existing structures. It describes what exists rather than what ought to be, thus maintaining the

status quo (Leydens et al., 2012).

Despite these criticisms, the structural functionalist theory is said to have contributed immensely to the development of organisations and the society as a whole (Turner, 2010). Individuals and institutions can only serve society as expected when they play their functional roles (Kalu, 2011). The structural functionalist perspective enables analysis to move beyond the level of the classroom or individual school. It links the school to the systematic needs of institutions and the wider society. It identifies schools as transmitters of knowledge, norms and values and as a selecting mechanism (Calhoun, 2010).

Leydens et al. (2012) indicate that the functional role of education enables everyone, irrespective of societal status, to aspire to higher levels through the acquisition of requisite knowledge, skills, and virtues. What is required of every organisation is to create an enabling environment that will facilitate the implementation of strategies aimed at ensuring that individuals working in the organisation have the requisite knowledge and skills to meet its mandate. The next section will, therefore, focus on the various definitions of human capital.

The Concept of Human Capital

Before discussing how institutions can develop human capital, it is important to define what is meant by the term ‘human capital’ as well as the various classifications and approaches to human capital analysis. The literature, to date, provides a wide range of human capital definitions.

Although human capital theory originally developed as a contribution to theories on economic growth, a number of organisation theorists have used human capital principles to explain how firms can create competitive advantage through developing individuals' human capital (Garavan, Morley, Gunnigle & Collins, 2001; Nordhaug, 1993).

Parnes (1984) defines human capital as the abilities and know-how of men and women that have been acquired at some cost and that can command a price in the labour market because they are useful in the productive process. Closely related to this definition, Becker (1993) refers to human capital as the stock of knowledge, skills and abilities embedded in an individual that result from natural endowment and subsequent investment in education, training and experience. Both definitions are explicit on the cost component of human capital acquisition. Seligman, Kress, Winfrey, Feranil, and Agarwal (1997), however, dwell on the exclusive nature of human capital by referring to it as any quality specific to and un-detachable from a person that allows him/her to perform economic tasks more efficiently, vigorously, and consistently, or allow him/her to lead a happier life.

Similar to the definitions depicting the exclusive nature of human capital are the definitions from the managerial point of view. According to Galunic and Anderson (2000), for example, human capital is the know-how, information, relationships, and general capabilities that individuals bring to bear on behalf of the firm through the employment relation. In the same way, Rastogi (2000) notes that human capital brings about highly skilled,

creative, motivated, collaborative and knowledgeable people who understand the dynamic business environmental context, and the competitive logic of their enterprises and the critical requirements thereof. Both definitions are similar to the earlier ones since they all acknowledge the fact that human capital is an innate ability that enables individuals to perform various tasks. The differences are due to the perspective or the background of the authors.

Mayo (2001), however, associates human capital to five attributes, namely: capability; individual motivation; work group effectiveness; leadership; and organisational climate. Similarly, Weatherly (2003) notes that human capital is simply the collective sum of the attributes, life experience, knowledge, inventiveness, energy and enthusiasm that people choose to invest in their work. Furthermore, Gratton and Ghoshal (2003) note that human capital is the composite of an individual's intellectual, social and emotional capitals mostly required by organisations. These definitions and attributes of human capital, according to Marimuthu et al. (2009), give an indication that human capital is the totality of an individual, hence, its importance for the success of every organisation. It also points to the fact that every aspect of human capital needs to be improved upon, over time, to be able to achieve the desired outcome (Moghalu, 2013).

Despite the proliferation of human capital definitions in the literature, a number of key elements seem to be common, encompassing knowledge, experience, trained skills, endowed abilities, attitudes and behaviour (Youndt, Subramaniam & Scott, 2004). The central tenet of

human capital, inspected from a competence perspective, is the purported contributions of human capital to positive outcomes of organisations. However, human resources, with high levels of skills, capabilities and knowledge, may not necessarily lead to good performance of firms. Companies need employees who are capable and willing to identify with company goals and commit themselves to achieving them (Hsu, Lin, Lawler & Wu, 2007). Supporting this assertion, Mathis and Jackson (2011) note that human capital is not solely the people in organisations. According to the authors, human capital is what those people bring and contribute to organisational success.

The above declaration by Mathis and Jackson (2011) suggests that institutions that are able to develop their human capital effectively through education and training are likely to have highly skilled employees with high intellectual capital required for the achievement of institutional objectives (Ismail & Kareem, 2011). As indicated by Manda (2013), human capital is the collective value of the intellectual capital (competencies, knowledge, and skills) of the employees in the organisation. This capital is the constantly renewable source of creativity and innovativeness in the organisation. Hence, its continuous development is vital for organisational success.

The various definitions of human capital have dwelt on the innate capabilities of individuals. According to Obi (2007), these potentials must be harnessed and developed by both the individual and organisations to achieve their objective. Organisations must have various human capital

development strategies in place and also implement them to ensure that their employees update their skills at regular intervals to meet the current trend of events. As Kern (2009) notes, trained manpower is a prominent and crucial asset in the efforts of propelling the development of an organisation and the nation in general. The next section will, therefore, focus on the concept of human capital development.

Human Capital Development

Human capital development is a holistic process that includes knowledge and skills attainment, besides possessing positive character, values, and ethics, as well as being competitive and progressive (Snell & Dean, 1992; MacDuffie, 1995; Youndt et al., 2004). It is an action plan for enhancing an employee's level of performance to excel in the current job or prepare for new responsibilities (Bohlander, 2007).

Human capital development is something that must exist or happen for national development. This is because human capital development teaches people how to utilise the power of diverse thinking styles (analytical and intuitive) so that they achieve holistic best practical solutions (Crutchfield, 2000). It takes human capital to organise and rationalise the contributions of other factors of production before a result-oriented productive goal can be achieved in any industrial setting (Crutchfield, 2000). Consequently, human capital development is about supporting, as well as, investing in human capital, coaching, training, internship and human capital management (Okoroafor, 2010).

In relation to Okoroafor's definition, Olaniyan and Okemakinde (2008) note that human capital development presumes investments, activities and processes that produce vocational and technical education, knowledge, skills, health or values that are embodied in people. Olaniyan and Okemakinde (2008) explain further that human capital development implies building an appropriate balance and critical mass of human resource base and providing an enabling environment for all individuals to be fully engaged and contribute to goals of an organisation or a nation. Consequently, any determination to increase human knowledge, enhance skills, and stimulate resourcefulness of individuals is an effort of human capital development (Enyekit, Amaehule, & Teerah, 2011).

According to Schein (1978), human capital development programmes were based on the recognition that organisations were becoming increasingly dependent on their human resources. Investment in human capital development represents a high commitment strategy that affects employee commitment and motivation (Porter, 2000). As indicated by Reich (1991), industries, that spend the most on human capital development and training, are typically the most competitive in every business environment. The author expatiates that the industries become very competitive because their employees are well equipped to meet their targets.

Correspondingly, Rothwell and Kazanas (1999) note that the notion of 'investment in human capital development' means equipping employees with new knowledge and skills required of them to meet the standard of job requirement. Human capital development, therefore, falls under the

umbrella of human resource development, which refers to organised learning experiences provided by the employer to enhance performance and personal growth (Nadler & Nadler, 1989).

Investment in human capital development offers the organisation a competitive advantage by providing continuous learning for employees to develop current skills and gain new ones, which they can then adapt and, in turn, perform creditably (London, 1989). Similarly, Ndinguri, Prieto and Machtmes (2012) note that developing human capital is investment that organisations have to take a critical look at. The authors, however, note that, in most cases, there is a notion that human assets are not owned by organisations and, therefore, are perceived as a higher risk investment than investing in capital assets. Organisations adopting this attitude, according to Olaniyan and Okemakinde (2008), fail to realise that it is the human capital or employees that utilise and integrate the capital assets that provide the organisation with competitive advantage. Therefore, investing in the individual is more important than a corresponding investment in capital asset (Olusegun, & Adenugba, 2013).

It is worth noting that, irrespective of the mode of human capital development programme adopted by an organisation, the outcomes remain important (Olaniyan & Okemakinde, 2008). According to Alan et al. (2008), human capital development, as a process of increasing human knowledge, enhancing skills for increase in productivity and stimulating resourcefulness of trainees, should be systematic, sustainable and strategic.

Elucidating the mode of human capital development, Enyekit,

Amaehule, and Teerah (2011) indicate that organisations should ensure that the process of human capital development should be systematic, sustainable, strategic, dynamic, responsive and result-oriented in order to achieve the desired goal of producing competent human capital that is proactive to address emerging challenges within the organisation and society in general. According to Farid, Chaudhary and Malik (2012), organisations stand to benefit from their investment in human capital development when the process, is systematic, sustainable and strategic.

According to Hsu, Lin, Lawler and Wu (2007), for any organisation to survive the competitive business world, it must invest in human capital. Thus, it must train and retrain its human resources in consonance with its immediate and remote operational environment. Training is considered fundamentally important to human capital development. Alan et al. (2008) described training as the vehicle that takes organisations to their destination within a stipulated timeframe. This substantiates the definition by Thaker (2008) that training is an organised procedure by which people learn knowledge and skills for a definite purpose. It results in increased productivity in any organisation because it helps the employees to attain self-fulfilment in personal goals as they work to achieve an organisational goal (Talerngsri, 2010).

Hsu et al. (2007) note that training is the overall process by which an individual's behaviour is modified to conform to a pre-defined and specific pattern. It is a process or procedure through which skills, talents, and knowledge of employees are enhanced. Once an applicant has been

selected and placed properly by his organisation, the next step is to transform him to meet the future requirements of the organisation. Such transformation is done by means of training and development (Thaker, 2008). As Marimuthu et al. (2009) note, for organisational goals and objectives to be attained, effective, proficient and adept human resource is vital and imperative in every outfit. This is because human beings constitute a vital part of any organisation, and determine the level of productivity in the organisation.

Supporting the importance of training and development to every organisation, Onuka and Ajayi (2012) note that, in a manufacturing outfit, capital, equipment, manpower, among others, contribute to the company's success. However, the most significant of these is the human factor. This is because it is humans who pool other resources together for objective realisation. Developing human capital through training, should, therefore, be given top priority management attention (Onuka & Ajayi, 2012). Training and development, according to Werner and DeSimone (2012), ensure that organisational members have the skills or competencies to meet current and future job demands. Therefore, it is imperative for the organisation to continuously build the capacity of its human capital that the huge responsibilities of achieving the organisational goals rest.

According to Tim and Brinkerhoff (2008), training and development of the human capital in every organisation is very important. This is because the human capital is the most potent asset of any organisation. As explicated by Onuka and Ajayi (2012), without human capital, machinery/equipment,

materials and even capital of the company will amount to nothing as nothing gets done without the input of the human capital of the organisation. Najim, Al-Naimi, and Alnaji (2012) also explain that in the education sector, such as the institutions of higher learning, teachers and the senior professional staff are the foundation of quality. They hold trust for the implemented curriculum of formal education and, therefore, are at the centre of the education process. As Olaniyan and Okemakinde (2008) note, training and development and, for that matter, human capital development must be a major component for the success of every organisation.

In relation to human capital development in academic institutions, such as universities, Peretomode and Chukwuma (2012) explain that the need for lecturers and professional administrators to improve their knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours, while on the job, is very critical for various reasons. According to the authors, academic programmes in the universities rarely adequately prepare candidates as “finished” products for their future positions and their accompanying responsibilities. There is also the issue of knowledge explosion, which requires the regular update on one’s knowledge to meet the trend of events. Tertiary institutions, according to Zamani, Nahandi, Lalepour, and Rezagholibeyghi (2012), are also in constant flux and there is the need for lecturers and senior administrators to be trained and retrained on regular basis, as competition for talents is becoming worldwide owing to globalization.

Marimuthu et al. (2009), in support of the above statement, note that an organisation may have employees with the ability and determination,

with appropriate equipment and managerial support, yet productivity could still fall below expected standards. This missing link, according to Ebiringa and Okorafor (2010), is often caused by the lack of acquisition and, by extension, utilisation of adequate skills and knowledge, as well as positive work attitude by employees, which are normally acquired through training and development. As Peretomode and Chukwuma (2012) note, for an organisation to survive and achieve a reasonable return on investment (ROI), the need to train and develop available staff to handle the operations of the organisation is essential.

Implementation of Human Capital Development Strategies

This section discusses the implementation of human capital development strategies. The section begins with a conceptual review on strategy implementation, followed by a discussion on the models of strategy implementation. It further discusses obstacles in strategy implementation and possible organisational factors that can influence the implementation of human capital development strategies.

Conceptual review of strategy implementation

Regardless of the type and level of strategy or policy, managers of institutions are always “faced with the straightforward task of simply getting things done” (Hrebiniak, 2005a, p. 57). Strategy implementation is, therefore, concerned with putting strategy into practice. This can also be described as the execution of tactics so that the company moves in the

desired strategic direction (Giles, 1991). Similarly, strategy implementation can also be defined as the “relatively straightforward operationalisation of a clearly articulated strategic plan” (Noble, 1999, p. 119) or “the sum total of the activities and choices required for the execution of a strategic plan” (Wheelen & Hunger, 2006, p. 214). Based on the above definitions, strategy implementation may be referred to as a systematic process composed of a logical set of connected activities that enable a company to make a strategy work.

Noble (1999) describes the roots of the strategy implementation research as “extensive”. The traditional approach to strategy implementation treated strategy implementation as an activity following formulation. As such, the concept was treated primarily as a question of organisation design, where systems and structures have to be aligned with strategic goals (Bourgeois & Brodwin 1984; Lorange, 1982).

Recent studies on strategy implementation seem to be more structured and focus on two different but closely connected views, namely; the structural view and the interpersonal process view (Skivington & Daft, 1991). While the former proposes that managers make adjustments to formal, structural elements of the organisation in order to enact strategic decisions, the latter deals with a range of interpersonal and cognitive factors that managers must also address to interpret and respond to a strategic initiative (Noble, 1999). In addition, some authors propose even more specific divisions of the key areas of strategy implementation, such as

organisation, people, culture and control systems and instruments (Raps, 2004).

In an attempt to systematically structure the implementation process, several authors propose different models that companies should follow to be able to better implement their strategies. One of the first such models was offered by Hrebiniak and Joyce (1984), who argue that a well-articulated strategy is the first critical ingredient of the implementation process. This is then followed by the design of a primary organisational structure, establishing operating-level objectives, the design of operating structures and, finally, the creation of proper incentives and control mechanisms that support the implementation. In implementing strategies based on the described process, institutions, therefore, constantly switch between planning and organisational design, starting at the top organisational levels and, then, moving down to lower hierarchical levels.

Similarly, Linder and Peters (1987) traced policy implementation from the work of three generations of implementation researchers. According to Najam (1995) as cited in Liedl (2011), however, the three generations of implementation scholars never succeeded in setting up one single model to combine all the different approaches, but separated the implementation process in two different categories regarding its primary approach: the top-down approach and the bottom-up approach. According to Cerna (2013), the two approaches vary in a number of areas, such as the role of actors and their relationships as well as the type of policies each approach can be applied.

The top-down model

Top-down researchers, according to Matland (1995), see policy designers as the central actors who concentrate their attention on factors that can be manipulated at the central level to achieve desired objectives. Similarly, Hill (2005) notes that the top-down model assumes policy implementation begins with central government decisions with clear policy objectives. Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983) also indicate that the top-down model is influenced by the systems theory, which supports the idea that public policy is the input and policy implementation is the output. The authors identify a number of legal and political variables and then synthesize them into six conditions needed for effective implementation. The conditions include clear objectives, causal theory, legal structure of the implementation process, committed officials, committed interest groups and no undermining of changing socio-economic conditions (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983).

According to Chompucot (2011), in the top-down model, administrative machinery that serves the government will decide which administration will carry out the policy. The designated administration will carry out the policy to fulfil the policy objectives, which are assumed to be clear at all levels of the chain of command. It has been argued that the UK government has adopted a top-down approach to 'regain control over policy outcomes' (Richards & Smith, 2006, p. 343). Furthermore, in England, enterprise policy is formulated at the 'top' before filtering down to the 'bottom' for delivery (Barrett, 2004). Government is assumed to have clear

enterprise policy objectives.

Arshed, Mason and Carter (2014), however, indicate that, in reality, policy objectives in the top-down model are often unclear or even self-contradictory. The authors indicate further that the top-down model neglects focus on lower officials in the implementation process. The UK, for example, has witnessed a development of enterprise policies which have failed to adhere to a clear statement of policy objectives and targets (Van Cauwenberge, Buawhede & Schoonjans, 2013). This is partly due to the response to problems and challenges faced by institutions being largely based on the perceptions of policy-makers regarding what should be in the best interest of the business community rather than involving them in the policy process (Woods & Miles, 2014). Such relationships or the lack of relationships play a critical role in determining not only the impact of the policy but also the effectiveness of it (Friedman, 2003).

Overall, the top-down model is the ideal one, seeking perfect implementation (Bardach, 1979; Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973; Van Meter & Van Horn, 1975). The classic model, based on the top-down approach, is a rational model. This is considered the ideal model since it assumes that the effectiveness of the policy implementation depends largely on good planning and control, clear policy objectives and mission, a fair reward and punishment system, good work standards, and a good evaluation system (Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973). However, the rational model is criticised for being too idealistic. It does not take into account the roles of policy implementers. The top-down concept assumes that clear objectives from top

officials will lead to successful implementation (Winter, 2006).

The top-down philosophy seeks to develop generalisable policy advice and come up with consistent recognisable patterns in behaviour across different policy areas. It is, however, criticised for only taking statutory language as a starting point and, hence, does not consider the significance of previous actions. The weaknesses identified with the top-down model resulted in the formulation of the bottom-up model.

The bottom-up model

The bottom-up model has been established to argue against the top-down philosophy. Many research studies suggest that policy outcome is not necessarily related to policy objectives. Therefore, outcomes and objectives may not have causal relations (Baharom, 2008). Birkland (2005) notes that the goals are ambiguous rather than explicit and may conflict not only with other goals in the same policy area but also with the norms and motivations of the 'top' level bureaucrats. According to Urwin and Jordan (2008), policy implementation should begin at the bottom, at the actual implementer level, since they are in contact with the stakeholders and know a lot more about their problems than the top level managers. Those public and private players involved in the implementation process will examine the goals, strategies, and programs they have created to ensure its success (Khan & Khandaker, 2016; Winter, 2006).

The bottom-up philosophy suggests that local implementers are those that bring the policy to successful implementation, and

implementation depends on the bargaining among local implementers (Lipsky, 2010). The implementation works its way upward to find the goals, strategies, and contracts of those involved in executing the programmes (Howlett & Ramesh, 1998). Writing on the role of street-level bureaucrats, Weatherley and Lipsky (1977) for example, indicate that too much control of implementers is not suitable for effective implementation. The authors proposed the bottom-up theory or the bureaucratic model, instead. The model takes into account the roles of dedicated and committed people directly involved at local levels. These people have real understanding of the situation and policy from the top. Lipsky (2010), therefore, notes that the bottom-up theory should offer a good guide to policy implementation (Lipsky, 2010).

Arshed et al (2016), however, draw attention to the fact that these approaches to the implementation gap can be explained by the different levels of power held by different groups of actors involved. According to the authors, it is important to know the kind of relationships that exists between the different actors both in the top-down and bottom-up approaches. Without understanding and addressing these gaps, the ability to learn from the policy process of design and delivery becomes weakened, and future policy initiatives and implementation practices are undermined. There is mounting evidence from academic studies and government reports which argue that the implementation gap within policy process exists which can lead to the ineffectiveness of the policy or even to its failure (Gibb, 2000; Smallbone & Welter, 2009).

According to Atherton and Price (2008), irrespective of the model of policy implementation adopted, it is important to note that, whilst implementation is often referred to as having a 'gap', any attempt to neglect the actual implementers of such policy initiatives could lead to policy ineffectiveness and failure. This may also arise from the 'attempts to transfer standardised practices that are not necessarily universally applicable' (Atherton & Price, 2008, p. 368). The transferability of policy initiatives is often difficult, given the context of local economies and political conditions, because generic enterprise policies being transferred across Europe, for example, have proved to be ineffective as local contexts and practices have not been considered (Atherton & Price, 2008; Neuwalaers & Reid, 2002).

The complex nature of policy implementation sometimes makes it difficult for institutions to realize the set targets in their policies. Mankoe (2006) therefore, draws a linkage between policy implementation and policy performance. This is to enable institutions identify the extent to which the policy objectives have been achieved. Policy implementation highlights on the forces that determine policy impact by focusing on those activities that affect the rendering of services. Policy performance, on the other hand, is the degree to which anticipated services are actually delivered to intended beneficiaries (Ingraham, 1987).

Even though a great deal of knowledge about what works in human and social services with regard to policy implementation has been amassed in recent years, outcomes for clients, however, have not improved in line with these advances in knowledge (Balatbat, 2010). These have created

implementation gaps in various policies. Policy implementation is very essential because the exercise is required to bridge the gap between what is known and what is done (Burke, Morris & McGarrigle, 2012).

The importance of policy implementation, therefore, cannot be overemphasized. According to the Economist Unit Survey (2009), in a study conducted on the importance of policy implementation in organisations, 95 percent of the respondents indicated that the implementation of policy was of a very important priority. Also, in a study to determine the extent of implementation of human resource development strategies in organisations, Balatbat (2010) found that implementation of training and development practices was rated with an over-all mean of 3.73, giving an indication that the institutions placed much value on their human capital development strategies.

Obstacles to strategy implementation

Hrebiniak (2005b) identifies four broad contextual factors that deserve special attention when discussing obstacles to strategy implementation: the change management context; the organisational culture context; the organisational power structure context; and the leadership context. These four factors affect and are affected by each other. When all four are synchronised, the prognosis for effective strategy implementation should be very positive.

Managing change is difficult but absolutely critical for successful strategy execution (Hrebiniak, 2008). Wharton-Gartner's study (Hrebiniak,

2005b) has found that problems with change management constitute the single biggest threat to strategy implementation. Leaders must, therefore, identify areas of necessary change and overcome any potential resistance to change. They are instrumental in changing and managing key people, incentives and organisational structures. Organisational culture refers to the shared values, attitudes and norms of behaviour that create the propensity for individuals in an organisation to act in certain ways.

One of the most common culture-related problems in companies is a lack of trust (Hrebiniak, 2005b), which usually results in poor or inadequate information and knowledge sharing between individuals and/or business units responsible for strategy implementation. This problem was, for example, ranked as one of the largest obstacles to strategy execution by American managers (Hrebiniak, 2005b). Another common cultural problem is the domination of the short-term orientation in a company. Two independent studies conducted by Alexander (1985) and Al-Ghamdi (1998) report that competing short-term activities distract attention from strategy implementation in 64 percent and 83 percent of companies, respectively.

The organisational power structure is important because it influences decisions regarding the allocation of all kinds of resources necessary for strategy execution. Hrebiniak (2005, 2006) and Gurkov (2009) argue that even well prepared and sound plans die, if the implementers fail to confront difficult organisational and political obstacles that stand in the way of effective implementation. Therefore, strategy executors must persuade all relevant employees to carry out all activities necessary to implement the

strategy (Hrebiniak, 2005). Obviously, the top manager's guidance, support and active involvement in strategy implementation is critical (Brenes et al., 2008). If those in power do not care about or even resist execution of the strategy, the success of the implementation process is clearly jeopardised (Hrebiniak, 2005b).

Finally, proper leadership skills are also needed to ensure employees will execute the selected strategies. One of the biggest problems is usually the lack of co-ordination and clear guidelines (Hrebiniak, 2005b). Al-Ghamdi (1998), for example, reports that 75 percent of companies lack the effective co-ordination of implementation activities. According to Kaplan and Norton (2006), this problem can be partly solved by using strategic maps which connect a strategy paper with an operative execution plan and can therefore substitute organising efforts for strategy implementation.

Another important function of leadership is to "sell" the strategy to everyone who matters (Hambrick & Cannella 1989). A strategy must, therefore, be successfully communicated to the employees (Hrebiniak, 2005b). Kaplan and Norton (2005) argue that on average 95 percent of a company's employees are unaware of or do not understand the company's strategy. If the employees are unaware of the strategy, they surely cannot help the company implement it effectively. Studies also confirm that the success of the strategy execution depends on the adoption of a compensation system that motivates managers and employees to achieve company goals (Terborg & Ungson, 1985).

Policies may be fully implemented but fail to have positive effects

because they were poorly conceived or because there were numerous circumstances beyond the scope of the specific remedy (Friedman, 2003). The failure of many policies in developing countries is largely attributed to the issues of poor implementation. In India, for example, the policy on mass literacy programme was seriously affected due to poor implementation (Baharom, 2008).

A study by Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) to examine the implementation strategies of the Economic Development Administration (EDA) in Oakland, California, in the United States of America indicates that, despite having excellent intentions, the programme was unsuccessfully implemented. The primary factors for failure included: faulty theory for the programme; unclear goals and objectives; a lack of coordinated planning; a lack of standardisation; intra-agency antipathies; and the complexity of joint actions. The complexity of joint action was, in turn, evident with regard to many aspects, such as the large number of participants and perspectives; the multiplicity of decisions and the decreasing probability of programme success; the result of having two goals and two decision paths; the emergence of unexpected decisions; and the anatomy of delay (Khan & Khandaker, 2016).

In Pakistan, many educational programmes failed to be properly implemented to achieve the desired objectives. This is because most of the programmes were found not to correspond with the stated goals of policy and, thus, compromised the impact of such policies (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983). It is worth noting, at this point, that policy failure, however, cannot

be limited to the above-stated factors. In actual fact, policy success or failure comes from many sources. It may be due, as much, to inadequate problem definition or policy design and administrative malfunction (Palumbo & Calista, 1990). Administrative failure may also stem from the inattention paid by legislators to programme constraints during a consequence of flaws in the policy formulation process and in the environment in which implementation takes place (Ali, 2006).

As implementation takes place in an organisation, public or private, some organisational factors, if not all, are believed to have the capability to influence implementation initiatives (Alashloo, Castka & Sharp, 2005). This confirms the assertions by some scholars that effective implementation of any policy can be severely undermined through: a lack of sufficient resources (Brinkerhoff & Crosby, 2002; Lipsky, 2010; Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1989; Meter & Horn, 1975); a lack of incentive and competent staff; the presence of a negative disposition among implementers; a lack of inter-organisational communication (Bridgman & Davis, 1977; Meter & Horn, 1975); and a lack of professional and technical resources.

Other organisational factors that impact negatively on policy implementation include: a lack of official commitment to statutory objectives (Goggin, Bowman, Lester, & Otoole, 1990; Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983); a lack of delegation of authority and flexibility, or sufficient autonomy; inter-organisational complexity and conflict; the impact of economic, political and social conditions (Fox, Bayat & Ferriera, 2006; Stocker, 1991; Wali, 2010); a lack of specific technical know-how or

administrative capabilities; prevalence of self-serving goals of street-level bureaucrats and an absence of organisational willingness; increased demand for services; vague, ambiguous or conflicting goal expectations; difficulties in achieving goals; and involuntary clients (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983; Vedung, 1998).

Mankoe (2006), however, refers to the organisational factors in policy implementation as variables and, therefore, suggests that, policy implementation directs attention to a set of variables that determine policy performance within a particular jurisdiction. These variables are: policy resources; policy standards; characteristics of the implementing agencies; and the political and socio-economic conditions (Lipsky, 2010). This study will, however, focus on four organisational factors, namely: top management support; resource allocation; dispositions of implementers; and interdepartmental communication. These factors are believed to be vital in the successful implementation of human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana (Baharom, 2008).

Top management support

Top management support is a key factor in many organisational or governmental initiatives. The term “top management”, according to Helfat, Harris and Wolfson (2006), can be defined as the set of individuals at the top of the organisation responsible for the strategic and organisational decisions that affect the direction, operations, and performance of the company as a whole. Mazmanian and Sabaitier (1981) call top management

support as sovereign support and deem it a significant facet of the implementation model. It is acknowledged that the strategic actions of organisations are guided by the beliefs or the interpretations of top management (Barker III & Barr, 2002) and that top managers play a crucial role in strategic decisions (Camelo, Alles & Hernandez, 2011).

In the scientific literature, a huge amount of top management roles and responsibilities is highlighted. Gebhardt, Carpenter and Sherry (2006), for example, state that top management support is essential to begin and to direct the process of strategy implementation for enhanced productivity, leading to organisational change. Organisational change creates uncertainty, and top management, as key agents of organizational change, must offer a clear rationale for transformation and success of the organisation (Cole, Harris & Bernerth, 2006). Thus, the key processes of strategy implementation, that helps to create lasting organisational change, flow downward from the actions of top managers (Moore, Konrad & Hunt., 2010).

In addition, the introduction of new programmes or products in institutions and the building of the capacity of staff for the success of those programmes demand top management commitment. Such commitment consists of top management support and top management attitude towards risk (Cole et al., 2006). Thus, top managers provide teams with encouragement and the needed assistance as well as help them overcome challenges. Nevertheless, top management attitude toward risk may moderate the direct and positive effect of communication on cooperation

(Rodriguez, Perez & Gutierrez, 2008). Similarly, in a competitive business context, innovation has become a key factor for the successful performance of most organisations, and top management support is important in promoting a strategy of innovation by the process of influence (Camelo, Allen & Hernandez, 2011).

According to Mazmanian and Sabaitier (1981), top management, or sovereigns, provide support of policy objectives through adequate directives, the provision of financial resources, and formulation of regulations for implementation. Top management can create the support atmosphere in the organisation and, through communication within the organisation and through own actions, shape and define the collective interpretations held by members of the organisation in general (Barker III & Barr, 2002). It is, however, important to state that top management can be very supportive when resources required for the implementation process is available. The next section will, therefore, focus on resource allocation.

Resource allocation

Resource allocation, is significant in policy implementation (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1981). Hill and Jones (2004) have classified organisation's resources into two broad categories, namely: tangible resources; and intangible resources. Tangible resources are those that are regularly shown in the balance sheet of the organisation (Collins & Montgomery, 2004). These include physical resources, such as land, buildings, plant, equipment, and inventory (Chandler, 1995; Hofer &

Schendel, 1978; Penrose, 1959). It also includes natural resources, raw materials, semi-finished goods, waste products, by-products, stored finished goods and services, and money (Hill & Jones, 2004).

Intangible resources, on the other hand, are those that usually form critical functions for competitive advantage or disadvantage (Collins & Montgomery, 2004). They are not physical and, instead, relate to things that are created by a firm's employees (Hill & Jones, 2004), such as brand names, reputation, and human knowledge (Collins & Montgomery, 2004; Hill & Jones, 2004); experiences, patents, copyright, and trademarks (Hill & Jones, 2004); and technological knowledge (Collins & Montgomery, 2004).

In addition to the above classification of resources, Schendel and Hofer (1978) presented a more comprehensive classification of organisation's resources. According to Schendel and Hofer (1978), there are five kinds of resources that enable any organisation to attain their goals. These resources are: human resources; financial resources; organisational resources; physical resources; and technological capabilities.

Financial resources refer to the money available to a business for spending in the form of cash, liquid securities and credit lines. Physical resources of an organisation include manufacturing equipment and tools, inventories, production, assembly, storage, and distribution facilities. Human resources are the people who make up the workforce of an organisation (Hofer & Schendel, 1978). Organisational resources include the history, relationships, trust, and organisational culture that are qualities

of groups of individuals associated with a firm, along with a firm's formal reporting structure, clear management control systems, and recompense policies (Barney, 1995). Technological capabilities is the description of the way that each of a business's functional area activities is carried out to generate high-quality products, low-cost plants, and high brand loyalty (Barney, 1995; Hofer & Schendel, 1978).

It is worth noting that, all the above classifications of resources reveal that Hofer and Schendel's (1978) five categories of resources can be considered as the most suitable classification of resources. This is because some classifications are too broad and place all resources in just two or three general classifications, such as tangible and intangible resources (Hill & Jones, 2004). Similarly, resources can be seen only as physical resources and human resources (Penrose, 1959). Including further categories in the classification of resources will allow the types of resources to be identified more accurately.

Also, some categories are hidden or mentioned only indirectly by the authors. For instance, although Hill and Jones (2004) classified resources into tangible and intangible resources, their definition of resources highlighted the significance of the five categories of Hofer and Schendel (1978). To illustrate, Hill and Jones (2004) as cited in Alidrisi (2010) defined resources as the "capital or financial, physical, social or human, technological, and organisational factor endowments that allow a company to create value for its customers" (p. 23).

Moreover, Hill and Jones (2004) classified money (financial

resources) under tangible resources. Additionally, although Barney reported that resources could be classified into physical, human, organisational (Barney, 1991), and financial resources (Barney, 1995), technological resources are also mentioned indirectly in his description of physical resources. Specifically, he stated that, physical resources include the machines, manufacturing facilities, and buildings that firms use in their operations (Barney, 1995). It appears that Barney has combined physical and technological resources under one category. Thus, according to the meaning of technology, as defined by Hofer and Schendel, it is clear that the “machines” and the “manufacturing facilities” in Barney’s description of physical resources can represent technological resources.

Indeed, Amit and Schoemaker (1993) have also highlighted the significance of the technological factor, noting that technological resources are one of the main resources for the company to produce products or services. In support of Hofer and Schendel’s (1978) classification of resources, Wolf and Reed (2000) contend that a general look at the resource-based literature shows a slight agreement about the way resources should be classified. They add that the broad classification of resources as tangible and intangible resources can be considered as evidence that the categorisation of resources should be more specific. Thus, they have selected the classification of Schendel and Hofer (physical, financial, organisational, human, and technological resources) in their work. The justification for the selection of these five categories can be observed through the fact that there are no individual resources that do not fit this

schema (Wolf & Reed, 2000).

Having looked at the categorisation of resources, proponents of policy implementation indicate that implementation initiatives should come with an allocation of necessary resources or means to acquire resources needed for implementation of the initial stage (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983; Palumbo & Calista, 1990). Money, for example, is very critical in any implementation activity. It is also required in the event when additional staffing is needed for implementation initiatives. Therefore, as promoted by many implementation models, both recruitment of implementing officials and initial allocation of financial resources are portrayed as variables to emphasize their importance (Bahoram, 2008).

It is worth noting also that, both financial and technical resources, along with quality human resources, are key factors that contribute to the proper implementation of any policy, particularly, if a policy requires the creation of new structures and the hiring of new personnel (Mankoe, 2006). Programmes designed under policies require resources for their administration and enforcement. Ali (2006) notes that low funding as well as improper utilisation of financial resources allocated to programmes, have been a major obstacle in realizing the implementation of policy targets in Pakistan. For example, in Pakistan the achievements of the sixth and seventh development policies in terms of numbers of targeted beneficiaries over actual beneficiaries were 5.5 percent and 9.4 percent respectively (Ali, 2006).

The dispositions of administrators

The third organisational factor in this study, namely: the dispositions of administrators responsible for implementing policy in the publicly-funded institutions, has always been linked to the success or failure of policy implementation (Lipsky, 1980). By virtue of their function, implementers have constantly taken the brunt of ineffective policy implementation either by their superiors, the policy formulators or their clients (Webster, 2005). Dispositions include the implementers' ability to understand the policy document, their skills and knowledge in performing implementing activities, their orientation towards the policy, their communications and inter-functional cooperation, their commitments towards their job and the task at hand, and clarity of their role.

The policy implementer must not only know what must be done and have the ability to do it, but must also have a desire and tendency towards a positive attitude when carrying out a given policy. Disposition has to do with the willingness of the implementer to carry out a given public policy. Capability alone is not enough without the willingness and commitment to implement a policy (Pressman & Wildavsky, 1973). Disposition includes the personality and characteristics of the implementer, such as commitment, honesty, and a democratic attitude. One factor that influences the effectiveness of a policy is, indeed, the attitude of the implementer (Nugroho, 2009).

If implementers agree with the content of a policy, they will, therefore, happily implement it. On the other hand, if their perspective is

different from that of the policy maker, then there will be problems experienced in the implementation process (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983). A given policy or program must be supported by a competent and capable policy implementer for a policy to succeed. The implementer is an important factor in successful policy implementation. This is in line with the view of Meter and Horn (1974) that an attitude of acceptance or rejection on the part of the implementing agent has a substantial influence on success or failure in the implementation of public policy.

The disposition of an implementer, which is in line with policy standards and goals, is also an important factor. Implementers can fail to implement a policy if they reject the goal of a policy. Conversely, acceptance and proliferation of the standard and goal of the policy on the part of the party responsible to implement a policy means there is a high potential for fruitful implementation (Meter & Horn, 1974). Furthermore, the intensity of the implementer's disposition can affect the achievement capability of a policy. A lack or limitation in the intensity of this disposition can cause failure in policy implementation (Zetter, 2005).

Departmental communication

Departmental communication is another important organisational factor that influences implementation of policies in various institutions. Departmental communication is basically about developing relationship between individuals and groups, working at different levels in different areas of specialisation within an organisation (Frank & Brownell, 1989).

The concept of departmental communication is defined by different authors. For instance, Bovee and Thill (2000) describe departmental communication as a means of exchanging knowledge and opinions in the organisation. According to Argenti (2003), departmental communication is about creating a positive atmosphere for all employees of an organisation. Kalla (2005) also states that it is all formal and informal communication, taking place internally at all levels of an organisation. In addition to the above definitions, Orsini (2000) describes departmental communication as the full range of ways that people communicate with each other within the organisation.

The above descriptions of communication make it a broader dimensional notion instead of only information circulation in isolation. In organisations, the relevant business information must be disseminated from top to bottom, that is, from managers to employees and then from employees to other individuals. As organisations develop and become denser, communication turns out to be harder, and the need for eminence communication increases (Kalla, 2005). Goldhaber (1990) is of the view that the communication process in an organisation involves creating and sharing information among the dependent relations network.

The fundamental role of departmental communications is to build and nourish employee relations. It is also to establish trust, and provide timely and reliable information in times of change and stress (Dolphin, 2005). According to Spitzer and Swider (2003), effective internal communication among different levels of organisation must accomplish

three core objectives in an organisation as follows: the information communicated to the employee audience, must be fully comprehended and accepted in terms of its content, intent, significance and quality of the message; the aim of the communication, in terms of encouraging, guiding, updating, or gaining participation among the employees audience, must be attained by the majority of the employees; and the outcomes of an effective internal communication must result in enhancing one or more of the key success factors, such as quality of the product, sales, productivity, employees performance and contentment, and, finally, customer satisfaction.

Argenti (1998) is of the view that departmental communication plays very significant roles in an organisation. It helps to enhance employees' understanding of the organisation and its products, ethics, culture, and external environment and, therefore, develop a mutual sense that they are the vital asset to the organisation. This encourages employees to become more productive, quality-oriented, and entrepreneurial.

Mankoe (2006), nevertheless, contends that, though departmental communication is very important, care must be taken to ensure that the exact message is communicated. This, according to the author, is because, as the message passes through the communication network, distortions are likely to occur, producing contradictory directives, ambiguities, inconsistencies in instructions, and incompatible requirements. Even when directives and requirements are clear, problems may arise as implementers fail to comprehend fully what is expected of them.

Interdepartmental communication plays a vital role in an organisation's success, and organisations need it to fill the gaps between what the customers expect and what they deliver (Chaffee & Tierney, 1985). Lack of communication among departments occurs, as everyone involved believes that they are too busy to informally inform, update and question others. They have their own goals and objectives to accomplish in a timely manner (Diamond, 2000) and they consider communication as a hindrance to their performance. In large business organisations, many individual departments are confronted with the daily challenge of communicating successfully with internal shareholders (Kahn, 1996).

Previous studies on policy implementation portray departmental communication as an essential aspect of organisational development and implementation success (Long & Franklin, 2004; O'Toole, 1997; Pynes, 2004). Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983) talk about hierarchical integration within and among implementing institutions and attitudes of constituency groups in their model. In network theory, O'Toole (1993) discusses the need to work in inter-organisational settings and the utilisation of both formal and informal linkages to implement policy. Hence, in a networked situation, organisational communication and information sharing are key components for decisions and directives to be transmitted for the benefit of all actors involved in the implementation initiatives.

Institutions, such as the publicly-funded universities, should, therefore, not overlook the organisational factors when implementing policies and, especially, those related to the development of their human

capital. This is very necessary because, as would be discussed in the next section, the success of any organisation rests on the knowledge, skills and abilities of its human capital.

Summary

This chapter focused on the theoretical framework and the conceptual review of related literature on the implementation of human capital development strategies. It began with the institutional context and theoretical background of the study, followed by discussions on the concept of human capital, approaches to human capital, human capital development and implementation of human capital development strategies.

It is evident from the literature that for the institutions to survive and achieve reasonable rate on investment, there is the need to train and develop their employees to handle operations. The review also indicates that organisations stand to derive great benefits from their human capital investments when strategies or policies, aimed at developing their existing human capital, are properly implemented. The review further reveals that policy implementation is inherently complex in nature and that makes it difficult to fit a specific model to it. Various models have been developed by researchers to help understand the policy implementation process. The models, however, reveal relationships among various organisational factors that may cause the failure or success of policy implementation.

CHAPTER THREE

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the empirical evidence with regard to the usefulness of human capital development in organisations. The empirical evidence is viewed from the perspectives of the human capital theory, resource-based view theory, knowledge-based view theory and the structural functionalist theory, as well as how they relate to the current study. The chapter further concentrates on lessons derived from the review of existing literature on implementation of the human capital development strategies and finally presents a conceptual framework for the implementation of human capital development strategies.

Empirical Evidence on Implementation of Human Capital Development Strategies

According to Onuka and Ajayi (2012), the advent and development of human capital as an academic field lead some researchers to expansively attempt to clarify how human capital could contribute to the development of organisations and the economy in general. In a study on human capital and labour productivity, Niringiye et al. (2010), used the human capital theory to develop a link between human capital development and productivity. The survey research design was used and data was collected from firms that were randomly selected from a sampling frame obtained

from a World Bank interview, and stratified by size, location and industry. The generalised least squares was used to estimate the human capital model in order to investigate the relevant importance of human capital variables in explaining labour productivity in East African manufacturing firms. The results indicate that human capital development of the workers, through education and training on the job, was positively associated with labour productivity.

Also, in a documentary study of various critical perspectives on the relationship between human capital development and firm's performance, Crook, Ketchen, Todd, and Combs (2008) adopted the resource-based theory, the knowledge-based theory, and the human capital theory for the study. A meta-analysis, conducted found that human capital development through education and training relates strongly to performance, especially when the human capital in question is not readily tradable in the labour market.

Other studies have also demonstrated that human capital development, through education and training increases the productivity of the workforce and that impacts on the organisation's development. This is evident in the causal model developed by Selvarajan, Ramamoorthy, Flood, MacCurtain, and Lui (2007), as cited in Marimuthu et al. (2009), in their study on the role of human capital philosophy in promoting firm innovativeness and performance. Using a set of cross-sectional data to test the causal model, and based on the human capital theory and the structural functionalist theory, they argued that human capital enhancement through

education, training, knowledge and skills development pave the way for greater innovativeness and this, in turn, offers positive implications for firm performance.

Also, Peretomode and Chukwuma (2012) dwelt on the human capital theory, knowledge-based theory and the structural functionalist theory in a survey to examine the relationship between human capital development and lecturers' productivity in tertiary institutions. With a sample size of 205 lecturers obtained through the stratified sampling method, a self-administered questionnaire was used to collect data from the respondents. Using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and multiple regression statistics to analyse the data, the authors concluded that human capital development through education and training enhances lecturers' productivity, irrespective of gender, faculty and type of institution.

Similarly, a causal study to determine the impact of human capital development on university's performance, Sharabati and Nour (2013) used the human capital theory and the knowledge-based theory to explain the relationship between human capital development and university's business performance. With data gathered by means of questionnaire and analyses involving descriptive statistics, t-test, ANOVA test, correlations, and multiple regression, the results indicate a positive significant relationship between human capital development through education and training and university's business performance.

Tessema (2014) also based on the human capital theory to examine the impact of human capital development on company's performance. The

sample size was determined through the use of the Krejcie and Morgan sample size determination formula and a questionnaire was used to collect the data. The analyses involved the use of descriptive statistics, correlations and regression analyses. The findings indicate that investment in human capital through education and training leads to improved company's performance.

Similarly, Kim and Ployhart (2013) in a survey with data obtained from a longitudinal study used human capital theory and the resource-based theory to discuss the effect of staffing and training on firm productivity and profit growth. The analyses involved descriptive statistics and random longitudinal growth models. The findings indicate that firms that effectively train their staff outperform their competitors and also have increased productivity.

Souleh (2014) used the human capital theory and the knowledge-based theory to examine the impact of human capital development on the innovativeness of research centre. The author adopted the case study design and the non-probability sampling method to obtain the sample. Data was collected through interviews and e-mail postal questionnaires. The data was analysed using the Statistical Product and Service Solutions involving means, correlations, and multiple regression analyses. The study found that human capital development through education and training is important in enhancing innovativeness of research centres.

Respectively, Ukenna, Ijeoma, Anionwu, and Olise (2010) conducted a case study on the effect of investment in human capital

development on organisational performance. Based on the human capital theory and the resource-based theory and with a five-point likert type questionnaire, data were collected from 25 small scale business owners who were purposively selected for the study. The data analyses involved the use of ANOVA, t-test, multiple regression analyses, simple regression analyses and Pearson's correlation coefficient. The study found that training and skill development are the stronger predictors of human capital effectiveness and organisational performance.

The above studies reveal that human capital development through education and training leads to increased innovativeness of employees and is translated into improved productivity (Niringiye, et al., 2010; Kim & Ployhart, 2013; Soule, 2014). However, as Epstein and Freund (1984) note, there are other factors that could obstruct or contribute to higher worker productivity. This study will examine the organisational factors that impact on the human capital development strategies. Also, most of the studies reviewed were pursued from purely quantitative point of view without considering the use of qualitative data to substantiate the findings. This study will, therefore, adopt the mixed method involving the use of both quantitative and qualitative data to authenticate the findings.

Considering the implementation of the human capital development strategies, Katou and Budhwar (2010) based on the resource-based theory, contingency theory and the Ability Motivation and Opportunities theory to examine the relationship between the implementation of human resource management policies and organisational performance. Data was collected

with a self-administered questionnaire, from 178 organisations. The structural equation modelling was used for the data analysis and the results revealed that the impact of human resource management policies on organisational performance is fully mediated by intangible resources, such as employee skills, attitudes, and behaviour.

Furthermore, Baharom (2008), in a cross-sectional study used the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient or zero-order correlations to investigate the association between organisational factors and policy implementation, with special focus of human resource development policy implementation in Malaysian public universities. Data was collected with a self-reported questionnaire from 70 administrative staff and analysed using descriptive statistics involving frequencies as well as correlation coefficient to determine relationships between the organisational factors and policy implementation. The results indicate that, apart from the dispositions that did not have a significant relationship with implementation, organisational factors, such as departmental communications (Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1983) and top management support (Van Meter & Van Horn, 1975), have the potential of influencing policy implementation.

Correspondingly, Mango (2014) has conducted a study to identify the determinants of successful strategy implementation in selected public schools in South Africa. A sample of 165 respondents were chosen through a simple random sampling technique and with a questionnaire structured within a Likert scale format, data was collected on factors such as compensation management, managerial behaviour, institutional policies

and resource allocation. The SPSS software was used to analyse the data collected. The Cronbach's alpha of 0.759 and the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin of 0.810 obtained, indicated reliability and sampling adequacy of the data used respectively. Based on the Cramer's V co-efficient obtained from the chi-square test, compensation management, managerial behaviour, institutional policies and resource allocation were found to have statistically significant association with successful strategy implementation.

In a similar study conducted by Radomska (2011) to determine the effect of top management support on the effectiveness of strategy implementation, the author used the paper and pencil interview approach on managers from 200 companies listed in prestigious rankings as achieving development success. The results calculated from Kendall's tau-b correlations proved that in relation to the strategy implementation, adequate support by top management was much more important for effective strategy implementation. Also, a similar study in Thailand, on the success factors of strategy implementation, Siriluck (2010) used exploratory factor analysis to examine implementation success factors from 55 organisations, including 275 respondents. Top management support and interdepartmental communication were found to be among the very important factors for the success of strategy implementation.

In a related cross-sectional study, Gondal and Shahbaz (2012) tested the relationship of interdepartmental communication with organisational performance, using human resource management (HRM) as a mediator. Data was collected through the survey questionnaire method from 200

respondents in three different multinational organisations in Pakistan. The authors noted from the results of the linear regression model used, that HRM strongly mediated the relationship of interdepartmental communication and organisational performance.

Similarly, in a descriptive survey to examine and analyse the effects of implementers' disposition in the implementation of teacher certification policy in Makassar City, Malkab, Nawawi, Mahmud and Sujiono (2015) adopted a qualitative approach, using both primary and secondary data sources. Data was gathered by way of interviews, observation, and documentation. Results of the research showed that the negative disposition of the implementers seriously affected the successful implementation of the teacher certification policy. The authors, therefore, suggested that implementers' of policy must follow procedure in accordance with the established guidelines or regulations.

Furthermore, in a study to determine factors that influence the successful implementation of policies in Mongolia, Tsendjav (2011) used the medium-term civil service reform policy of the Mongolian government as a case study. This study applied the mixed methods approach to gain more comprehensive and meaningful finding. Quantitative methodology was applied as the main method with qualitative methodology used as a secondary method to support the results gained through quantitative study. The data for the research was collected from the target population of 500 respondents in 62 local government organisations, through survey questionnaires, in-depth interviews and documentary research.

Correlations, multiple regression analysis as well as path analysis were the methods used to analyse the data. The research results disclosed that all four independent variables, such as top management support, resource allocation, effective communication and implementers' dispositions significantly and directly affect the implementation effectiveness of the civil service reform policy.

The study by Tsendjav (2011) shows that top management support allocation of financial resources encouraged collective commitment for implementing the policy. Strong leadership facilitated the implementation process by developing common understanding of the government policy, showing the successes at an early stage and motivating continued effort. Also, effective communication between all actors and stakeholders, through training workshops for all levels of civil servants made clear the reform policy goals and implementing strategies, and that facilitated the successful implementation of the policies.

Implementers' disposition towards the policy came with the third highest total effect (sig. t .001). This is indicative to the fact that effective and successful implementation of a policy requires not only understanding, but also commitment, support and willingness to carry it out from the implementers. Implementing agency capability and authority was the factor that had only direct effect on the implementation effectiveness of the civil service reform policy in Mongolia (Tsendjav, 2011).

Furthermore, a study on the critical insight into policy implementation and implementation performance by Khan and Khandaker

(2016) has found that multiple factors, such as lack of coordination, funding, commitment, capabilities among implementers and top-down support are linked to poor policy performance. Critically looking into loopholes associated with performance in policy implementation, the authors have developed five theoretical models for improving policy performance. These models of implementation respectively had a rational, organisational, political, bureaucratic and management basis. The authors have estimated that the application of these standards would help to overcome issues, leading to successful policy performance

The above studies on strategy implementation, however, have mostly focused on quantitative data in analysing the issues and sometime ignored certain key challenges associated with implementation (Baharom, 2008; Malkab et al., 2015; Mango, 2014; Radomska, 2011). Also due to the dearth of theoretical development in policy implementation, most of the studies reviewed either developed models to discuss strategy implementation or did not have any fundamental theories guiding the study (Gondal & Shahbaz, 2012; Khan & Khandaker, 2017; Radomska, 2011).

This study will use the mixed methods technique involving both quantitative and qualitative data as exemplified in a study on factors affecting implementation effectiveness, by Tsendjav (2011), in the analyses, identify the challenges in implementation of the human capital development strategies and substantiate the findings with underlying theories and models on strategy implementation. Summary of the empirical evidence is as presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of the Empirical Evidence

Author/Year	Study issues	Underlying theory	Research design	Sampling/Data collection	Analytical approach	Key findings	Identified gaps
Niringiye et al (2010)	Importance of human capital variables in explaining the productivity of labour	Human capital theory	Survey research design	Random and stratified sampling. Data obtained from the World bank	Generalised least squares developed by Covers (1997)	Skilled workers, education and training were positively associated with labour productivity.	Ignored the relationships between the organisational factors and human capital development
Tessema (2014)	Impact of human capital on company's performance	Human capital theory	Survey research design	Random sampling. Krejcie and Morgan sample size determination formular. Data obtained through Structured questionnaire.	Descriptive statistics involving frequencies. Correlations. Regression analysis was also used to test the strength of the associations between the variables.	Investment in human capital leads to improved company performance	Ignored the challenges faced by institutions when investing in human capital
Kim & Ployhart (2013)	Effect of staffing and training on firm productivity and profit growth.	Human capital theory and the resource-based theory	Survey design and data from a longitudinal study	Purposive sampling of 359 firms with 12 years of longitudinal firm level profit data	Descriptive statistics and Random longitudinal growth models were used	Firms that effectively train their staff will outperform competitors and have increased productivity.	No regard for the effect of the organisational factors in human capital investment.

Table 1 Continued

Souleh (2014)	Impact of human capital development on the innovativeness of research centers	Human capital theory and Knowledge-based theory	Case study design	Non-probability convenience sampling. Data collected through interviews and e-mail postal questionnaires.	The data was analyzed using SPSS 18.0 to determine relationship between the various factors	Human capital development is important in enhancing innovativeness of research centers.	Effect of organisational factors and Challenges associated with human capital investment by institutions were not featured.
Katou & Budhwar (2010)	The pathways leading from Human Resource Management Policies to organisational performance	Resource-based theory; Contingency theory; and AMO theory	Survey design	Stratified sampling. Methodology. Data was collected using self-administered questionnaires.	Structural equation modelling.	Human Resource Management policies have a positive impact on organisational performance.	Effect of the organisational factors were not featured. Also it is mostly quantitative.
Peretomode & Chukwuma (2012)	Examined the relationship between manpower development and lecturers productivity in tertiary institutions.	Human capital theory, knowledge-based theory and the structural functionalist theory	Survey design using ex-post-facto design	Proportional stratified random sampling method used. Questionnaire was used for the data collection	The Pearson Product Moment correlations Coefficient and multiple regression statistics were used to analyze the data.	Manpower development enhances lecturers' productivity irrespective of gender, faculty and institution.	Mostly quantitative. It also did not explore the challenges associated with human capital development

Table 1 Continued

Sharabati & Nour (2013)	Investigate the impact of human capital on Middle East University's performance	Human capital theory and the knowledge-based view theory	A causal study design to investigate cause and effect.	The entire population comprising 200 academic and administrative staff and 3017 were used for the study. Data were collected by means of questionnaire.	Descriptive statistics, t-test, ANOVA test, correlation, multiple regressions and stepwise regressions were employed.	Positive significant relationship between implementation of human capital variables and Middle East University's business performance.	It is mostly quantitative and therefore could not explore qualitative data to support the findings
Ukenna et al (2010)	Effect of investment in human capital development on organisational performance	Human capital theory and the resource-based view theory were used.	Case study	Twenty-five small-scale business owners were purposively selected and data was collected using a structured five-point likert type questionnaire.	ANOVA, t-test, multiple regression analysis, simple regression analysis, and Pearson's correlation coefficient were employed.	Found that training and skill are stronger predictors of human capital effectiveness	Mostly quantitative and therefore lacked qualitative data to support the findings. Did not provide information on challenges faced.
Marimuthu et al (2009)	Human capital development and its impact on firm performance	Human capital theory	Review of related extant literature	Studies related to the subject were randomly selected for the study	Documentary analysis by examining from various critical perspectives.	Human capital development promotes innovativeness and firm performance.	There was no empirical data to support the perspectives gathered from literature.

Table 1 Continued

Crook et al (2011)	Relationship between human capital and firm performance.	Resource-based theory and the Human capital theory were employed.	Review of related extant literature.	Sampled 66 studies using keywords resource-based, knowledge-based, human capital, and performance search.	Conducted a meta-analysis of the effects drawn from 66 studies of human capital-firm performance relationship.	Human capital relates strongly to performance, especially when that human capital is not readily tradable in the labour markets.	There was no empirical data to support the perspectives gathered from literature. Challenges were not examined
Mango (2014)	Determinants of successful strategy implementation in selected public schools in South Africa	No theory was employed	Survey design	Simple random sampling technique was employed. A questionnaire structured within a Likert scale format was used to collect data.	The data was collected and analyzed using SPSS statistical package. Chi-square test was used to determine the level of association of the variables with strategy implementation	Compensation management, managerial behaviour, institutional policies and resource allocation, all proved to have significant association with successful policy implementation.	Used only quantitative data to explain the association between the variables. However, qualitative data could have confirmed the findings.
Gondal & Shahbaz (2012)	Relationship of Interdepartmental Communication with Organisational Performance.	No theory was employed.	Cross-Sectional Survey.	Data collected from the entire population through survey questionnaire	Linear Regression Model,	Interdepartmental communication influences organisational Performance.	Mostly quantitative and no theory was employed

Table 1 Continued

Radomska (2014)	The role of managers in effective strategy implementation.	No theory was employed	Survey design	Purposive sampling 200 managers of companies. Paper and pencil interview approach was used to collect data.	Kendall's tau-b correlations were calculated.	Adequate actions taken by managers were much more important than their competencies.	Mostly quantitative and no theory was employed.
Baharom, A. (2008)	Organisational factors influencing policy implementation with special focus on HRD policy within Malaysian public universities	Human capital theory, resource-based theory, and the network theory	Cross-sectional study using a quantitative approach	Data was collected from 70 university administrators. Data collection was through the use of a self-reported questionnaire.	Descriptive statistics involving frequencies were used. correlation coefficient were used to determine the relationships between the organisational factors and policy implementation	There is a strong, positive and significant relationship between organisational communication, as well as characteristics of implementing agencies and policy implementation. Dispositions of implementers did not have significant impact implementation.	It was mostly quantitative and did not obtain qualitative data to substantiate the findings. It also merged top management's support with other variables and classified the as characteristics of implementing agencies

Table 1 Continued

Tsendjav (2011)	Factors affecting implementation effectiveness	No theory was employed	Case study design	Purposive sampling. Data was collected through the use of questionnaires, in-depth interviews, and documentary research.	Mixed-methods involving both quantitative and qualitative data were used to gain more comprehensive and meaningful finding. Correlations and multiple regression and path analysis were also used.	Political factors have the highest direct and indirect effect; Clarity of policy objectives and strategies; Implementers dispositions towards the policy are the third highest effect	Combine theories to substantiate the findings
Khan and Khandaker (2017)	The state and status of policy implementation as a discipline and factors associated with implementation performance.	No theoretical development.	Textual research	Five models namely were used to explain the mode of implementation	Developed five modules as standards that would help to overcome issues leading to successful performance.	Confirms the dearth of theoretical development of the subject. Multiple factors such as lack of coordination, funding, and commitment, affected implementation performance	No theories were used to support the findings

Table 1 Continued

Jayashree et al (2015)	Significance of top management commitment on policy implementation	No theories were employed	Survey design	Probability sampling and simple random sampling methods. Data was collected through survey questionnaires.	SPSS was used to analyze data.	Commitment of top management in implementation increase the effectiveness of the implementation	Use theories to support the findings
Malkab et al (2015)	Examined the impact of implementers disposition in the implementation of teacher certification policy.	No theories were employed	Descriptive survey and qualitative approach	Data was collected through interviews, observation, and documentation.	Data display, data reduction, member check, triangulation, data finalization, data conclusion and data argumentation	Policy implementation can influence the successful achievement of the goal of a program.	Did not make room for the effect of other organisational factors.

Lessons Derived from the Review of the Existing Literature on Implementation of Human Capital Development Strategies

A review of the relevant theoretical, conceptual and empirical works unearth the purported contributions of human capital to positive organisational outcomes. Institutions that are able to effectively implement their human capital development strategies stand to gain from increased productivity resulting from the enhanced skills and competencies of labour. The key elements that seem to be common in all the definitions of human capital in all the studies include: knowledge, experience, trained skills, endowed abilities, attitudes and behaviour. These features of human capital have been used by various theories, such as the human capital theory, organisational capability theories, the structural functionalist theory, ability, motivation and opportunities theory, and the contingency theory to explain how institutions can benefit through developing their human capital. However, due to the dearth of theoretical development on strategy implementation, most of the studies reviewed on implementation either did not have any underlying theory or developed models to substantiate the findings.

The literature has also revealed that human capital development is a process for enhancing employees' level of performance on the job to prepare them for new responsibilities. The research design used by most of such studies are: case studies, survey research design, cross sectional surveys, causal study design, and descriptive survey design. Data were

collected with the aid of questionnaires and interview schedules, and through textual reviews. Diverse procedures were used for sampling the population. Some of the studies used the random and stratified sampling procedures, purposive sampling, and the proportional stratified random sampling methods.

The empirical evidence also revealed that studies on human capital development and the implementation of the human capital development strategies, applied quantitative analytical approaches involving descriptive statistics, correlations, ANOVA, t-test, Chi-square test, multiple regression analysis, generalised least squares and structural equation modelling in arriving at the key findings. Most studies have also used the organisational factors as proxies to measure the success or failure of the implementation of human capital development strategies. Among the organisational factors are: top management support; allocation of resources; dispositions of implementers; inter-organisational communication; characteristics of the implementing agencies; socio-political influence; and socio-economic conditions.

Conceptual Framework for the Implementation of Human Capital Development Strategies

This section presents the conceptual framework highlighting the implementation of human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana. The conceptual framework creates a synergy among the main variables underpinning the study, namely: human capital

development strategies, implementation of the human capital development strategies, organisational factors, and human capital development.

From Figure 1, it is clear that human capital development strategies are based on three main components namely: education, training and mentoring. Implementation of these strategies involves sponsorships for further studies, conferences seminars/workshops and grooming by mentors. However, a successful implementation requires positive relationships between the human capital development strategies and the organisational factors. There is also forward and backward relationships among the various sections during the implementation process to strengthen the human capital of the organisation.

The conceptual framework which is applied in this study, has been influenced, to some extent, by the human capital theory (Becker, 1964, 1993), the organisational capability theories, such as the resource-based theory (Barney, 1991, 1995), knowledge-based theory (Theriou, Aggelidis & Theriou, 2009), and the structural functionalist theory (Holmwood, 2005),

The basic assumption of the human capital theory is that an educated population is a productive population and that for organisations to derive the best from their human capital, there is the need for regular update of their productive capacities through education and training (Marimuthu et al., 2009). Conversely, the basic assumption of the organisational capability theories is that human capital and capabilities are the main source of competitive advantage and organisations must develop their human capital

to have a sustained competitive advantage (Penrose, 1959; Barney, 1991). Developing the human capital of an organisation, according to the structural functionalist theory, will enable them to acquire the needed capabilities to play their functional roles effectively for the organisations to achieve their set targets (Bohnenkamp, 2013; Kirsimarja & Aino, 2015).

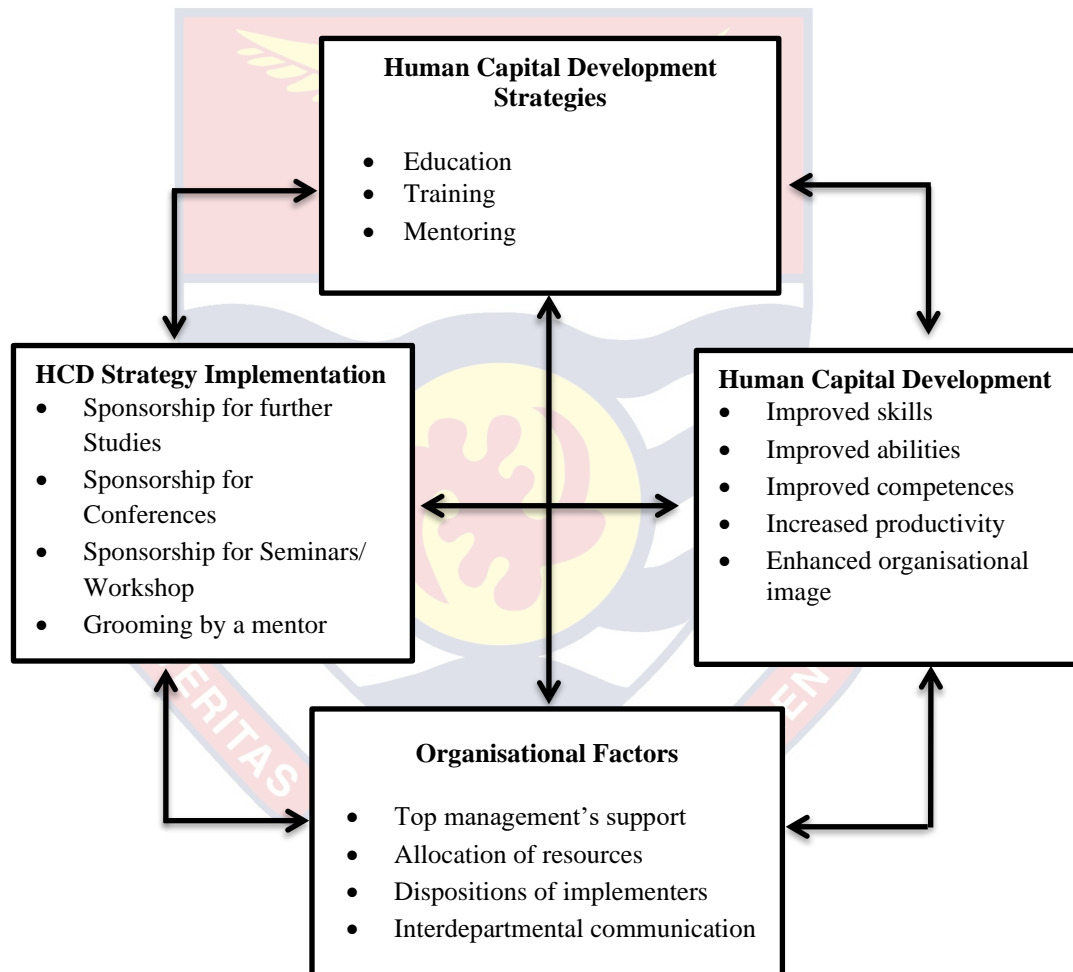


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework for the Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies in the Publicly-Funded Universities in Ghana.

Source: Author's construct based on the reviewed literature, 2018

Furthermore, the effective implementation of the human capital development strategies may be severely undermined by some organisational factors through: a lack of top management support and resources (Meter & Horn, 1975; Mazmanian & Sabatier, 1989; Brinkerhoff & Crosby, 2002; Lipsky, 2010); the presence of a negative disposition among implementers; a lack of inter-organisational communication (Meter & Horn, 1975; Bridgman & Davis, 1977). These organisational factors can influence the implementation initiatives and, therefore, should not be ignored (Alashloo, Castka & Sharp, 2005).

With the above view of strategy implementation the conceptual framework will serve as the analytical tool to explore the myth or reality of the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana.

Summary

This chapter focused on the related empirical evidence on implementation of human capital development strategies. It also dwelt on lessons derived from the review of existing literature and led to the development of a conceptual framework, which brings together the main variables underpinning the study. The empirical evidence reveals that studying policy implementation in organisations, such as the publicly-funded universities, researchers have used the impact of various organisational factors as proxies for a successful policy implementation. Among such organisational factors are: top management support; allocation

of resources; disposition of the administrators responsible for the implementation of the policy; and inter-organisational communication. These organisational factors support each other in the policy implementation process. The next chapter will dwell on the research methodology.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed description of the methodological approach of the study. Issues that will be addressed include: the description of the philosophical concerns on the appropriateness in making a choice of research approaches; research design and issues related to the use of mixed methods research design; validity and reliability of both quantitative and qualitative research; the barriers and weaknesses in mixed methods research; as well as the study organisations; The chapter finally presents the methods of collecting both quantitative and qualitative data for the study as well as data processing and analysis.

Philosophical Discussions on the Research Approach

Over the years, there has been an extensive debate on the theoretical divide between positivism and interpretivism. These views essentially mark alternative inquiries within which the same subject or incident is observed to uncover different aspects of reality (Yin, 2009). Methodologically, the notion of theory building in relation to theory testing is generally linked to discussions of the appropriateness of quantitative and qualitative research approaches (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

Positivists regard the existence of the social world as an external entity where its qualities should be objectively measured with scientific

methods rather than being inferred subjectively through sensational, reflective or intuitive capabilities (Sarantakos, 2013). They also equate social sciences with natural sciences in such a way that the logic of causal inference and hypothetical inquiry is predicated to develop universal laws. The assumption of positivism is related to the scientific value derived from “objective knowledge” or facts largely uncovered from quantitative practices and hypothetico-deductive approaches (Seigel, 2006).

Closely related to positivism is post-positivism. According to Creswell (2013), post-positivists do not believe in strict cause and effect, but rather recognise that all cause and effect is a probability that may or may not occur. In practice, post-positivist researchers view inquiry as a series of logically related steps, believe in multiple perspectives from participants rather than a single reality, and espouse rigorous methods of qualitative data collection and analysis. Yin (2009) notes that post-positivists use multiple levels of data analysis for precision, employ computer programmes to assist in their analysis, encourage the use of validity approaches, and write their qualitative studies in the form of scientific reports, with a structure resembling quantitative articles.

However, some social scientists argue that, though the methods and models proposed by the post-positivists are useful as research tools, yet they cannot be taken as a sufficient and necessary basis for the production of valid empirical evidence and a theoretically relevant interpretation of this evidence (Hetherington, 2000). They cannot be applied in a routine and simple way and cannot be a substitute for theoretical elaboration. The post-

positivists models fail to embrace adequately the dynamics of social phenomena, thereby casting doubt on how research involving people, could and should be carried out. The social sciences need a more integrated and deliberative methodological approach. It was for these reasons that the interpretative research approach emerged (Adam, 2014).

The process of the interpretivist approach developed to elucidate the meanings of purposeful human action/interaction in a particular setting on the grounds that knowledge is never free of value judgments and interpretations and not all knowledge comes from the result of objective measures (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). According to Sarantakos (2013), interpretivism, as a framework within which qualitative research is conducted, looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world. Thus, the qualitative researcher is interested in the way in which people make sense of their world and how they assign meanings to it.

Another framework related to the interpretivist approach is social constructionism. Proponents of this framework postulate that people focus on interpreting experience, and making sense of what the world is. The bottom line is that people construct the complexity of social settings both individually and collectively, rather than by external forces or fundamental rules (Mertens, 2010). In social constructivism, individuals seek to understand the world in which they live and work. They develop subjective meanings of their experiences. These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrow

the meanings into a few categories of ideas (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). The goal of research, therefore, is to rely as much as possible on the participants' views of the situation. These views are formed through interaction with others and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals' lives (Creswell, 2013). Table 2 is a summary of key contrasting implications of positivism and social constructionism.

Table 2: Key Contrasting Implications of Positivism and Social Constructionism

Theoretical divide	Positivism	Social constructionism
Philosophical beliefs	External and objective	Socially constructed and subjective
Explanations	Causality demonstration	General understanding of the situation
Research stances	Hypotheses and deductions	Induction from rich data collection
Unit of analysis	Reducing to simplest terms	Inducing the intricacy of the "Whole" situations
Generalisation	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction

Source: Denzin and Lincoln, 2011

Naturally embraced by positivism, the quantitative approach provides a wide coverage of various situations to be studied at a fast and economical pace. Statistical values aggregated from large samples may be of considerable significance in making practical decisions since perceptions are transformed into pre-structured and quantifiable categories (Yin, 2009).

Clarity of the statistical methods enables the replication of the studies to be achieved. Nonetheless, as Mertens (2010) notes, quantification leaves little space for the researchers to understand effectively how people interpret and behave in a social context. They are not very helpful in generating theories and, because they focus on what is, or what has been recently, they make it hard for policy makers to infer what changes and actions should take place in the future.

On the contrary, the qualitative approach, in association with the interpretivist position, is adopted to explore the particular social construction. Qualitative methods (i.e., in-depth interviews, observations and ethnographic participations) allow social scientists to yield broad and rich descriptions of the individuals' meanings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). A natural interpretation of the world is vital in developing the innovative ideas and novel theories that emerge during the course of study (Maxwell, 2012). Explanations of social phenomena are derived from the inductive tradition, which accounts for building general patterns of what has been observed. It is, however, prone to criticism in that variation of the individuals' experience may cause biases in excessively subjective interpretations and less rational conceptualizations.

In fact, this theoretical divide is more observed in the breach. According to Creswell (2013), many researchers operate in the middle ground, taking a pragmatic view in their attempt to understand phenomena, recognising that different perspectives can add different and meaningful layers without necessarily conflicting or contradicting the others. In

research on human capital development, therefore, combining data from different sources can be mutually enriching (Yin, 2009). Lee (1991) has noted that each perspective could add a meaningful layer without contradicting others.

In this study, different methodologies in research design, as advocated by Luck, Jackson, and Usher (2006), Yin (2009) and Tsendjav (2011), were used to provide perspectives on the phenomena of the implementation of human capital development strategies in the public universities in Ghana. This was necessitated by the nature of the study such that only qualitative or quantitative methodology cannot provide the detailed dynamics and descriptions associated with implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities.

The purposes of mixed-methods research

It is argued that both quantitative and qualitative research have strengths and weaknesses, and combining different approaches is likely to result in complementary strengths and no overlapping weaknesses (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Greene et al. (1989) also maintain that all methods have inherent biases and limitations. Therefore, the use of different methods that have offsetting biases to assess a phenomenon has the potential to enhance the validity of inquiry results.

In practice, researchers who use different methods in a single study may have certain purposes. For example, a common purpose is to take advantage of triangulation (Greene et al., 1989). As Jick (1979) notes,

triangulation provides researchers with opportunities, such as allowing them to be more confident of their results, helping to refashion old theory or develop new theory by uncovering the deviant dimension of a phenomenon, and leading to the integration of theory. Jogulu and Pansiri (2011) indicate that triangulation will strengthen the findings, and, as a result, mixed methods researchers can make better inferences by employing multiple techniques.

Apart from triangulation, there may be other possible benefits of mixed methods research. Along with the increasing interest in this methodology, social scientists have also discussed more concretely how qualitative and quantitative methods could be combined to enhance the understanding of social phenomenon. Rossman and Wilson (1994), for example, explain that mixed methods helps to address complex research questions because it helps in corroboration, elaboration, developing and initiating the research findings.

Greene et al. (1989) also identified triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation, and expansion as five characteristics of mixed methods research. According to the authors, researchers can take benefit of triangulation by seeking convergence, corroboration, correspondence of results from different methods, and/or achieve a complementarity that uses different methods to measure overlapping but also different facets of a phenomenon, yielding an enriched and elaborated understanding of that phenomenon being researched.

The current study attempts to seek benefits of triangulation and

complementarity. Firstly, this study is designed to investigate the relationships among different organisational factors and the implementation of human capital development strategies through utilising both quantitative and qualitative data. By employing multiple methods, this study is able to compare findings obtained through different instruments and cross check assessments. Subsequently, it is possible to match the statistical relationships found from the quantitative hypothesis testing with subjective descriptions and explanations that are obtained from interviews with participants. Through this, the researcher can “make inferences with confidence” (Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011, p. 689).

Secondly, this study seeks the opportunity of complementarity in measuring, reporting and modelling human capital development in the publicly-funded universities. For example, the variables used in the quantitative study might not measure the implementation of human capital development strategies properly, as mentioned before, and the qualitative study complements the quantitative study by exploring the limitations with those variables from the practitioners’ perspective.

The quality of quantitative data reflects the problems with the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities, and the qualitative interviews further reveal the reasons why these problems exist. Moreover, the qualitative study offers meaningful and in-depth insights into the implementation process of the human capital development strategies. This helps the quantitative study in terms of hypothesis development and model specification.

Research Design

Based on the arguments of the various competing paradigms of research, the mixed-methods research design, involving both quantitative and qualitative methods was used to collect and analyse the views of the respondents in this study. Variables, such as the human capital development programmes and practices, and the mode of implementing the human capital development strategies, were measured qualitatively. Other variables that sought to determine the relationship between policy implementation and organisational factors, such as top management support, allocation of resources, disposition of implementers, and inter-organisational communication, were examined quantitatively.

The mixed-methods design was adopted due to both theoretical and practical considerations. This design corroborates that of Tsendjav (2011) in his study to determine factors that influence the successful implementation of policies in Mongolia. Most studies reviewed in the empirical evidence used either quantitative or qualitative design to determine the effect of some organisational factors in policy implementation. Tsendjav (2011), however, used the mixed-method approach in order to gain much insight into the effect of various organisational factors in policy implementation, and it is relevant to the current study.

Apart from the theoretical reason, the choice of mixed methods design in this study is, to a large extent, influenced by some practical

considerations as well. Firstly, although the two types of data are collected from different sources, they would be analysed in a complementary manner. In this sense, rather than conducting two distinct analyses, it is better to analyse them approximately at the same time. Additionally, in a concurrent mixed-methods design, as the data collection, data analysis and interpreting results of quantitative and qualitative studies occur approximately at the same time, they can talk to each other whenever there is a need.

The study design chosen for this study was exploratory and cross-sectional. It was exploratory because the study sought to fill empirical and methodological gaps in policy implementation studies. Research on the implementation of human capital development strategies in Ghana so far is still in its initial stage, and there is lack of strong theoretical fundamental study in this area. In addition, our knowledge about the relationships between different organisational factors and the implementation of human capital development strategies is limited. In such a situation, the qualitative study is more important in terms of understanding deeply the phenomenon and adding knowledge to the theoretical foundations. According to Dul and Hak (2008), qualitative methods, in particular case study, are argued to be powerful tools when the phenomenon being investigated is highly complex and where limited theories are available.

The design was cross-sectional because the study measured the prevalence of all the characteristics of interest in the target population. According to Frankfort-Nachmas and Nachmas (1996), in a cross-sectional survey research, the researchers usually ask a random sample of individuals

to respond to a set of questions about their backgrounds, past experiences, and attitudes. The unique features of this design are that: it is executed within a limited time frame; it studies the relationship between different variables at a single point in time; and, as well, shows how variables affect each other. It involves a snapshot observation of a subset of a population. Cross-sectional research designs describe the current nature and conditions that exist (Sarantakos, 2013).

As exemplified by Gondal and Shahbaz (2012) in a cross-sectional survey on the relationship between interdepartmental communication and organisational performance, the effect of various organisational factors on implementation of human capital development strategies was considered in this study. The organisational factors were: top management's support, allocation of resources, dispositions of the implementers, and inter-organisational communication. As Alashloo et al. (2005) note, these organisational factors are vital because they are believed to have the capability to influence implementation initiatives.

In spite of the fact that mixed-methods research has become increasingly popular in the social sciences, there is a common problem in many mixed-methods studies. That is, the quantitative and qualitative components are treated as separate domains and do not integrate or mix with each other (Bryman, 2008). An early examination of mixed-methods researches by Greene et al. (1989) found that 44 percent of the 57 articles they reviewed did not integrate the quantitative and qualitative data. More recently, Bryman (2008) examined 232 mixed-methods research articles

from 1994 to 2003, using content analysis, and found the lack of integration. These findings and comments suggest that, if mixed-methods researchers wish to make the most of the data they collect, they must solve the integration issue, which seems to be the most difficult part in the mixed-methods research design. In this thesis, quantitative data and qualitative data are integrated not only at the stage of results reporting, but also during the processes of data collection and data analysis in order to maximize the integration of the two methods.

Study Organisations

Six publicly-funded universities were selected for the study. They are: University of Ghana; Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology; University of Cape Coast; University of Education, Winneba; University for Development Studies; and University of Mines and Technology. These institutions had been fully-fledged public universities for more than ten years. They are also regarded as the pioneering public universities in Ghana. Information gathered from these institutions, therefore, gave a detailed description on implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana.

The six publicly-funded universities were established in different times in various strategic locations to promote accelerated economic development and social transformation. The University of Ghana was established in 1948 to develop human capital for critical sectors (education, health and industry) of the economy (Manuh, Gariba & Budu, 2007). The

need for human capital in science and technology-based sectors of the economy resulted in the establishment of the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology in 1952 (Akyeampong, 2009). The University of Cape Coast was also established in 1962 to train teachers for the various levels of education (Boateng, 2010).

However, the huge demand for professional teachers for all levels of education necessitated the amalgamation of seven diploma-awarding institutions to form the University of Education, Winneba in 1992. This was aimed at creating greater access to university education for teachers to develop themselves and update their skills and competencies for efficient delivery (Opare, Forde & Ebenya, 2007). The University for Development Studies was also established within the same year (1992) in Tamale in the Northern Region to develop the human capital that will adopt a practical, action-oriented approach to education and help address community problems. It was also to equip students with relevant skills and expertise for self-employment (Boateng, 2008).

Ghana is endowed with mineral resources, such as gold, bauxite, manganese and diamond, among others. These mineral resources are mined by specialised companies established in various parts of the country. The presence of these mining companies necessitated the urgent need for adequate human capital to efficiently manage the activities in the mining sectors of the economy. The University of Mines and Technology was, therefore, established in 2004 at Tarkwa in the Western Region to train the required manpower for the mining and allied industries in Ghana (UMaT

Public Relations Unit, 2014).

Even though the selected publicly-funded universities have different mandates, they have similar characteristics in their organisational structures as depicted in Figure 2. These institutions have Chancellors, Governing Councils, and Vice-Chancellors as heads of administration, supported by Pro Vice-Chancellors, Registrars, Provosts, Deans and other professional officers for the achievement of their mission and vision.

The publicly-funded universities, according to Effah and Hofman (2010), are self-governing and autonomous. They have Councils which control finances and property and Academic Boards with sovereignty over academic affairs. Decision-making power is diffused and exercised through a system of boards and committees. With regard to human capital development, the six publicly-funded universities have adopted unified conditions of service aimed at ensuring that faculty and staff receive the best training and development through diverse means to prepare them for efficient service delivery and promotions. Their modes of developing human capital include: mentorship; sponsorship for conferences; training workshops/seminars; and further studies, among others.

The similarities notwithstanding, there exist differences in their organisational structures. The University of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, and the University of Cape Coast adopt the collegiate system of operation, in which the management of academic departments and faculties has been decentralised and managed by Provosts who report to the Vice-Chancellor. The Colleges are given the

power to run on their own without much dependence on the central

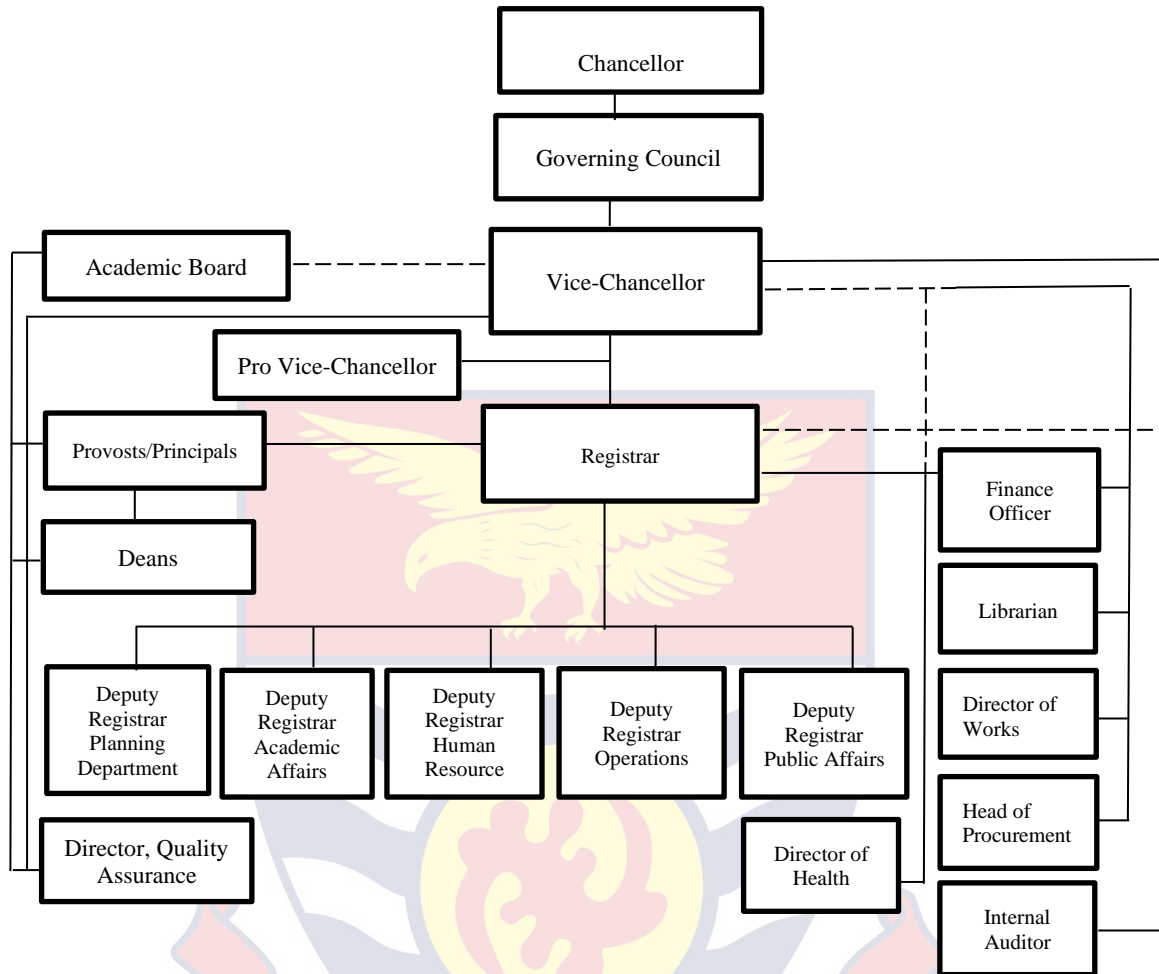


Figure 2: Generic Organogram for the Governance Structure of the Publicly-Funded Universities

Source: UEW Planning Department, 2015

administration for financial support. A College Registrar, Finance Officer and Librarian assist the Provosts. Under them are the faculties, centres and institutes, headed by Deans, and Directors. As heads of the Colleges, the Provosts provide academic and administrative leadership for the Colleges and oversee their overall running.

The University of Education, Winneba and the University for

Development Studies, on the other hand, operate a multi-campus system with slight differences. Whereas the satellite campuses of the University of Education, Winneba, are managed by Principals, that of the University for Development Studies are managed by Deans. In both institutions, however, the heads of the satellite campuses report directly to the Vice-Chancellor at the central administration. The University of Mines and Technology, on the other hand, operates the centralised system of administration where the Heads of department report through the Deans to the Vice-Chancellor. These similarities and differences in the organisational structure of the publicly-funded universities would inform the study on various innovative ways of developing their human capital for efficiency and higher productivity.

The Study Population

The population for this study comprised staff in the senior member category of the publicly-funded universities in Ghana. Senior members comprised lecturers and senior administrative/professional staff not below the rank of Lecturer/Assistant Registrar. The total population of senior members in the six publicly-funded universities, as of January, 2015, was 4,282, comprising 3,523 (82%) lecturers/teaching staff, and 759 (18%) administrative/professional/non-teaching staff. Female senior members constituted 894 (21%) of the total population, out of which 670 (16%) were lecturers/teaching staff and 224 (5%) were administrative/non-teaching staff. The details of the study population are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Populations of Senior Members in the Publicly-Funded Universities (2015)

Institution	Sex	Teaching Staff	Non-Teaching Staff	Total
University of Ghana	M	815	130	945
	F	264	76	340
	T	1079	206	1285
Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology	M	660	121	781
	F	112	45	157
	T	772	166	938
University of Cape Coast	M	515	74	589
	F	109	33	142
	T	624	107	731
University of Education, Winneba	M	363	125	488
	F	102	41	143
	T	465	166	631
University for Development Studies	M	415	69	484
	F	73	24	97
	T	488	93	581
University of Mines and Technology	M	85	16	101
	F	10	5	15
	T	95	21	116
Total	M	2853	535	3388
	F	670	224	894
	T	3523	759	4282

Sources: Quality Assurance and Planning Units of the Public Universities, 2015

Sampling Procedures

Since it was impossible to reach the entire population of senior members in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana, the multi-stage sampling technique was applied to generate the sample size. The population was first stratified into universities. Krejcie and Morgan's table for the determination of sample size for a given population was adopted to derive a sample size of 354 senior members who were selected from a population of 4,282. The sample was determined as follows:

$$s = \frac{x^2 np(1-p)}{d^2(n-1) + x^2 p(1-p)}$$

s = required sample size.

x^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841).

n = the population size.

p = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this will provide the maximum sample size).

d = the degree of error (.05).

A sample size of 354 was, therefore, obtained for the study. This corroborates what Cooper and Schindler (1998) indicate that, depending on the size of the population, a sample size which exceeds five percent of the population being studied can be considered as an acceptable representation of the data. The sample size of 354 in this study exceeds five percent of the total population of senior members in the publicly-funded universities selected for this study and, therefore, can be considered appropriate.

Furthermore, as the universities under study have different population sizes and must, therefore, reflect in the respective sample sizes, sampling with probability proportionate to size was adopted to distribute the sample size of 354 among the publicly-funded universities per the various categories as shown in Table 4. This procedure was adopted because it permits greater control over ultimate sample size without the need for stratification by size (Turner, 2010). The sample size of 354 comprised 291 lecturers and 63 administrators/professional staff. Among the lecturers, 236 were males, whilst 55 were females. The sample drawn for administrators, on the other hand, comprised 44 males and 19 females.

The breakdown for the number of lecturers/teaching staff and administrators/non-teaching staff from the sample size of 354 was done through the quota sampling method. Thus, the population fraction (i.e. the population of each category divided by the total population of 4282) was multiplied by the total sample size of 354 to obtain the sample size for each category of staff. The quota sampling method was used to ensure that each dimension of the population was represented in the sample (Sarantakos, 2013).

The same procedure was used to determine the sample size drawn from each of the institutions used for the study. Thus, the total population of senior members of each institution was divided by the entire population being studied and the outcome was then multiplied by the total sample size to arrive at the sample size of the institution. This process was also used to arrive at the sex distribution of the sample size for each category of senior

members used for the study. It was done to ensure that each dimension of

Table 4 Distribution of the Sampled Respondents by Public Universities

Institution	Sex	Teaching Staff		Non-Teaching Staff		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
University of Ghana	M	67	18.9	11	3.1	78	22.0
	F	22	6.2	6	1.7	28	7.9
	T	89	25.1	17	4.8	106	29.9
Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology	M	55	15.5	10	2.8	65	18.3
	F	9	2.5	4	1.1	13	3.6
	T	64	18.0	14	3.9	78	21.9
University of Cape Coast	M	42	11.9	6	1.7	48	13.5
	F	9	2.5	3	0.8	12	3.4
	T	51	14.4	9	2.5	60	16.9
University of Education, Winneba	M	30	8.5	11	3.1	41	11.6
	F	9	2.5	3	0.8	12	3.4
	T	39	11.0	14	3.9	53	15.0
University for Development Studies	M	33	9.3	5	1.4	38	10.7
	F	6	1.7	2	0.6	8	2.3
	T	39	11.0	7	2.0	46	13.0
University of Mines and Technology	M	8	2.2	2	0.6	10	2.8
	F	1	0.3	-	-	1	0.3
	T	9	2.5	2	0.6	11	3.1
Total	M	236	66.7	44	12.4	280	79.1
	F	55	15.5	19	5.4	74	20.9
	T	291	82.2	63	17.8	354	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

the population was well represented.

In order to know the respondents who constituted the sample size of 354 obtained from the population of the senior members in the selected universities, as presented in Table 4, the stratified and systematic random sampling techniques were used to select respondents from the sampling frame obtained from the public universities. The sampling frame was stratified into lecturers and administrative/professional staff and further stratified into sex. After stratifying the apportioned samples into male and female, simple random sampling, using the lottery method, was applied to select the respondents from each university. These techniques were adopted to obtain a fair representation of the samples and to reduce the probable sampling error (Baabbie & Mouton, 2007).

The purposive sampling technique was used to select 7 key informants from each of the publicly-funded universities. In all, 42 key informants comprising 30 Provosts/Principals/Deans, 6 Heads of Human Resource and 6 Heads of Finance in the publicly-funded universities were selected for the study.

Sources of Data

Data were collected from both primary and secondary sources. The primary sources of information were collected, using structured interview schedule and in-depth interview guide. Lecturers and the non-teaching senior members as well as the key informants provided the primary data for the study. Secondary data were gathered from legal documents, hand-

written manuscripts, government documents, review articles, journals and newspapers that highlighted on issues related to the implementation of human capital development strategies.

Data Collection Instruments

In this study, three principal data collection instruments were utilised, namely: structured interview schedule; in-depth interview guide; and documentary analysis. These methods were wide-ranging enough to tap information on a variety of human capital dimensions. The structured interview schedule, which was the main instrument, was used to obtain information from the teaching and non-teaching senior members to gain insights from their perspectives on particular subjects (Flick, 2002; Robson, 2002). Thus, since the research was conducted in academic environments and the senior members had a complex repertoire of knowledge about the topic under study, structured interviewing was deemed appropriate. The structured interview was adopted to enable the interviewer to gain communicative validation (Robson, 2002), and also for the interviewer to follow some divergent themes emerging from interviews (Mason, 2002).

In this research, although a list of the human-capital-related questions were formulated to cover a wide range of key topics, multiple views of the interviewees provided opportunities for follow-up questions that helped to explore more details on the subject under study. By following descriptions of organisational levels (Mintzberg, 1983) and the work of Gratton et al. (1999), the structured interviews helped to obtain very cogent

information on the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana.

Items that were asked on the structured interview schedule were based on the specific objectives of the study. The structured interview schedule was divided into four sections. Section One focused on the background characteristics of respondents. Items that were asked in Section Two analysed the implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff. Section Three examined the relationships between the organisational factors and the implementation of the human capital development strategies. Section Four analysed the challenges faced by the publicly-funded universities in the implementation of the human capital development strategies.

The in-depth interview guide was used to collect data from the key informants. The key informants comprised 30 Provosts/Principals/Deans, 6 Heads of human resource, and 6 Heads of Finance in each of the selected publicly-funded universities. The in-depth interview guide was designed with a list of open-ended items, based on the study objectives. The thematic areas reflected the sections of the interview schedule. The items in the data collection instruments were designed to provide a fair view of what pertains to the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities.

Documentary analysis was done to gather additional data and validate some of the data gathered through the interviews. Qualitative data, involving archival and other relevant written materials, were examined to

gain a better understanding of how the human capital development strategies were implemented in practice, in the publicly-funded universities. Those records also served as crucial references with which to assess the implementation outcomes. The documentation data comprised human resource policies, corporate initiatives (strategic plans, training manuals and feedback reports), university brochures, annual reports, employee survey reports and public press.

Ethical Considerations

In the course of collecting data for research, one needs to be guided by the ethics that are associated with it. According to Russell (2000), the biggest problem in conduct of human behaviour is not in selecting the right sample size or making the right measurement, it is doing those things ethically. The researcher is, thus, obliged to the respondent to be polite and inform the respondent that information provided, notes and sound recordings would be used purposely for the research study (Rubin, 1995).

Before embarking upon data collection the study methodology was subjected to official ethical considerations. The researcher ensured that the methodological approach of the study did not violate research ethics. Respondents who participated in the study were contacted individually by the researcher with a request to participate in the study and briefed them on the objectives of the study. Under no situation was any respondent coerced to participate in the study. In addition, subjects were given assurances of the confidentiality, anonymity, and non-disclosure of the information they

would provide to the researcher through any of the data collection instruments. Strict confidentiality of the information the respondents provided was adhered to and all protocols with respect to institutional entry, were observed.

Pre-Testing of Instruments

Dixon (1990) has stressed the need for a pre-testing because it helps the researcher to decide whether the study is feasible and worthwhile to continue. It also provides an opportunity to assess the appropriateness and practicality of the data collection instrument as it reveals ambiguities or poorly-worded questions that cannot be understood (Frankel & Wallen, 2000). The data collection instruments were pre-tested at both the University of Ghana and the University of Education, Winneba, with respondents having the same characteristics as those in the main study but were not part of the sample for the main study. The rationale for the pre-test was to validate the instruments for the main study.

Two major problems were identified with the research instruments during the pre-testing of the instruments. The first was that some of the items were not very clear to the respondents and had to be rephrased to provide a better understanding. The other problem was that, because the organisational factors that influenced strategy or policy implementation were not specified, respondents provided detailed information on each of them only at the prompt of the researcher. It, however, helped the researcher to identify four organisational factors that mostly prevailed in the public

universities, and were used in the study.

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection was done in two phases. However, both phases were done at the same time. The first phase involved the collection of quantitative data from faculty and staff, while the second phase involved the collection of qualitative data from the key informants. In order to gain easy access to the various publicly-funded universities for both phases, the researcher obtained introductory letters on the 14th August, 2014, from the School for Development Studies and the Institutional Review Board of the University of Cape Coast, to the Registrars' of the publicly-funded universities where the data would be collected. This was to enable the researcher obtain permission and to have access to the faculty and staff lists to identify the respondents and the key informants. This was very successful because all the institutions were very cooperative and it was very easy having the names and addresses of all the respondents and the key informants.

The second step was then to make contact with the targeted interviewees. To begin with, formal letters from the researcher, together with those from the School for Development Studies, Institutional Review Board, and the Registry of the interviewee's university were sent to each of the interviewees. These letters made it easier for the researcher to have an initial contact with each of the respondents and the key informants and to book appointments with each of them. The letters explained briefly the researcher's background, his research project, the main interview questions,

and the potential benefits from this research, and guarantee of confidentiality. In order to arrange as many interviews as possible, each interviewee was contacted on phone a day ahead of schedule to confirm the date and time of the appointment. The quantitative data involving the use of the structured interview schedule were collected from the faculty and staff by two trained field assistants, whilst the qualitative data involving the use of the in-depth interview guide were collected from the key informants by the researcher.

The quantitative data collection began on 3rd March, 2015 and ended on December 17, 2015. Each interview lasted for about an hour. The research team began the fieldwork from the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology at Kumasi on 3rd March, 2015. Following an earlier permission sought by the researcher from the management of the selected publicly-funded universities, an initial protocol was sought from the office of the Registrar in each of the institutions to announce the presence of the team, after which the interviews began. Also, earlier appointments were booked through phone calls made to each of the respondents, two days ahead of the visit by the team to the institutions.

The team visited departments where each of the respondents was located, based on an earlier time agreed with the respondents for the interviews. Before locating the respondents, the team first visited the office of the respondent's head of department for assistance. The heads of department were very supportive in helping to locate offices of the respondents. Interviews at KNUST ended on 13th March, 2015. Eight

interviews were conducted each day and all the 78 respondents, made up of 64 lecturers and 14 administrators identified in the sampling frame, were interviewed.

The second publicly-funded university that the researcher and his team visited was the University of Ghana at Legon in Accra. The research team followed the same procedures as was done at the KNUST to locate and interview the respondents. The interviews at UG began from 18th March, 2015 and ended on 10th April, 2015. In all, 106 respondents identified in the sampling frame were interviewed. Those initially interviewed comprised 85 lecturers and 17 administrators. Two of the lecturers who were not interviewed, though they were met by the team, declined to be interviewed for their personal reasons. The other two lecturers were not present at the location they agreed to meet the team for the interview. Several attempts by the team to meet them proved futile. The researcher, therefore, went into the sampling frame and through the same procedure in selecting the sample, obtained four names who were contacted through the assistance of their heads of departments and they were interviewed as replacement samples. In all, eight interviews were conducted in a day.

The third university that the team visited was the University of Education, Winneba. Even though that is the institution in which the researcher works, the usual protocols were observed as was done in the earlier institutions visited. Also, because UEW operates multiple campuses, some of the respondents were located on the satellite campuses. Thus, seven

lecturers were at the Kumasi campus, whilst three were located at the Ashanti Mampong campus. Interviews began at the main campus in Winneba on 15th April, 2015 and ended on 30th April, 2015. The research team then proceeded to the Kumasi campus on 2nd May, 2015, conducted seven interviews on 3rd May, 2015 and then proceeded to the Ashanti Mampong campus on 4th May, 2015 and conducted the remaining three interviews on that same day. Generally, all the 53 respondents, comprising 39 lecturers and 14 administrators, were interviewed.

The University of Cape Coast was the fourth university the team visited. The team began interviews on 8th May, 2015 after going through the needed protocols. Each interview lasted for about an hour and the team spent 15 working days to interview all the 60 respondents, comprising 51 lecturers and nine administrative staff. The researcher and his team completed interviews on UCC campus on 25th May, 2015.

The research team visited the University of Mines and Technology at Tarkwa, on 20th November, 2015 and, after observing the due processes for protocol, the interviews began. Generally, all the 11 respondents, comprising nine lecturers and two administrative staff, were interviewed. The interviews were conducted within two working days. Thus, six were conducted on 20th November, 2015 and five were conducted on 21st November, 2015.

The research team finally visited the University for Development Studies in Tamale on 12th December, 2015 and, after observing the initial protocols, the team proceeded with the interviews. The University for

Development Studies also has satellite campuses at Nyankpala and Wa, where some of the respondents were located. Thus, five of the lecturers were at the Nyankpala campus. Interviews began at the main campus in Tamale on 12th December, 2015 and ended on 16th December, 2015. The research team then proceeded to the Nyankpala campus on 17th December, 2015, conducted five interviews on that same day. Generally, all the 46 respondents, comprising 39 lecturers and seven administrators, were interviewed.

The major problem faced during the collection of the quantitative data was the difficulty in meeting the respondents on the scheduled time. Sometimes, the interviewer had to wait several hours for a respondent who was either lecturing or attending a meeting. This initially affected the scheduled time to meet other respondents on the same day. The researcher overcame this by making phone calls to those engaged at the time of the visit to arrange for more convenient time for the interview. On the whole, even though the exercise was difficult and challenging, the experience was worthwhile.

The second phase of the fieldwork, involving the collection of mainly qualitative data, started on 3rd March, 2015 and ended on 17th December, 2015. It was done alongside the first phase. Thus, whilst the two members of the research team were interviewing the faculty and staff, the researcher focused on conducting in-depth interviews with the key informants.

In this study, Principals, Provosts, Deans, Finance Officers and

Heads of the Division of Human Resource in the selected publicly-funded universities were targeted as key informants for interviews based on several considerations. Firstly, previous studies used questionnaires to obtain information on how organisations measured, managed and reported strategy implementation. Those studies mainly focused on one type of interviewees, who were mostly non-teaching staff, doing administrative work in the university (e.g., Baharom, 2008).

Secondly, Rubin and Rubin (2005) argue that it is not easy to figure out in advance how much useful information that the interviewee can provide, so “the best you can do is choose a person who is in the appropriate position” (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 66). Principals, Provosts, Deans of faculty, Heads of Finance and the Division of Human Resource were considered to be those who have very good and broad knowledge about organisation’s human capital development strategies or policies, and practices, as well as being involved with different aspects of the implementation processes in their institutions. Thus, it is expected that they may have better ability to understand the research problem.

It is worth stating at this point that, because of some practical challenges, such as difficulty in getting the key informants, due to their busy schedules as well as financial constraints that the researcher was faced with, not all the Principals, Provosts and Deans in the publicly-funded universities were interviewed. However, those interviewed provided very useful information to support the quantitative data for the study.

Getting access to interviewees

Principals, Provosts, Deans, Heads of Finance and the Division of Human Resource in the various publicly-funded universities were targeted to be the key informants and, therefore, were the potential participants in the in-depth interviews. Initial contact with them started in August, 2014. The interviews were conducted between 3rd March, 2015 and 17th December, 2015. Owing to the distant locations of the various publicly-funded universities, the interviews were conducted during the same period of the quantitative data collection with the structured interview schedule.

The researcher experienced great difficulties during the process of establishing access and contacting potential interviewees. Getting access to the Principals, Provosts, Deans, Finance Officers, and Heads of Human Resource Division in the universities was quite difficult. The key informants usually had very busy schedules and scarcely had any free time. There were many instances where interviews had to be rescheduled along the line to enable the interviewee attend to very urgent tasks. There were other times that the researcher had to visit the offices of some interviewees on several occasions before having the opportunity to conduct the interviews.

Conducting interviews

There were, in total, 42 case interviews conducted with the key informants, comprising Principals, Provosts, Deans, Finance Officers, and Heads of Division of Human Resource in the respective publicly-funded

universities. The researcher conducted all the interviews on a one-to-one basis. The interviews lasted from 30 minutes to one-hour and 20 minutes. The interviews were conducted in the premises of the interviewees. With the permission of interviewees, all the 42 interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for further data analysis. Generally, the process of conducting interview was designed to be as follows: preparation, introduction, asking questions, and conclusion, but with a large degree of flexibility. The researcher took notes during each interview, even though they were recorded. The notes enabled the researcher to capture the main points and to formulate follow-up questions.

Preparation of interviewees' background was the initial step to conduct a successful interview. Previous researchers suggest that it is important for interviewers to have some prior knowledge about interviewees and their circumstances (Arksey & Knight, 1999; Easterby-Smith, et al., 2008). Before each interview, the researcher tried to collect information about the interviewee and the case institution, and to search for issues that might be important or significant for them. This can help the researcher obtain trust from the interviewee (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2008).

At the beginning of each interview, an effort was made to build trust and comfortable atmosphere throughout the interview. Normally, the interviews were opened by a brief introduction of the area of study, the purpose of this research, and how the information would be used. Additionally, the researcher emphasized that there was no right or wrong answer for each question, and the researcher was interested in the

interviewees' own opinions and experience (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

The researcher attempted to review each interview process during the early stage of data collection, and this seemed to be very helpful in terms of improving the researcher's interview skills and exploring detailed information. For example, from reviewing the first interview with a Dean of Faculty, the interviewer found that the interviewees' understanding of the concept of "implementation of human capital development strategies" appeared to be limited to "staff training", and did not extend to other areas related to the implementation of those strategies. The researcher, therefore, considered it necessary to introduce briefly the definition and other issues related to the subject when conducting the interviews. In subsequent interviews, it was found that such an introduction was useful to help interviewees better understand the issues of interest, and to allow them to talk broadly.

During the interview, different types of questions were asked, such as main questions, follow-up questions, and probing questions (Bryman, 2004). An interview guide, containing a list of main questions, was used to make sure that the important issues could be thoroughly examined in each interview (Rubin & Rubin, 2005), and also to enhance the consistency across interviews. The main questions were semi-structured. They were also designed to be broad enough, in order to encourage interviewees to talk freely and openly about their experiences, perceptions and understanding (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The interview guide was used flexibly, as the researcher had to decide the number and the sequence of the main questions

asked, depending on the duration of the interviews and the responses of the interviewees.

Follow-up questions were also used by the researcher to solicit further information from the respondents. The researcher's main role in the interview was to listen, to follow what the interviewee had said, and to explore more valuable information. This was very necessary because, as Rubin and Rubin (2005) point out, follow-up questions are crucial for obtaining in-depth and detailed answers. During the process of each interview, follow-up questions were routinely asked to pursue new ideas and to encourage the interviewee to elaborate important themes (Arksey & Knight, 1999; Bryman, 2004).

Although follow-up questions generally cannot be prepared in advance, the researcher attempted to do a preliminary analysis of each case interview immediately after it was done, and that served as guide for the interviewer in subsequent interviews to further explore other important issues related to the study (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). This was helpful to formulate follow-up questions in the subsequent interviews with other interviewees.

Furthermore, in the interview process, the researcher tried to ask probing questions when there was an incomplete idea or a missing piece of information presented, or when the interviewee talked too briefly but the researcher wanted to get more descriptive story from the interviewee. In such situations, probing questions can elicit more details (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). In addition, the researcher found that, sometimes, the interviewer's

behaviours, such as listening carefully as well as showing interest and agreement to what the interviewee said, tended to be helpful to further probe the interviewee's answers.

The interviews were expected to be approximately one-hour in length, but the actual duration of them differed from interview to interview. All interviewees were informed that they could stop the interview at any point of time, if they wanted. Four interviewees from the University of Ghana at Legon and two from the University of Education, Winneba notified the researcher in advance that they could only spare 30 or 45 minutes for the interview. On two other occasions, at the main campus of the University for Development Studies in Tamale, the researcher had to decide to end the interviews after 45 minutes because the interviewees had to attend various forms of meetings. However, in such instances, the researcher ensured that the interviews were conducted within the stipulated time.

After each interview, the researcher asked if the interviewee could give any suggestions about the subject being researched. After indicating the researcher's appreciation for the interviewee's time and assistance, the researcher tried to maintain further contact with the interviewee. Maintaining contact with interviewees after the interview was also important. Indeed, several interviewees provided further help to the researcher, such as the provision of some relevant documents.

Data Processing and Analysis

The data from the field were coded and processed, using Version 20 of the Statistical Product and Services Solutions (SPSS) software. The information was based on the objectives and the conceptual framework for the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana. An analytical approach, comprising quantitative and qualitative methods, was used. The qualitative data were transcribed and analysed with respect to the conceptual themes of the study. The quantitative data were presented, using mainly tables that showed the frequency and percentage distributions of the relevant variables. The chi-square statistic test was used to explore the associations among the human capital development strategies practiced by the publicly-funded universities. The relationships between the organisational factors and implementation of human capital development strategies were tested, using the Spearman's rank order correlation analysis.

Summary

This chapter discussed the methodological decision the researcher made and the overall procedures for collecting, analysing, interpreting, and reporting data. The underlying philosophical assumptions were addressed at the beginning of the chapter. This study adopted both positivism and social constructionism positions (Laughlin, 1995) in both the ontological and the epistemological stances. These views made the adoption of mixed-methods research in this study possible.

As a methodology, mixed-methods research has been widely used in

social science, and researchers in the fields of management and accounting also call for the combination of different research approaches to assess the same phenomenon. The researcher believes that, given the research purposes and the general research question, mixing quantitative and qualitative methods in the current study makes it possible to take advantages of triangulation and complementarity, and enhance the validity of the overall research.

Generally, this chapter provided a detailed description of sample selection, data sources, data processing and analysis. Although considerable effort has been devoted to enhance the validity of this study, some challenges were encountered in the course of the study. These include the difficulties encountered in collecting both qualitative and quantitative data resulting from the busy schedules of the respondents and the key informants, as well as the disperse locations of the publicly-funded universities. However, the researcher observed the required protocols to conduct the study successfully.

CHAPTER FIVE

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion on implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities. The first part of the chapter concentrates on description of the respondents' characteristics/profile. Subsequently, the first objective will be addressed. The other objectives are presented in separate chapters.

Profile of Respondents

The background information of respondents examined were: sex; marital status; status in the institution; highest educational qualification; number of years in the present institution; and rank/job title of respondent. The details of the background characteristics of the respondents are as discussed in the subsequent sections.

Sex of respondents

The study examined the breakdown of sex of respondents and the results (Table 5) show that, out of the 354 respondents, 280 were males whilst 74 were females, giving a sex ratio of about 4:1. Thus, four male respondents to one female respondent. Among the 280 males, the University of Ghana had the highest number 78(27.9%) of male respondents, followed by the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology 65(23.2%) and the University of Cape Coast 48(17.1%), whilst the University of Mines

Table 5: Sex Distribution of Respondents by Institution

	Sex					
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	78	27.9	28	37.8	106	29.9
KNUST	65	23.2	13	17.6	78	22.0
UCC	48	17.1	12	16.2	60	16.9
UEW	41	14.6	12	16.2	53	15.0
UDS	38	13.6	8	10.8	46	13.0
UMaT	10	3.6	1	1.4	11	3.2
Total	280	100.0	74	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

and Technology had the least number 10(3.6%) of male respondents. Among the publicly-funded universities, the University of Ghana had the highest number 28(37.8%) of female respondents whilst the University of Mines and Technology had the least number 1(1.4%) of female respondents.

Marital status

The study examined the marital status of the respondents. The examination of respondents' marital status was necessary because of the implication it has for the kind of information provided by the respondents for the study. Table 6 shows that majority 323(91.2%) of the respondents were married, whilst only 2(0.6%) were widowed. The rest were either single 16(4.5%), separated 7(2.0%), and divorced 6(1.7%).

Table 6: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital status	Frequency	Percent
Married	323	91.2
Single	16	4.5
Separated	7	2.0
Divorced	6	1.7
Widowed	2	0.6
Total	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Status of respondent in the institution

Apart from sex and marital status, the researcher looked at the status of the respondents in the institutions. As explicated by the structural functionalist theory, individuals and groups are active agents and that providing them with the needed opportunities for professional development will enable them to acquire knowledge and skills to enhance their performance on the job (Almendarez, 2011; Satterfield & Huhhes, 2007). Manuh et al. (2007) however, note that limited opportunities and resources for professional development of faculty and staff could influence decisions related to human capital development of a category of staff. The examination of respondents' status in the institution is, therefore, very necessary.

As Table 7 indicates, out of the 354 respondents, 291 were lecturers and 63 were senior members in administration, representing a ratio of about 5:1. Among the respondents who were lecturers, UG had the highest number

Table 7: Status of Respondents in the Institution

Institution	Status					
	Lecturer		Administrator		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	89	30.6	17	27.0	106	29.9
KNUST	64	22.0	14	22.2	78	22.0
UCC	51	17.5	9	14.3	60	16.9
UEW	39	13.4	14	22.2	53	15.0
UDS	39	13.4	7	11.1	46	13.0
UMaT	9	3.1	2	3.2	11	3.2
Total	291	100.0	63	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

89(30.6%), followed by KNUST 64(22.0%), whilst UMaT had the least number 9(3.1%) of lecturers as respondents. Similarly, among the institutions, UG had the highest number 17(27.0%) of senior members in administration as respondents, whilst UMaT had the least number 2(3.2%) of senior members in administration as respondents.

Highest level of education

Another background information of respondents that was relevant to the study was the highest level of education. This information is very important because, as noted by Bingab et al. (2015), the current minimum entry for academic position in the publicly-funded universities is a doctor of philosophy or terminal degree. Niringiye et al. (2010), in a study on

human capital and labour productivity in East African manufacturing firms also established that there is a positive association between human capital development through further education and training and enhanced productivity. The highest level of education of the respondents will, therefore, provide a clear picture of efforts the universities are making, at ensuring that their faculty and staff obtain terminal degrees to enable them play their functional roles, as portrayed by the structural functionalist theory, in order to boost productivity and also enhance image of the institutions (Peretomode & Chukwuma, 2012).

Table 8 presents that, out of the 354 respondents, as many as 189 had a doctor of philosophy degrees, whilst 165 had a master of philosophy degree. The University of Ghana had the highest number 76(40.2%) of respondents with doctor of philosophy degrees, followed by the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology 45(23.8%), and the University of Cape Coast 42(22.3%). The University of Mines and Technology had the least number 3(1.6%) of respondents with doctor of philosophy degrees. Correspondingly, the University for Development Studies had the highest number 41(24.8%) of respondents with master of philosophy degrees, whilst the University of Mines and Technology had the least number 8(4.8%) of respondents with master's degree.

The highest level of Education of respondents was also looked at from the sex perspective. This is important because the publicly-funded universities aim at promoting equality and equity among male and female faculty and staff in every aspect of their administration and its activities.

Table 8: Distribution of Respondents' Highest Level of Education

Institution	Highest Level of Education					
	Masters		Doctorate		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	30	18.3	76	40.2	106	29.9
KNUST	33	20.0	45	23.8	78	22.0
UCC	18	10.9	42	22.3	60	16.9
UEW	35	21.2	18	9.5	53	15.0
UDS	41	24.8	5	2.6	46	13.0
UMaT	8	4.8	3	1.6	11	3.2
Total	165	100.0	189	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

The objective 7 of the University of Cape Coast corporate strategic plan (2018-2022), for example, makes provision for the promotion of equality and equity among the male and female faculty and staff of the university (University of Cape Coast, 2018). Similarly, one of the strategic priorities in the University of Ghana's corporate strategic plan (2014-2024), is about equity and equality among both male and female faculty and staff of the university (University of Ghana, 2014). This strategic priority aims at creating the best environment for equal opportunity for male and female faculty and staff.

As indicated in Table 9, about 81.0 percent of the male respondents were holders of doctor of philosophy degree holders as against 19.0 percent of the female respondents with the same qualification. Also 77.0 percent of

male respondents as against 23.0 percent female respondents were master’s degree holders. The under representation of the female faculty and female staff, in terms of terminal degree holders, may be the reason for the pursuance of gender equity and equality in the publicly-funded universities.

Table 9: Sex Distribution of the Highest Level of Education

Sex	Masters		Doctor of philosophy		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Male	127	77.0	153	81.0	280	79.1
Female	38	23.0	36	19.0	74	20.9
Total	165	100.0	189	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Strategy 8.1 of the University of Education, Winneba, corporate strategic plan 2014-2018 for example, attests to the underrepresentation of female faculty and staff and, therefore, as a strategy, the institution plans to strengthen the processes of bridging the male-female representation gap. Implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff is therefore very necessary (University of Education, Winneba, 2014).

Number of years served in current institution

According to Article 16.1 of the conditions of service for senior members of the public universities in Ghana, faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities, are required to serve for a minimum of 3 years

before qualifying for various forms of sponsorship to pursue further studies. The number of years an individual had served in one publicly-funded university is, therefore, an important variable in the profile of respondents as that has much implications on the kind of responses provided for this study.

As presented in Figure 3, out of the 354 respondents, 43.5 percent had served between eight and nine years in their current institution, whilst 41.6 percent had served for 10 years and above in the same institution. Only

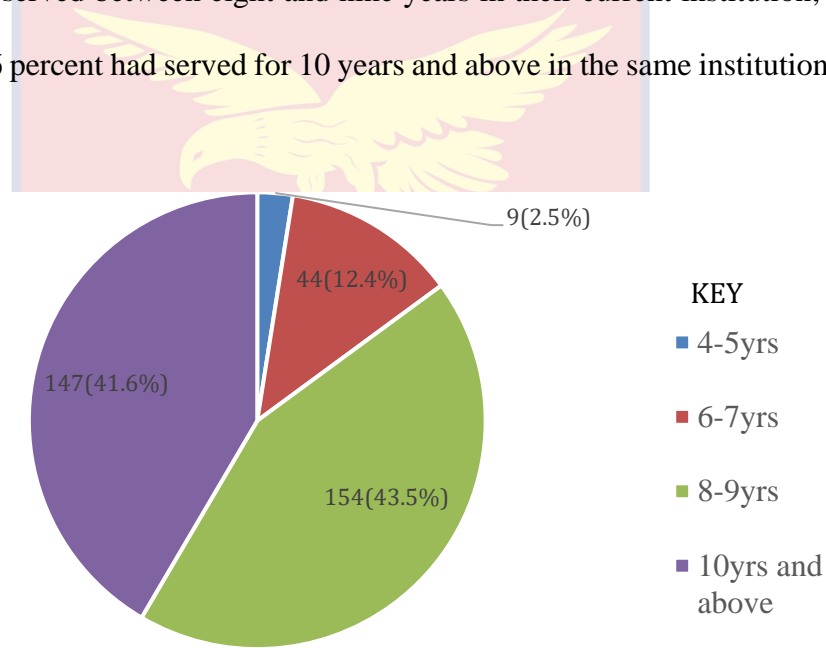


Figure 3: Number of Years Served in Current Institution

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

a few (2.5%) of the respondents had served in the current institution between four and five years. This gives a clear indication of the fact that all the respondents, in a way, qualify for sponsorship to develop their human capital and, therefore could provide very useful information for the study.

Rank of respondents

The study also examined the rank of respondents. The examination of the rank of respondents was necessary because of the implication it has for human capital development in the publicly-funded universities. Rank of a faculty or staff in a publicly-funded university determines the supervisory roles they could be appointed or assigned to, and the number of years they could serve in those responsible positions. Statute 31 and sub-section 'c' of

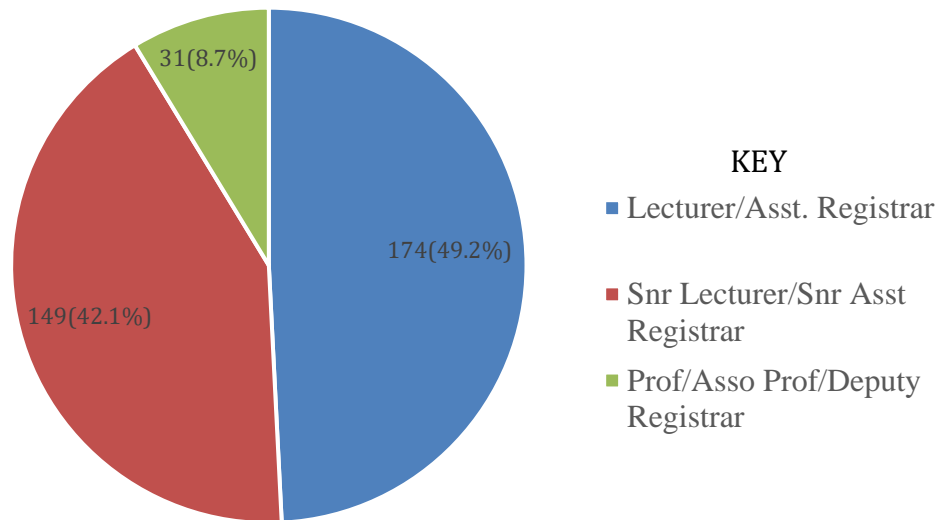


Figure 4: Rank of Respondents

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

the University of Education, Winneba, for example, states that professors are eligible for reappointment as heads of department for a maximum of six years, whilst those below the professorial rank have up to two years. Also, the criteria for promotion as enshrined in Article 5 of the conditions of service of senior members in the publicly-funded universities provides

details of the differences in scholarly works expected of a faculty or staff at various ranks, to merit being promoted to the next higher ranks.

Almost half (49.2%) of the respondents were at the rank of Lecturer/Assistant Registrar, 42.1 percent were at the rank of Senior Lecturer/Senior Assistant Registrar, and 8.7 percent were at the rank of Professor/Associate Professor/Deputy Registrar.

Table 10 also presents the sex distribution of the rank of respondents. As many as 83.9 percent of the male respondents were at the professorial rank as against 16.1 percent of the female respondents who were

Table 10: Sex Distribution of the Rank of Respondents

Sex	Lecturer/Asst. Registrar		Senior Lecturer/Senior Asst. Registrar		Prof/Associate Prof/Deputy Registrar		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Male	137	78.7	117	78.5	26	83.9	280	79.1
Female	37	21.3	32	21.5	5	16.1	74	20.9
Total	174	100.0	149	100.0	31	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

in the same rank. Similarly, 78.7 percent and 78.5 percent of the male respondents were on the lecturer and senior lecturer rank respectively, as against 21.3 percent and 21.5 percent of the female respondents were on the lecturer and senior lecturer rank, respectively. Developing the human capital of faculty and staff at the lower ranks, according to the knowledge-based theory, will enhance their innovativeness and levels of productivity

required to facilitate their promotion to higher ranks (Souleh, 2014). As indicated by a key informant at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, the summer school held annually at KNUST, is among some of the activities geared towards building the capacity of faculty and staff so that they could play their functional roles effectively.

Human Capital Development Strategies

This section focuses on the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana. The strategies for developing human capital were defined in terms of the awareness of the modalities in place for the development of faculty and staff in the publicly-funded universities. It was also seen in terms of accessibility and ability to create opportunities for faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities to develop their capacity, as well as the mode of implementing those strategies in the publicly-funded universities.

The publicly-funded universities have incorporated human capital development in their strategic plans in order to help bridge the wide gap existing in terms of the number of professors as against lecturers/senior lecturers in the institutions. The fourth objective of the University of Cape Coast's corporate strategic plan, 2018-2022 for example, is geared towards attracting, recruiting, developing, and retaining high calibre staff. Similarly, the fourth objective of University of Ghana's corporate strategic plan, 2014-2024 aims at developing and implementing a training and career development programmes for faculty and staff. The University of Mines and

Technology also has as the first objective of the strategic plan, 2015-2024 to develop the capacity of their faculty and staff (University of Cape Coast, 2018; University of Ghana, 2014; University of Mines and Technology, 2015).

According to the human capital theory, education and training of the workforce is key to the success of every organisation (Saif, 2011). Similarly the knowledge-based theory considers knowledge as the most strategic resource that could enable an organisation to have sustained competitive advantage (Theriou, Aggelidis & Theriou, 2009). It is therefore imperative for organisations to create the needed avenues that would provide their employees the opportunities to update their knowledge and skills so as to be able to play their functional roles effectively. In this way, according to the structural functionalist theory, the employees will be more productive to sustain the organisation (Lenka, 2012).

As indicated in the conceptual framework of this study, human capital development strategies through the provision of further education, on the job training through seminars and conferences as well as mentorship by experienced workmates, could result in improved skills, abilities, and competencies of the employees. This could then translate into increased productivity and enhanced organisational image (Kirsimarja & Aino, 2015).

Information obtained from respondents in this section were presented in frequencies involving crosstabulations. That of the key informants were used to substantiate the respondent's data. In order to determine the existence of human capital development strategies,

respondents were asked if their institutions had strategies for developing the capacity of faculty and staff, and whether those strategies were properly documented. As regards the existence of human capital development policies, all the respondents indicated that their institutions had policies for developing human capital.

The respondents were asked if the human capital development policies were properly documented and harnessed in a book for reference. Table 11 shows that, 198 of the respondents answered that their institution's

Table 11: Documentation of the Human Capital Development Strategies by Institution

Institution	Response				Total	
	Yes		Not sure			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	74	37.4	32	20.5	106	29.9
KNUST	42	21.2	36	23.1	78	22.0
UCC	36	18.2	24	15.4	60	16.9
UEW	26	13.1	27	17.3	53	15.0
UDS	16	8.1	30	19.2	46	13.0
UMaT	4	2.0	7	4.5	11	3.2
Total	198	100.0	156	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

human capital development strategies were properly documented, whilst 156 of the respondents indicated that they were not sure of the fact that the human capital development strategies of their institutions were properly

documented in a single book for reference. Among the respondents who indicated that their human capital development strategies were properly documented, the highest number 74(37.4%) were at UG, followed by KNUST 42(21.2%) and the least number 4(2.0%) were at UMaT.

Among the respondents who were not sure of the proper documentation of their institution's human capital development strategies, majority 36(23.1%) were at KNUST, whilst the least number 7(4.5%) were at UMaT. In probing further on this issue, these respondents explained that, even though their institutions had strategies or policies for developing human capital, there was no comprehensive document for human capital development strategies. However, there are extracts of information on human capital development in sections of the conditions of service, statutes, and the scheme of service, and the corporate strategic plans of their institutions.

The key informants also provided diverse views on the issue with regard to documentation of the human capital development strategies. A key informant at the University of Ghana explained that:

The publicly-funded universities have policies guiding the development of staff of all categories. These policies are, however, located in the statutes, conditions of service (University of Ghana, March, 2015).

Similar to the above explanation, another key informant at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology said:

Publicly-funded universities do not exist in a flux. Every activity,

including human capital development is guided by policies that are properly documented and are strictly adhered to by the management of the institution. However, decisions are sometimes taken outside the policies to salvage some distressed departments (Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, March, 2015).

The seemingly absence of a comprehensive document on the human capital development strategies, might be the reason why about 156 (44.1%) of the respondents were not sure that the policies for the development of human capital in the publicly-funded universities, were properly documented for easy reference.

Opportunities in the Human Capital Development Strategies

The opportunities in the human capital development strategies refer to avenues and openings that are created by the strategies for its beneficiaries. The analysis sought to determine, if the human capital development strategies of the institutions provided opportunities for faculty and staff to develop their capacity. All the respondents indicated that the human capital development strategies provided opportunities for their professional development. The opportunities indicated by the respondents were: sponsorships for further studies, both locally and abroad; sponsorship for local and international conferences and seminars; and in-service training workshops. All the respondents indicated that they had in one way or the other, benefited from the opportunities provided by the human capital development strategies.

In order to confirm the responses with regard to the kind of

opportunities the human capital development strategies provided, the respondents were asked to specify the opportunities resulting from the human capital development strategies they had ever accessed.

Table 12: Ever Sponsored for Further Studies by Institution

Institution	Response					
	Yes		No		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	61	28.0	45	33.1	106	29.9
KNUST	49	22.5	29	21.3	78	22.0
UCC	49	22.5	11	8.1	60	16.9
UEW	31	14.2	22	16.2	53	15.0
UDS	22	10.1	24	17.6	46	13.0
UMaT	6	2.7	5	3.7	11	3.2
Total	218	100.0	136	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Table 12 shows that Majority 218 of the respondents indicated that they had ever been sponsored to for further studies. Among these respondents, 61(28.0%) were from UG, both KNUST and UCC had the same number 49(22.5%) of respondents in this category, 31(14.2%) were from UEW and the least number 6(2.7%) were from UMaT.

Comparing the institutions with respect to their mandates, both UCC and UEW with education focused mandates, sponsored many of their faculty and staff for further studies. However, most 49(22.5%) of the respondents at UCC as against 31(14.2%) at UEW indicated that they had

ever been sponsored for further studies. Similarly, even though KNUST and UMaT have science and technology focused mandates, majority 49(22.5%) of the respondents at KNUST as against 6(2.7%) of the respondents at UMaT indicated that they had ever been sponsored for further studies by their institutions. Correspondingly, UG and UDS having universally focused mandates, majority 61(28.0%%) of the respondents at UG as against 22(10.1%%) of the respondents at UDS indicated that they had ever been sponsored for further studies.

Table 13 also presents that, majority (228) of the respondents indicated that they had ever been sponsored to attend conferences. Among

Table 13: Ever Sponsored for Conference by Institution

Institution	Response				Total	
	Yes		No			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	74	32.5	32	25.4	106	29.9
KNUST	54	23.7	24	19.0	78	22.0
UCC	43	18.9	17	13.5	60	16.9
UEW	29	12.7	4	19.0	53	15.0
UDS	22	9.6	24	19.0	46	13.0
UMaT	6	2.6	5	4.1	11	3.2
Total	228	100.0	126	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

the respondents in this category, majority 74(32.5%) were at UG, 54(23.7%) at KNUST and the least 6(2.6%) were at UMaT. Per their

mandates, it is explicit from Table 13 that, irrespective of their focus areas, the publicly-funded universities made much efforts at sponsoring their faculty and staff for conferences. Among the institutions with universally focused mandates, majority 74(32.5%) of the respondents at UG as against 22(9.6%) at UDS had ever been sponsored for conferences. With respect to the institutions with education focused mandates, majority of respondents at both UCC 43(18.9%) and UEW 29(12.7%) had ever been sponsored for conferences. Similarly, institutions with science and technology based mandates, majority, 54(23.7%) and 6(2.6%) of respondents from KNUST and UMaT respectively, indicated that they had ever been sponsored for conferences.

Table 14: Ever Sponsored for Seminars/Training Workshops by

Institution	Response					
	Yes		No		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	79	28.2	27	36.5	106	29.9
KNUST	72	25.7	6	8.1	78	22.0
UCC	39	13.9	21	28.4	60	16.9
UEW	47	16.8	6	8.1	53	15.0
UDS	33	11.8	13	17.6	46	13.0
UMaT	10	3.6	1	1.4	11	3.2
Total	280	100.0	74	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

With respect to sponsorship for seminars/training workshops, Table 14 indicates that 280 of the respondents had ever been sponsored for seminars and training workshops. Among the respondents in this category, majority 79(28.2%) were at UG, 72(25.7%) at KNUST, 47(16.8%) at UEW and the least 10(3.6%) were at UMaT. Grouping the institutions per their mandates, it is explicit from Table 14 that majority of respondents in all the publicly-funded universities had ever been sponsored by their institutions for seminars and training workshops.

The findings on efforts made by the publicly-funded universities to boost the capacities of their faculty and staff through education and training, corroborates responses provided by the key informants. A key informant at UG for example, stated that:

This university places much premium in developing its faculty and staff so that we can maintain our high standards. You are aware that this is the premier university in the country and therefore management of the university always ensure that faculty and staff are provided with the best education and training to equip them to do their work effectively (University of Ghana, March, 2015).

Similarly, a key informant at the Winneba campus of UEW expressed efforts the university had made over the years, to equip faculty and staff for their work by stating that:

This university has trained many faculty and staff through sponsorships for further studies, conferences, training

workshops and seminars. Almost every faculty and some staff of this university had in one way or the other benefited from these opportunities. This was done to equip the faculty and staff at the main campus as well as the satellite campuses for the enhancement of their work output (University of Education, Winneba, April, 2015).

These findings support assertion by Balatbat (2010) that institutions, such as the publicly-funded universities, place much value on their human capital development strategies. According to the knowledge-based view theory, human capital represents the cognitive competencies, skills, relational behaviour and knowledge of individuals that enhance productive output, and contributes to organisation productive performance (Son, 2010).

As the conceptual framework depicts, when the faculty and staff are developed through the sponsorship for further studies, conferences and training workshops, will lead to improvement in their skills, abilities, and competencies as well as increased productivity and enhanced organisational image. The human capital theory expounds that, the knowledge and skills acquired by the faculty and staff through education and training will increase their productivity in the workplace (Kern, 2009). This according to the knowledge-based view theory will enable the publicly-funded universities to be competitive in their endeavours (Kirsimaria & Aino, 2009).

Model of Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies in the Publicly-Funded Universities

This section examines the model adopted by the publicly-funded universities in implementing the human capital development strategies to improve capacity of their faculty and staff for the realisation of their institutional mandates. It presents information on the mode of accessing the human capital development strategies. It will also focus on the associations regarding the number of faculty and staff ever sponsored for further studies; conferences; and seminars/training workshops, The results are presented in frequencies involving cross tabulations. The test for associations were presented using the Chi-square test.

The discussion on the model of implementing the human capital development strategies focused on the procedures involved for faculty and staff to access the opportunities and how easily accessible those opportunities were. To begin with, the study examined the opportunities provided by the human capital development strategies and procedures involved in accessing those opportunities. All the respondents indicated that the human capital development strategies provided opportunities for faculty and staff of their institutions. Among the opportunities indicated were, the opportunity to pursue further studies, attend conferences, seminars and training workshops, as well as the opportunity to be mentored by experienced professors.

Correspondingly, all the respondents as well as the key informants indicated similar procedures involved in accessing the opportunities

provided by the human capital development strategies. The respondents and the key informants pointed out that, in accessing those opportunities, faculty and staff had to take the initiative by either seeking admission on to a programme of study, to attend a conference, seminar or training workshop, and then provide evidence to that effect, when applying for sponsorship. The applications were usually routed through the Heads of Department, the Dean of Faculty and through the Provost, if any, to the Vice-Chancellor. The administrative staff also apply through their Heads of Department, the Registrar and to the Vice-Chancellor.

The respondents further articulated that they had ever accessed some of the opportunities provided by the human capital development strategies. With regard to accessing the opportunities for developing the capacity of faculty and staff the respondents were asked about how easily accessible the procedures for accessing the opportunities were. Table 15 shows that 232 of the respondents, expressed the fact that the procedures for accessing the human capital development strategies were easily accessible. Among the respondents in this category, majority 85(36.6%) were at UG, and the least 8(3.4%) at UMaT.

Comparing the findings per the mandates of the publicly-funded universities, most of the respondents at both UG 85(36.6%) and UDS 31(13.4%) indicated the mode for accessing the opportunities for developing human capital were easily accessible. Similarly, most of the respondents at both KNUST 43(18.6%) and UMaT 8(3.4%), being the

institutions with science and technology based mandates, indicated easy accessibility to the opportunities for human capital development.

Responses from the institutions with education based mandates, most 39(16.8%) of the respondents at UCC indicated easy accessibility to the opportunities, whilst at UEW, majority 27(22.1%) of the respondents indicated that the modes of accessing the opportunities for human capital

Table 15: Mode of Accessing Opportunities for Professional Development is Easily Accessible

Institution	Response				Total	
	Yes		No		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%		
UG	85	36.6	21	17.2	106	29.9
KNUST	43	18.6	35	28.7	78	22.0
UCC	39	16.8	21	17.2	60	16.9
UEW	26	11.2	27	22.1	53	15.0
UDS	31	13.4	15	12.3	46	13.0
UMaT	8	3.4	3	2.5	11	3.2
Total	232	100.0	122	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

development strategies were not easily accessible. Since about 122 of the respondents across the publicly-funded universities indicated that the modes for accessing the opportunities were not easily accessible suggests that, even though the opportunities for human capital development were easily

accessible, some faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities do not agree to the fact that those opportunities were easily accessible.

Based on the mode of accessing the opportunities for human capital development strategies, respondents were, asked to specify the human capital development opportunities that they had ever accessed. The responses were then stratified by status of the respondents to determine if both faculty and staff had equal access to the opportunities for human capital development.

Table 16 indicates that 207(71.1%) of the faculty as against 11(17.5%) of the staff had ever been sponsored for further studies to pursue terminal degrees. It also shows that 84 (28.9%) of the faculty as against 52 (82.5%) of the staff had never been sponsored for further studies to pursue terminal degrees.

Table 16 Sponsored for Further Studies

Responses	Faculty		Staff		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	207	71.1	11	17.5	218	61.6
No	84	28.9	52	82.5	136	38.4
Total	291	100.0	63	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2 = 63.062$, p-value = .000; Phi = .422, $\alpha = 0.05$, p-value = .000

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

In order to determine the significance of the pattern of sponsorship for further studies in the publicly-funded universities, a Chi-square test was

conducted at the 5% alpha level. The test results show that there was association between status in the institution and access to sponsorship for further studies ($X^2 = 63.062$, $df = 1$, $\alpha = 0.05$). A further analysis, using the Phi coefficient test, confirmed the significance of the associations between status and access to sponsorship for further studies by faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities (Phi = .422, p-value = .000). Using Cohen's (1988) criteria of effect size, Phi value of 0.422 indicates an association between medium and a large effect. More faculty than staff had sponsorship for further studies.

Similarly, Table 17 shows that 220 (75.6%) of the faculty as against 8 (12.7%) of the staff had ever been sponsored to attend conferences. About 71(24.2%) of the faculty as against 55(87.3%) of the staff had never accessed sponsorship to attend conferences.

Table 17 Sponsored for Conferences

Responses	Faculty		Staff		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	220	75.6	8	12.7	228	64.4
No	71	24.4	55	87.3	126	35.6
Total	291	100.0	63	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2 = 89.837$, p-value = .000; Phi = .502, $\alpha = 0.05$, p-value = .000

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Results from a Chi-square test conducted at the 5% alpha level to determine the significance of the pattern of sponsorship for conferences

revealed that there were associations between status and sponsorship to attend conferences ($X^2 = 89.837$, $df = 1$, $\alpha = 0.05$). Furthermore, the results from the Phi coefficient test, confirmed the significance of the associations in accessing sponsorship for attendance to conferences by faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities (Phi = .502, p-value = .000). Using Cohen’s (1988) criteria of effect size, Phi value of 0.502 gives an indication of a large effect. More faculty than staff had sponsorships to attend conferences.

Responses provided by those who had ever accessed sponsorship to attend seminars/training workshops, however, is slightly different from the first two opportunities for human capital development. As Table 18 indicates, 220(75.6%) of the faculty and 60(95.2%) of the staff had ever accessed sponsorship to attend seminars/training workshops, whilst 71(24.4%) of the faculty and 3(4.8%) of the staff had never accessed sponsorship to attend seminars/training workshops.

Table 18 Sponsored for Seminars/Training Workshops

Responses	Faculty		Staff		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	220	75.6	60	95.2	280	79.1
No	71	24.4	3	4.8	74	20.9
Total	291	100.0	63	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2 = 12.078$, p-value = .001; Phi = -.185, $\alpha = 0.05$, p-value = .001

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

The chi-square test conducted at the 5% alpha level to determine the

significance of the pattern of sponsorship for seminars/workshops show that there were slight associations between status and sponsorship to attend seminars/training workshops ($X^2 = 12.078$, $df = 1$, $\alpha = 0.05$). Results from the Phi coefficient test, confirmed that, even though the level of significance is very weak with regard to accessing sponsorship for attendance to seminars/training workshops by the faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities (Phi = -.185, p-value = .001). Using Cohen's (1988) criteria of effect size, Phi value of -0.185 indicates a negative and small effect size. Thus, even though more of the staff than the faculty had sponsorship to attend seminars/training workshops, quite a large number of the faculty also had sponsorship for seminars/training workshops.

These findings on the association between the status of respondent and the opportunities accessible for professional development is evidenced in the responses by some key informants. One of the key informants at the University of Ghana explained that:

Even though both faculty and staff play very useful roles at ensuring that our institution achieve its mandate, our focus is mostly on the faculty or the lecturers. The reason is that they play very key roles when it comes to teaching and learning whilst the administrative staff play advisory roles. It is therefore expedient to sponsor many of the lecturers to update their knowledge and skills (University of Ghana, March, 2015).

This perception prevailed in all the publicly-funded universities and was

explicit even among some of the key informants who were also professional administrators. One of such key informant at the University of Mines and Technology also made a similar comment that:

The administrative roles are very useful but in situations where there are limited resources for human capital development, we focus mostly on the lecturers to update their competencies so that they can teach well to boost our image (University of Mines and Technology, November, 2015).

However, the conditions of service for senior members of the publicly-funded universities is silent on the fact that in the midst of financial constraints the few resources must be used in developing the capacity of the faculty. Even though sometimes, donor assisted scholarships were meant for certain critical areas as expressed by a key informant at the Winneba campus of the University of Education, Winneba, that:

Some of the sponsorships are programme specific and could not be transferred to any other faculty or staff. They are meant to save some distressed departments. This is why most times the focus seem to be on the faculty than the staff. However, if resources are available, many administrative staff could equally be considered since they are also required to update their professional competence (University of Education, Winneba, April, 2015).

As the conceptual framework for this study suggests, when both faculty and staff are provided with the needed support to pursue further

studies, attend conferences and training workshops, would result in an improvement in the skills, abilities, competencies, enhanced productivity as well as boost the institutional image. According to the structural functionalists theory, providing the required support to develop the skills and abilities of faculty and staff would enable them to effectively play their functional roles for the achievement of institutional goals (Wenger, 1998).

Crook et al. (2011) for example used the human capital theory and the resource-based view theory to establish relationship between human capital development and performance of an institution. The study observed that human capital development strongly relates to performance of an institution. This finding gives an indication that, for the publicly-funded universities to develop and to remain competitive, they must invest in building the capacity of their faculty and staff.

Akyeampong (2009), however, explained that funding provided by the government to the publicly-funded universities for human capital development is inadequate to support many faculty and staff to pursue further studies. Those sponsored sometimes experience delays in the release of funds for payment of their fees. Similarly, Quartey (2009) indicated that, the challenge of inadequate funding for human capital development in the publicly-funded universities, may have resulted from the government's inability to provide the required funds for the institutions. It may also be as a result of the universities' inability to generate enough funds internally.

Summary of the Findings on Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies

The strategies for developing human capital were defined in terms of the documentation, accessibility and ability to create opportunities for faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities to update their knowledge and skills for the accomplishment of the institutional objectives. With respect to the presence of human capital development strategies, all the respondents indicated the presence of such strategies in their respective institutions. However, with regard to documentation of the human capital development strategies in a single document for reference, it was clear from the analysis that 198 of the respondents indicated that the strategies were properly documented, as against 156 of the respondents who indicated that they were not sure the strategies were properly documented, rather, they were documented in sections of various documents such as the scheme of service, conditions of service, and the university statutes among others.

The main opportunities that were identified as having resulted from the human capital development strategies included sponsorship for further studies, conferences, seminars/in-service training workshops. These opportunities exist in all the publicly-funded universities and were believed could help develop capacity of the faculty and staff to meet their institutional mandates. All the respondents indicated that they had ever accessed some of the opportunities. However, 218 had ever accessed sponsorship for further studies, 228 had accessed sponsorship for conferences, whilst majority 280 of them had been sponsored for

seminars/in-service training workshops.

Procedures in accessing any of the opportunities, according to the respondents, required an initiative from the faculty or staff, and to make the detailed enquires about the programme of intent, and then inform management of the university with the needed details. With regard to accessibility of the opportunities provided by the human capital development strategies, 232 of the respondents were of the view that they were easily accessible. However, 122 of the respondents believed that it was difficult accessing the opportunities.

Furtherance to the accessibility of the human capital development opportunities to faculty and staff, it came out clearly that 71.1 percent of the faculty as against 17.5 percent of staff had ever been sponsored for further studies. Similarly, 75.6 percent of faculty as against 12.7 percent of staff had ever been sponsored to attend conferences. Accessibility to the opportunity for seminars/training workshops however, the result indicates that majority (95.2%) of the staff as against a relatively large number (75.6%) of the faculty had ever been sponsored for seminars/training workshops. The findings therefore revealed that there is a significant difference in one's status as a faculty or staff and access to the opportunities for human capital development in the publicly-funded universities.

CHAPTER SIX

ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Introduction

This chapter dwells on the associations between the organisational factors and implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities. Organisational factors are believed to have the capability to influence implementation initiatives (Alashloo, Castka & Sharp, 2005). According to Lipsky (2010) implementation of any strategy can be severely undermined by organisational factors such as: a lack of sufficient resources; a lack of competent staff; the presence of negative disposition among implementers; a lack of communication within an organisation; and a lack of professional and technical resources (Meter & Horn, 1975; Bridgeman & Davis, 1977).

Mankoe (2006) points out that organisational factors in policy implementation, are variables that have the capability to determine the performance of a policy within a particular jurisdiction and, therefore, should not be overlooked by implementers. This study focused on four main organisational factors namely: top management support; allocation of resources; dispositions of the implementers; and interdepartmental communication. These factors are believed to be vital in the successful implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana. As established by the conceptual framework, the organisational factors play very useful role in strategy implementation.

Relationship Between Organisational Factors and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies

The associations between the organisational factors and the implementation of the human capital development strategies was analysed using the chi-square test. Respondents were first asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed to the fact that management’s decisions on the implementation of the human capital development strategies were influenced by four major organisational factors.

Table 19: Extent of Agreement that Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies is Influenced by Organisational Factors

Organisational factors	Responses						Total	
	Disagree No.	Disagree %	Not sure No.	Not sure %	Agree No.	Agree %	No.	%
Top management’s support	58	16.4	28	7.9	268	75.7	354	100.0
Allocation of resources	61	17.2	16	4.5	227	78.2	354	100.0
Dispositions of implementers	155	43.8	70	19.8	129	36.4	354	100.0
Departmental communication	60	16.9	98	27.7	196	55.4	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

As depicted in Table 19, the majority (78.2%) of the respondents agreed to the fact that there is an association between allocation of resources and the implementation of the human capital strategy. Similarly, 75.7 percent of the respondents indicated that there is an association between top

management support and implementation process of the human capital development strategies. Also 55.4 percent of the respondents agreed on the association between inter-departmental communication and strategy implementation, whilst only 36.4 percent of the respondents agreed that there is an association between the dispositions of implementers and implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities.

The responses were stratified by institution to determine the extent to which respondents from each university perceived the associations between the organisational factors and the implementation of the human capital development strategies. It is worth noting that despite the differences in the mandates of the publicly-funded universities, there are similarities in the pattern of responses on the associations between the organisational factors and implementation of the human capital development strategies.

With respect to top management support, Table 20 shows that, among the 268 respondents who agreed that there is an association between top management support and strategy implementation, 78(29.1%) of them were from UG, 63(23.3%) were respondents from KNUST, 43(16.0%) were from UEW, 40(14.9%) from UCC, whilst 35(13.1%) and 9(3.4%) were from UDS and UMaT respectively. Thus, majority of respondents from all the publicly-funded universities agreed that there is association between top management support and implementation of the human capital development strategies.

Table 20 Institutional Response on the Association Between Top Management Support and Human Capital Strategy Implementation

Institution	Disagree		Not sure		Agree		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	19	32.9	9	32.1	78	29.1	106	29.9
KNUST	9	15.5	6	24.1	63	23.5	78	22.0
UCC	14	24.1	6	24.1	40	14.9	60	16.9
UEW	9	15.5	1	3.6	43	16.0	53	15.0
UDS	6	10.3	5	17.9	35	13.1	46	13.0
UMaT	1	1.7	1	3.6	9	3.4	11	3.1
Total	58	100.0	28	100.0	268	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Table 21 shows the variations in institutional responses with regard to association between resource allocation and human capital development strategy implementation. Majority 81(29.2%) of the respondents who indicated that resource allocation has association with human capital development strategy implementation were from UG. Those from KNUST constituted 61(22.0%) and the least, 7(2.5%) were from UMaT. Similarly, majority 20(32.8%) of the respondents who disagreed to the fact that there is an association between resource allocation and human capital development strategy implementation were from UG, followed by 16(26.2%) from KNUST and the least 4(6.6%) from UMaT.

Table 21 Institutional Response on the Association Between Resource Allocation and Human Capital Strategy Implementation

Institution	Disagree		Not sure		Agree		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	20	32.8	5	32.1	81	29.2	106	29.9
KNUST	16	26.2	1	6.2	61	22.0	78	22.0
UCC	10	16.4	3	18.8	47	17.0	60	16.9
UEW	6	9.8	6	37.5	41	14.8	53	15.0
UDS	5	8.2	1	6.2	40	14.4	46	13.0
UMaT	4	6.6	0	0.0	7	2.5	11	3.1
Total	61	100.0	16	100.0	277	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Responses in connection with association between the dispositions of the implementing department and human capital development strategy implementation as shown in Table 22, were indicative of the fact that 155 out of 354 respondents disagreed to the statement that there is an association between dispositions of the implementing department and human capital development strategy implementation.

Among the 155 respondents who disagreed that there was an association between the two variables, majority 44 (28.4%) were from UG whilst the least 4(2.6%) were from UMaT. Likewise, among the 129 respondents who agreed to the fact that there was an association between dispositions of the implementing department and human capital development strategy implementation, 42(32.6%) were from UG, 27(20.9%) from KNUST and the least 5(3.9%) from UMaT.

Table 22 Institutional Response on the Association Between Dispositions of the Implementing Department and Human Capital Strategy Implementation

Institution	Responses						Total	
	Disagree		Not sure		Agree			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	44	28.4	20	28.6	42	32.6	106	29.9
KNUST	34	21.9	17	23.4	27	20.9	78	22.0
UCC	29	18.7	6	8.6	25	19.4	60	16.9
UEW	26	16.8	18	25.7	9	7.0	53	15.0
UDS	18	11.6	7	10.0	21	16.3	46	13.0
UMaT	4	2.6	2	2.9	5	3.9	11	3.1
Total	155	100.0	70	100.0	129	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Similar to the responses provided for the association between top managements' support and human capital development strategy implementation, responses to the association between inter-departmental communication and human capital development strategy implementation seem to be evenly distributed among the various institutions.

Table 23 shows that 49(25.0%) of respondents who agreed that there is an association between inter-departmental communication and human capital development strategy implementation were from UG, 47(24.0%) from KNUST, 33(16.8%) from UDS and an equal number 31(15.8%) of the respondents in that category were from UCC and UEW.

Table 23 Institutional Response on the Association Between Inter-Departmental Communications and Human Capital Strategy Implementation

Institution	Responses						Total	
	Disagree		Not sure		Agree		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	33	55.0	24	24.5	49	25.0	106	29.9
KNUST	8	13.3	23	23.5	47	24.0	78	22.0
UCC	9	15.0	20	20.4	31	15.8	60	16.9
UEW	6	10.0	16	16.3	31	15.8	53	15.0
UDS	1	1.7	12	12.2	33	16.8	46	13.0
UMaT	3	5.0	3	3.1	5	2.6	11	3.1
Total	60	100.0	98	100.0	196	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Also among the 60 respondents who did not agree to the fact that there is an association between interdepartmental communication and implementation of the human capital development strategies, 33(55.0%) were from UG, 9(15.0%) from UCC, and 8(13.3%) from KNUST. The 98 respondents who were not sure of any association between the two variables also constituted quite a large number with 24 (24.5%) from UG, 23(23.5%) from KNUST, 20(20.4%) from UCC and the least 3(3.1%) were from UMaT.

The variations in the responses provided by the respondents to the association between the organisational factors and human capital development strategy implementation give indication of the extent to which the organisational factors are prevalent in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana.

The conceptual framework for this study shows that the organisational factors have some level of association with the implementation of the human capital development strategies. In order to achieve a successful strategy implementation organisational factors that have the potential of influencing the implementation process must be checked. The organisational factors as indicated in the conceptual framework could facilitate the implementation processes when they are well managed. Thus, organisational factors, if they are well managed by institutions could impact positively on their human capital development efforts.

According to the human capital theory, education and training prepare individuals to be innovative and productive and, therefore, organisations must invest in their employees by providing the needed support and resources so that they can contribute meaningfully to the achievement of the organisational goals (Adelakum, 2011). As the structural functionalist theory also notes, human capital is accumulated through initial education, further education and work experience, which are useful for production of goods, services and other knowledge (Lenka, 2012). Investment in human capital development through the provision of adequate resources coupled with good dispositions of implementers and effective communication of information, according to Parsons (1961), will enable the beneficiaries to play their functional roles effectively for the institutions to fulfil the functional needs of society.

The study further focused on the association between each of the

organisational factors and the implementation of the human capital development strategies. To determine the association between top management support and the implementation of the human capital development strategies, respondents were asked to indicate the level of influence of top management support on implementation of the human capital development strategies.

Table 24: Relationship Between Top Management Support and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies

Adherence to Strategies	Influence of top management's support			Total
	No influence	Very little influence	Much influence	
Yes	50(86.2)	2(7.1)	164(61.2)	216(61.0)
No	5(8.6)	9(32.1)	63(23.5)	77(21.8)
Don't know	3(5.2)	17(60.8)	41(15.3)	61(17.2)
Total	58(100.0)	28(100.0)	268(100.0)	354(100.0)

$X^2 = 61.918$, p-value = .000; $\Phi = .418$, $\alpha = 0.05$, p-value = .000; Cramer's

$V = .296$; p-value = .000

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Table 24 shows that 268 respondents indicated that top managements' support has much association with the implementation of the human capital development strategies whilst 58 and 28 of the respondents indicated that top management support has no association and very little

association respectively, with implementation of the human capital development strategies. Table 24 shows further that, out of the 268 respondents who indicated that top management support has much association with implementation of the human capital development strategies, 168(61.2%) of them also pointed out that the universities adhered to the procedures in implementation of the human capital development strategies whilst 63(23.5%) were of the view that the universities do not adhere to the procedures and 41(15.3%) did not know whether the universities adhered to the procedures governing implementation of the human capital development strategies.

To determine the significance of the association between top management support and implementation of the human capital development strategies, a Chi-square test was conducted at the 5% alpha level. The test results show that there is a significant and positive association between top managements support and implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff in the publicly-funded universities ($\chi^2 = 61.918$, $df = 4$, $\alpha = 0.05$). A further analysis, using the Cramer's V, confirmed the significance of the association between top management support and implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities (Cramer's $V = .296$; $\alpha = 0.05$ p-value = .000). Using Cohen's (1988) criteria on effect size, Cramer's V of 0.296 shows an effect size of between medium and large effects. There is a significant association between top managements' support and the implementation of the human capital development

strategies.

This finding is indicative of the fact that top management support is very essential in successful strategy implementation (Gebhardt et al., 2006). Top management support, according to Cole et al. (2006), usually provides a clear rationale for transformation and success of an organisation. According to Rodriguez et al. (2008) top managers provide teams with encouragement and the needed assistance as well as help to overcome challenges. As Camelo et al. (2011) note, top management support is important in promoting strategy innovation through the process of influence. Mazmanian and Sabaitier (1981) also expatiate on the useful contributions of top management support by stating that they create the support atmosphere in the organisation.

The findings corroborates that of Oruma et al. (2014) where top management support was found to have a significant relationship with implementation of human capital development strategies. It also correspond with the results of Boidoun (2003) which discovered that support by top management resulted in very successful implementation of human resource policies. The findings further agree with that of Baharom (2008) which revealed that top management support has a significant relationship with implementation of human capital development policies in Malaysian public universities. The results also confirm findings by Mango (2014) that there is a very strong association between top management support and successful strategy implementation in selected public schools in South Africa.

Correspondingly, the Knowledge-based view theory also expatiates

that strategic plans of an institution means nothing if its employees lack access to appropriate relevant knowledge, skills, and attitudes to successfully carry out the strategic plan (Seshadri, 2010). Since people are the core driver of successful strategy implementation, it is vital for those, especially top management and executive teams, who plan and formulate strategy to realise that having their employees armed with appropriate knowledge and skills is a key element for successful strategy implementation (Sum, 2011).

The significance of the influence of top managements' support in the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities was evidenced in the response provided by some of the key informants. A key informant at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology expressed his view on the contributions of top management in strategy implementation that:

Top management support is very key to successful implementation of strategies, especially those that relate to the subject we are discussing. In our university, and I believe it is the same in many other universities, no consensus could be arrived at without the support of top management. In this university, before any faculty or staff is considered for sponsorship, top management must approve of it (Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, March, 2015).

This view is in line with the organisational structure of the publicly-funded

universities. Though there are differences in their structures, the top management play very important roles at safeguarding the success of the organisation. This was also evidenced in the statement by another key informant at the University of Ghana that:

Top managements' support is very necessary especially, on issues related to human capital development. Sponsorships for further studies must be approved by the top management. It, therefore, has much influence on the implementation of the human capital development strategies (University of Ghana., April, 2015).

This statement by a key informant is in line with that of Gebhardt et al. (2006) when they pointed out that top management support is important to begin and to direct the process of strategy implementation for enhanced productivity, leading to organisational change. According to the authors, organisational change creates uncertainty, and top management, as a key agent of organisational change, must offer clear rationale for the transformation and success of the organisation. It is worth noting at this point that the fundamental processes of strategy implementation, that helps to create lasting organisational change, flow downward from the actions of top managers. According to Moore, Konrad and Hunt (2010), the significant role of the top managers is required for the success of every organisation. This view is similar to what a key informant at the Tamale campus of the University for Development Studies expressed, that:

I strongly believe that top management has a major influence

on the implementation of the human capital development strategies. Not only that, but all the human resource policies as well (University for Development Studies, December, 2015).

Thus, top management give strategic direction towards the achievement of the institutional objectives and is therefore the foundation upon which the organisations could survive. As the conceptual framework shows, top management support is one of the major organisational factors that mediates all the other segments of the implementation process. Therefore, implementation of the human capital development strategies cannot be successful without the intervention or support of the top management.

Besides the association between top management support and implementation of the human capital development strategies, the study also determined the association between resource allocation and the implementation of the human capital development strategies. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which resource allocation influenced the implementation of the human capital development strategies. Table 25 depicts that 277 respondents were of the view that the allocation of resources has much association with implementation of the human capital development strategies. Only 61 respondents indicated that the allocation of resources has no association with implementation, whilst 16 of them indicated that the allocation of resources has very little association with implementation of the human capital development strategies.

Among the respondents who indicated that resource allocation has

much association with implementation of the human capital development strategies, 166(59.9%) of them were of the view that the universities adhered to the procedures governing implementation of the human capital development strategies whilst 59(21.3%) pointed out that the universities do not adhere to the procedures and 52(18.8%) did not know whether the universities adhered to the procedures governing implementation of the human capital development strategies.

Table 25: Relationship Between Allocation of Resources and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies

Adherence to Strategies	Influence of allocation of resources			Total
	No influence	Very little influence	Much influence	
Yes	45(73.7)	5(31.2)	166(59.9)	216(61.0)
No	12(19.7)	6(37.6)	59(21.3)	77(21.8)
Don't know	4(6.6)	5(31.2)	52(18.8)	61(17.2)
Total	61(100.0)	16(100.0)	277(100.0)	354(100.0)

$\chi^2 = 12.215$, p-value = .016; Phi = .186, $\alpha = 0.05$, p-value = .016; Cramer's

V = .131; p-value = .016

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

The results from a Chi-square test, conducted at the 5% alpha level show that there is a significant association between the allocation of resources and the implementation of the human capital development

strategies for faculty and staff, in the publicly-funded universities ($X^2 = 12.215$, $df = 4$, $\alpha = 0.05$,). A further analysis, using the Cramer's V, confirmed the significance of the association between the allocation of resources and the implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities (Cramer's $V = .131$; $\alpha = 0.05$ p -value = .016). It can thus be concluded that the allocation of resources has a significant association with implementation of the human capital development strategies. However, with the Cramer's $V = .131$, Cohen's criteria on effect size indicates between small and medium effects.

The findings are also supported by some of the responses from the key informant's interview. A key informant at the University of Education, Winneba, expressed the readiness of the university to sponsor many faculty and staff for terminal degrees but were constrained by limited resources. The key informant explained that:

Resource allocation is a very important component for successful strategy implementation. As it stands now this institution is not able to sponsor all faculty and staff who want to pursue various programmes of study, due to inadequate financial and other resources (April, 2015).

A key informant at the University of Cape Coast also explained that:

If resources were in abundance or readily available, provision could be made for many faculty as well as staff to pursue terminal degrees to enhance their work. The institution does

not have much funds to sponsor every faculty and staff who applies for sponsorship to pursue further studies or to attend conference (University of Cape Coast, May, 2015).

Review of the various documents guiding the implementation of human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities give a clear indication of the efforts publicly-funded universities have been making over the years to augment the capacities of their employees. The frantic efforts at human capital development by the universities is evidenced by the incorporation of the projections on human capital development in their corporate strategic plans. Objective 6.0 of the corporate strategic plan (2014-2018) of the University of Education, Winneba for example, aims at reviewing and implementing the staff development policy of the University. Likewise objective 3 of the corporate strategy (2012-2017) of the University of Cape Coast, also stipulates to recruit, select, develop and retain high calibre and motivated teaching and non-teaching staff (University of Education, Winneba, 2014; University of Cape Coast, 2012).

The findings also confirm statement by Mankoe (2006) that, resources of any kind are very important and they have a significant association with policy implementation. Ali (2006) also notes that the allocation of resources had a significant effect in realizing the implementation of policy targets in Pakistan. This also confirms the findings of Mango (2014) that resource allocation has a considerable impact on strategy implementation in selected public schools in South Africa. Tsendjav (2011) also found that resource allocation has a significant impact

on the implementation of medium-term civil service reform policy of the Mongolian government.

According to the human capital theory, investment in the knowledge and skill of employees will enhance their capacities to work effectively to enhance productivity (Marimuthu et al., 2009). Ukenna et al. (2010) for example, in a study based on the human capital theory and the resource-based theory found that human capital investment through training and skills are stronger predictors of human capital effectiveness. Thus, provision of resources for the development of human capital will lead to human capital effectiveness.

Resources of any kind play very useful role in the implementation of human capital development strategies. No strategy implementation can be successful without the allocation of resources needed for the successful implementation of the strategy. As can be seen in the conceptual framework, resource allocation is among the organisational factors that must be given considerable attention for successful strategy implementation. Institutions such as the publicly-funded universities stand to gain competitive advantage if they are able to optimise their resource endowments and deployments within the institution (Bohnenkamp, 2013) .

With regard to the association of the dispositions of the implementing departments with implementation of the human capital development strategies, the results in Table 26 show that 155 of the respondents were of the view that the implementers' dispositions have no association with implementation of the human capital development

strategies for faculty and staff, whilst 129 and 70 of the respondents indicated that implementers' dispositions had much association and very little association respectively with implementation of the human capital development strategies.

Table 26: Relationship Between the Dispositions of Implementing Departments and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies

Adherence to Strategies	Influence of the implementers dispositions			Total
	No influence	Very little influence	Much influence	
Yes	91(58.7)	42(60.0)	83(64.3)	216(61.0)
No	39(25.2)	13(18.6)	25(19.4)	77(21.8)
Don't know	25(16.1)	15(21.4)	21(16.3)	61(17.2)
Total	155(100.0)	70(100.0)	129(100.0)	354(100)

$X^2 = 2.761$, p-value = .599; Phi = .088, $\alpha = 0.05$, p-value = .599; Cramer's

V = .062; p-value = .599

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Among the respondents who indicated that dispositions of implementing departments have no association with implementation of the human capital development strategies, 91(58.7%) pointed out that the universities adhered to the processes guiding implementation of the human capital development strategies whilst 39(25.2%) respondents indicated that

the universities do not adhere to the processes and 25(16.1%) of the respondents did not know if the universities adhered to the processes involved in implementing the human capital development strategies.

The results from a Chi-square test conducted at the 5% alpha level showed that there was no significant association between the dispositions of the implementing departments and the implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff, in the publicly-funded universities ($X^2 = 2.761$, $df = p\text{-value} = .599$).

The findings can also be inferred from response of a key informant at the University of Cape Coast:

The disposition of the implementing departments, although very important, the administrative structures of the publicly-funded universities are such that the implementing departments have to work based on decisions from various committees and therefore have very little influence on the implementation processes (University of Cape Coast, May, 2015).

Similarly, a key informant from the University of Mines and Technology also explained that:

To a very little extent, implementers' dispositions may have some influence. however I haven't seen an instance in this institution where top management had given its approval for the implementation of a human resource policy and the implementing departments have refused to take the needed action. The extent those departments could go is to provide

expert advice (University of Mines and Technology, November, 2015).

The findings are in line with the outcome of the cross-sectional study conducted by Baharom (2008). The author obtained data from 70 university administrators through a self-reporting questionnaire and used descriptive statistics involving frequencies and correlation coefficient to determine the relationships between the organisational factors and policy implementation. The analyses revealed that the dispositions of implementers do not have a significant impact on policy implementation.

Tsendjav (2011), however, in a case study to determine factors affecting strategy implementation effectiveness found that implementers dispositions had the third highest effect on policy implementation. According to Tsendjav, even though implementers dispositions could have effect on strategy implementation, other organisational factors may have much greater effect than the dispositions of implementers. As shown in conceptual framework, the dispositions of implementers can to some extent have effect on successful strategy implementation and therefore should not be overlooked by the publicly-funded universities.

According to Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983), if implementers agree with the content of a policy, they will happily implement it. On the other hand, if their perspective is different from that of the policy maker, then problems would be experienced in the implementation process. Meter and Horn (1974) also note that an attitude of acceptance or rejection on the part of the implementing agent has a substantial influence on success or failure

in strategy implementation. Even though the findings indicates that there is there is no significant relationship between implementers disposition and strategy implementation, Zetter (2005) is of the view that the intensity of the implementer's disposition can affect the achievement capability of a strategy. Publicly-funded universities therefore, should not underrate the effect of dispositions of implementers on the successful implementation of their human capital development strategies.

Finally, the relationship between interdepartmental communication and implementation of the human capital development strategies was analysed. The results in Table 27 show that 196 of the respondents were of the view that interdepartmental communication has much association with implementation, whilst 98 and 60 of the respondents indicated that inter-departmental communication has very little association and no association respectively with human capital development strategy implementation.

The results from a Chi-square test conducted at 5% alpha level showed a positive but weak association between inter-departmental communication and implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities ($X^2 = 5.261$, $df = 4$, $\alpha = 0.05$). A Further analysis, using the Cramer's V, confirmed the association between inter-departmental communication and implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana (Cramer's $V = .086$; $\alpha = 0.05$ p-value = .262). Using Cohen's criteria for determining effect size, Cramer's $V = .086$ shows that interdepartmental communication has a small

effect on implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana.

Table 27: Relationship Between Inter-Departmental Communications and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies

Adherence to Strategies	Influence of inter-departmental communication			Total
	No influence	Very little influence	Much influence	
Yes	40(66.6)	53(54.1)	123(62.7)	216(61.0)
No	10(16.7)	22(22.4)	45(23.0)	77(21.8)
Don't know	10(16.7)	23(23.5)	28(14.3)	61(17.2)
Total	60(100.0)	98(100.0)	196(100.0)	354(100.0)

$X^2 = 5.261$, p-value = .262; Phi = .122, $\alpha = 0.05$, p-value = .262; Cramer's V = .086; p-value = .262

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

The key informants also acknowledged the fact that inter-departmental communication is very useful in the university's structure, but its effect on implementation of the human capital development strategies is not very significant. This is proven from what a key informant at the Winneba campus of the University of Education, Winneba said:

Inter-departmental communication is very useful in the university setup for the flow of information. That, however,

may not have very significant influence on the implementation of the human capital development strategies (University of Education, Winneba, April, 2015).

A key informant at the University of Cape Coast however, expressed the importance of inter-departmental communication in a statement that:

Inter-departmental communication is key to the success of strategy implementation. I am saying this because no strategy implementation can succeed without effective communication among the various departments, units, and sections. Even the strategies themselves must be communicated throughout the institutions to ensure implementation success (University of Cape Coast, May, 2015).

The conceptual framework of the study also presents linkages across all segments of the implementation process. These linkages translate into communication across the entire network for a successful implementation. The human capital development strategies must be effectively communicated to enable the faculty and staff access the opportunities inherent in the strategies such that, with the support by the top management and the allocation of the needed resources, faculty and staff could enhance their knowledge and skills to pursue their tasks for the achievement of organisational goals.

This finding however, is contrary to what many theorists of policy implementation have established, that, inter-departmental communication is a determinant for implementation. O'Toole (1997), for example,

discussed the need to work to strengthen the inter-departmental linkages and communication for successful policy implementation. Also, in their model of policy implementation Van Meter and Van Horn (1975) identified organisational communication and information sharing as key components for decisions and directives to be transmitted for the benefit of strategy implementers. According to the structural functionalists theory, individuals and groups within an institution are active agents and therefore effective communication among the various segments of in the institution can foster its growth and development (Seddon, 2001).

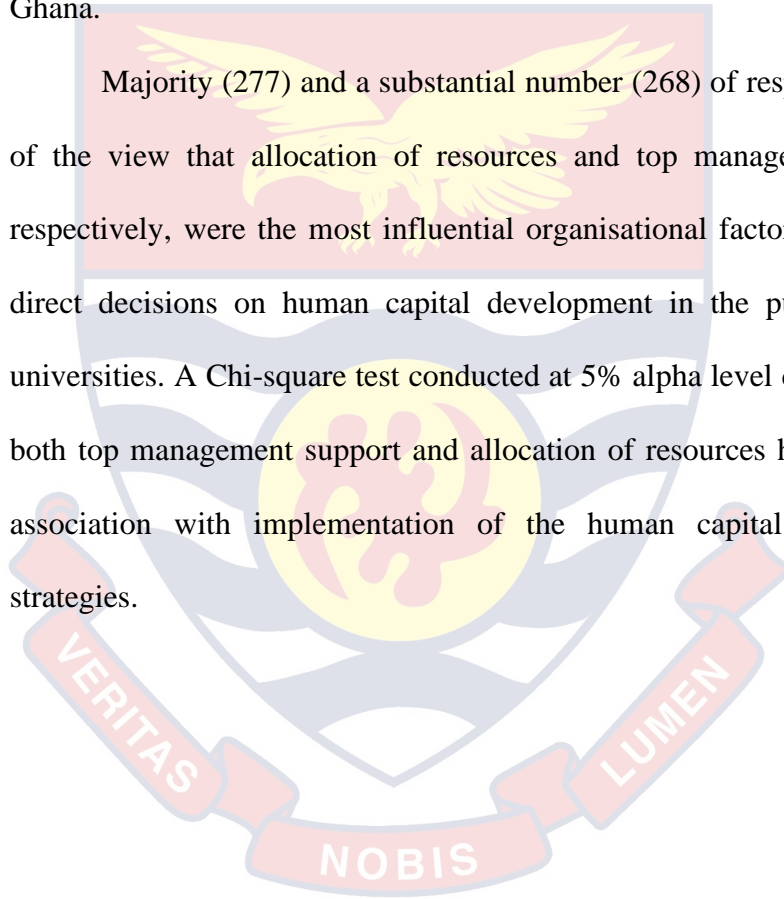
Gondal and Shahbaz (2012) for example, in a cross-sectional survey examined the relationship between interdepartmental communication and organisational performance in strategy implementation. The authors used the linear regression model to establish that inter-departmental communication influences organisational performance in strategy implementation. This finding also attests to the fact that interdepartmental communication is very important in strategy implementation and therefore publicly-funded universities should ensure that effective communication exists within and among departments of the institution.

Summary of Findings on Organisational Factors and Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies

This chapter discussed the associations among the organisational factors and the implementation of the human capital development strategies. These associations were discussed in the context of the conceptual

framework, the human capital theory, resource-based theory, and the structural functionalist theory. Four main organisational factors namely: top management support, allocation of resources, the dispositions of implementing departments, and inter departmental communication were believed to be the major factors that influence the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana.

Majority (277) and a substantial number (268) of respondents were of the view that allocation of resources and top management support respectively, were the most influential organisational factors that usually direct decisions on human capital development in the publicly-funded universities. A Chi-square test conducted at 5% alpha level confirmed that both top management support and allocation of resources had significant association with implementation of the human capital development strategies.



CHAPTER SEVEN
ENHANCEMENTS AND CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH
THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE HUMAN CAPITAL
DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion on the level of enhancement and challenges associated with the implementation of the human capital development strategies. Implementation of the human capital development strategies as depicted by the conceptual is supposed to enhance the knowledge, skills and abilities of the faculty and staff in the publicly-funded universities. Besides the organisational factors, there are challenges strategy implementers are mostly faced with and that lead them to take certain decisions that may affect people within the organisation (Alexander, 1985).

The challenges, in this context, refer to the problems that are directly associated with the mode of implementing the human capital development strategies. Hrebiniak (2005), for example, identified the organisational power structure as one of the challenges that usually influences the allocation of all kinds of resources necessary for a successful strategy implementation. Gurkov (2009) also argued that, well prepared strategies die if the implementers fail to confront difficult challenges that confront the implementation processes.

The conceptual framework of this study clearly shows forward and backward linkages among the various indicators for a successful strategy

implementation. Any inhibiting factor at one section of the framework may result in implementation failure. Friedman (2003), for example, notes that implementation of most strategies fail because they were poorly conceived and also because there were numerous circumstances beyond the scope of the specific remedy.

This section begins with the examination of the adherence to the modalities guiding the implementation of the human capital development strategies and then focus on the levels of improvement in knowledge and skills of respondents as a result of the human capital development opportunity they ever accessed. The section further examines the factors that most often inhibit the publicly-funded universities and their employees from achieving the desired objectives of their human capital development strategies.

Adherence to the Modalities Guiding Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies

Some factors constrain implementers of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities to take certain decisions in the process of implementation. To begin with, respondents were asked if management of their institutions adhered to the tenets of their human capital development strategies in the process of implementation.

As depicted in Figure 5, most 216(61.0%) of the respondents were of the view that management of their institutions adhered strictly to the policies whenever any decision related to human capital development was

taken. This finding is indicative of the fact that publicly-funded universities, as knowledge producing institutions are conscious of the need to develop their human capital to enable them function as expected. From the conceptual framework, if management of the publicly-funded institutions adhere strictly to the procedures governing the implementation of the human capital development strategies, as explained by Sharabati and Nour (2013), in a study where they investigated the impact of human capital on university's performance, the human capital of most employees in the universities would be enhanced and that could boost the institution's performance inters of productivity and also enhance the image of the organisation.

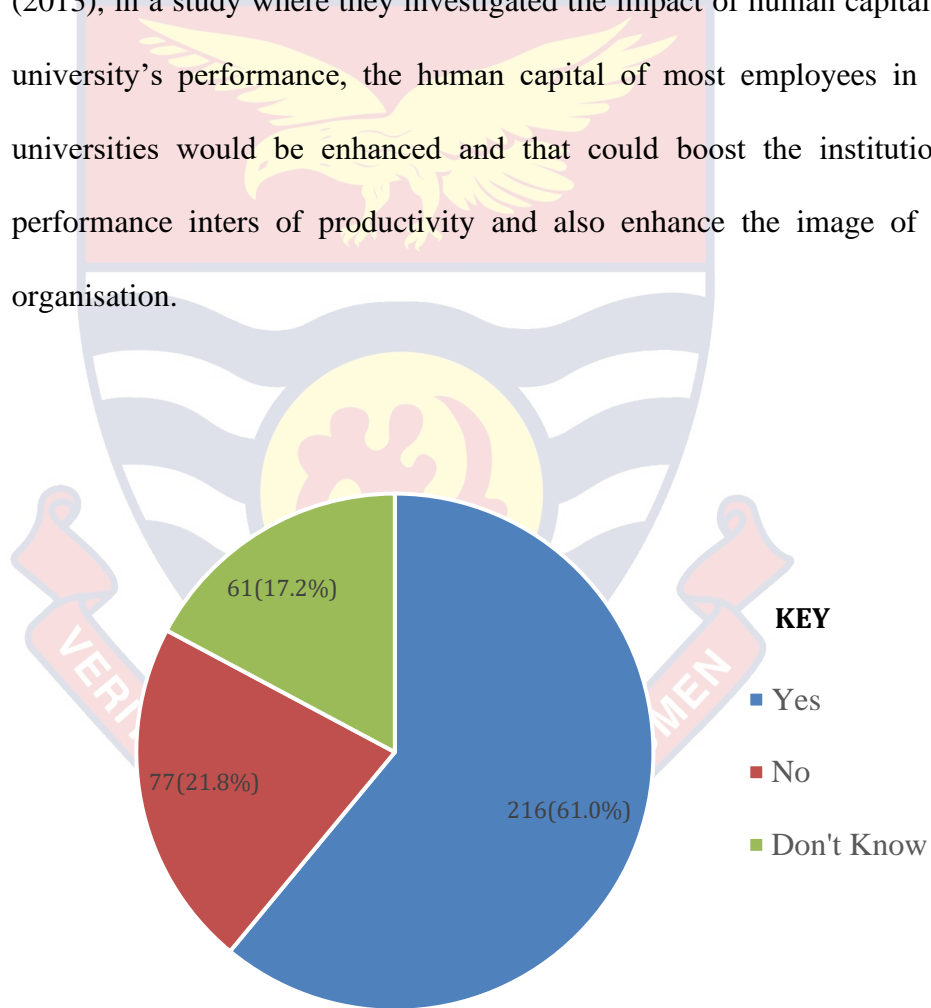


Figure 5: Adherence to the Modalities for Human Capital Development

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

About 77(21.8%) of the respondents thought otherwise, whilst 61(17.2%) did not know the basis upon which decisions on human capital development were made. Even though majority (61.0%) of the respondents were of the view that management adhered strictly to the policy guidelines aimed at developing human capital, quite a sizable number (21.8%) of the respondents indicated that management of their institutions did not adhere to the guidelines for human capital development policies and explained that the mode of selection for sponsorships were not based on merit.

Adherence to modalities for the implementation of human capital development strategies is very important because it is through adherence that implementation processes could be classified as being successful. The data, therefore, was disaggregated further by institution, the number of years respondent had served in the institution, rank of respondent and sex of respondent. This was done in order to determine the pattern of the responses among the selected institutions and also to provide further details as to whether the responses were influenced by any of those variables.

Table 28 contains the breakdown of the responses by the selected institution. The distribution of the responses by the institution of the respondent depicts that, 34.3 percent of the respondents at the University of Ghana indicated that their institution adhered to the modalities, as against 24.5 percent from the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, 16.7 percent from the University of Cape Coast, 14.8 percent from the University of Education, Winneba, and the least (3.7 %) from the University of Mines and Technology. As the conceptual framework

represents, successful strategy implementation depends mostly on the commitment of the management of the institution. According to Goggin Bowman, Lester and Otoole (1990), lack of official commitment to statutory objectives could impact negatively on strategy implementation.

Table 28: Adherence to the Modalities by Institution

Institution	Yes		No		Don't Know		Total	
	no	%	no	%	no	%	no	%
UG	74	34.3	15	19.5	17	27.9	106	29.9
KNUST	53	24.5	13	16.9	12	19.7	78	22.1
UCC	36	16.7	17	22.1	7	11.5	60	16.9
UEW	32	14.8	12	15.6	9	14.8	53	15.0
UDS	13	6.0	18	23.4	15	24.6	46	13.0
UMaT	8	3.7	2	2.6	1	1.6	11	3.1
Total	216	100.0	77	100.0	61	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

The findings give an indication that the publicly-funded universities, to a large extent adhered to the modalities governing the implementation of implementation of the human capital development strategies. This is corroborated by responses provided by the key informants. A key informant at the University of Mines and Technology for example, stated that:

Management of this university adhere strictly to the modalities in place for faculty and staff to access

opportunities for their professional development. Once a faculty or staff is able to go through the required processes and is recommended for sponsorship, provision is made to facilitate the individual's participation or enrolment on the programme. We believe that building the capacity of our faculty and staff will equip them to fulfil our mandate (University of Mines and Technology, November, 2015).

This findings corroborates tenets of the resource-based view theory, and as noted by Lopez, et al. (2006) that, people are the repository of knowledge and skills and are therefore, the most valuable and necessary asset for any organisation to compete and generate competitive advantage. Providing opportunity for faculty and staff to build their capacity on the job will be of greater benefit to the institution.

As the conceptual framework depicts, if management of the publicly-funded universities adhere to the modalities and provide faculty and staff with the needed support for further education, would enhance their skills, abilities, competencies required for enhance productivity and the image of the organisation. This is also in line with statement by Blass (2005) that, organisational improvement require individual insight and learning to be captured within organisational structures, procedures and routines. This, according to Kalu (2011), implies that capacity-building strategies depend upon total commitment of managers of the process and a distinctive work organisation that supports learning, appropriate infrastructure, oriented to investment in learning, and a moral purpose, committed to making a

difference through learning. Therefore, adherence to the structures and procedures governing the implementation of the human capital development strategies is very necessary to achieve its objective.

Table 29: Adherence to the Modalities by Number of Years with the Institution

Adhere to modalities	4-5 years		6-7 years		8-9 years		10 years & above		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	2	22.2	17	38.6	100	64.9	97	66.0	216	61.0
No	2	22.2	11	25.0	31	20.1	33	22.4	77	21.8
Don't Know	5	55.6	16	36.4	23	14.9	17	11.6	61	17.2
Total	9	100.0	44	100.0	154	100.0	147	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Table 29 also depicts that 66.0 percent of faculty and staff who have served ten years and above in their respective institutions indicated that their institutions adhered to the procedures governing the implementation of the human capital development strategies. Also 64.9 percent of the faculty and staff who had served in their institutions for eight to nine years indicated that their institutions adhered to the procedures governing the implementation of the human capital development strategies. Adherence to the tenets of strategy implementation is very important because it would accord many faculty and staff to access the opportunities provided by the human capital development strategies for their professional development and for the organisational development. As Becker (1993) note, education and training on the job, as explained by the human capital theory, afford the

employees the opportunity to acquire new skills which, when brought to bear on the institution, results in enhanced performance, leading to increased productivity, innovation, and quality service.

The findings, based on the rank of the respondents as shown in Table 30 also give an indication that the senior lecturers/senior assistant registrars 97(65.1%) and the professors/deputy registrars 20(64.5%) were of the view that management of their institutions adhered to the procedures governing the implementation of the human capital development strategies.

Table 30: Rank of Respondent and Adherence to the Modalities

Adherence	Lecturer/ Assistant Registrar		Senior Lecturer/ Senior Assistant Registrar		Professor/ Deputy Registrar		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	99	56.9	97	65.1	20	64.5	216	61.0
No	35	20.1	35	23.5	7	22.6	77	21.8
Don't know	40	23.0	17	11.4	4	12.9	61	17.2
Total	174	100.0	149	100.0	31	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Whilst, 99(56.9%) of the lecturers/assistant registrars were of the view that management adhered to the procedures governing implementation of the human capital development strategies. Adherence to the human capital development procedures, therefore, could go a long way to help both the

institution and the individuals involved. As Schultz (1971) notes, human capital development through education and training would enable the individual to become productive and help to enhance the image of the organisation.

As indicated in Figure 6, both the female 47(63.5%) and male 169(60.4%) respondents were of the view that management of their institutions adhered to the procedures governing the implementation of the human capital development strategies.

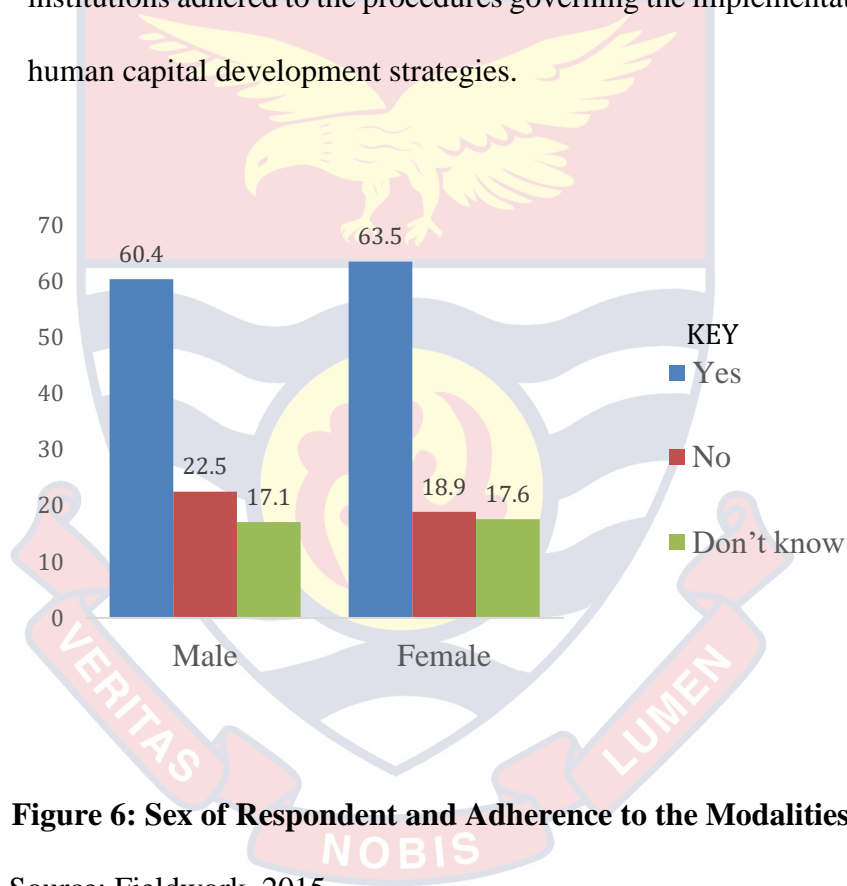


Figure 6: Sex of Respondent and Adherence to the Modalities

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Respondents 77(21.8%) who indicated that management of their institutions do not adhere to the procedures guiding the implementation of the human capital development strategies, provided various reasons in support of their response. As shown in Table 31, the main reason that most

Table 31: Reasons Management do not Adhere to the Modalities in Human Capital Strategy Implementation

Response	Number	Percentage
Mostly Subjected to the availability of funds	27	7.6
Selection process not based on merit	26	7.4
Lack of transparency in the selection process	24	6.8
Not applicable	277	78.2
Total	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

27(7.6%) of the respondents indicated was about the fact that, the selection process for sponsorship was subjected to the availability of funds. Also 26(7.4%) of the respondents indicated that the selection process was not based on merit and that some people were favoured. Others 24(6.8%) also stated that there was no transparency in the selection process. According to Mazmanian and Sabatier (1983), however, such allegations may have emanated from the model of implementation that the management of the publicly-funded universities have adopted in their implementation processes.

Chompucot (2011) notes that institutions that adopted the top-down model of implementation are usually faced with the challenge of being accused of being biased. This is because in the top-down model, the administrative machinery decides and carry out the policy to fulfil the policy

objectives which is assumed to be clear at all levels of the chain of command. Arshed, Mason and Carter (2014) indicate that, in reality, policy objectives in the top-down model are often unclear or even self-contradictory and neglects focus on the lower officials in the implementation process.

Information provided by the key informants however, indicate that the publicly-funded universities have adopted the blend of both the top-down and the bottom-up models of implementation. A key informant at the University of Ghana explained that the universities are managed by the committee system where decisions were based on varied views of before they were implemented. Another key informant at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology also explained that the donor assisted scholarships were usually awarded to faculty and staff in some specific and critical course areas and therefore could not be transferred to other departments. Faculty and staff who could not obtain sponsorship for further studies usually accused management of being biased and not transparent.

Even though the key informants agreed to the fact that sponsorships were based on the availability of funds, they disagreed with the assertions that the selection processes for sponsorships were not based on merit and also not transparent. This is evidenced in the statement by a key informant at the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology:

Selection procedures for sponsorships has always been very transparent as far as this university is concerned and I believe the same exists in the other publicly-funded universities. The

challenge has to do with inadequate funds and that not all applicants could be considered. Besides, decisions are made by committees and not by an individual (Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, March, 2015).

A key informant from the University of Ghana expressed a similar view that:

This university takes capacity building of its faculty and staff very serious. However, those who want to pursue further studies or attend an international conference will have to follow the due processes for accessing sponsorships. The processes are very transparent, just that sometimes preference is given to faculty and staff of some critical departments that required faculty or staff of certain calibre to meet required standards (University of Ghana, April, 2015).

These assertions are very important because according Hambrick and Cannella (1989), for any strategy implementation to be successful, the leadership must make everyone who matters aware of the processes and procedures so that they can help the institution to implement it effectively. For some respondents to remark that the processes and procedures in the strategy implementation were not transparent is indicative of the fact that they were not aware of some of the requirements for accessing opportunities offered by the human capital development strategies.

The respondents were then asked if they had experienced any improvement in their knowledge and skills as a result of the human capital

development opportunity they ever accessed. All respondents indicated that they had experienced some improvement in their knowledge and skills. When they were asked to indicate the level of improvement in their knowledge and skills, Table 32 shows that 214 of the respondents indicated that they had much improvement in their knowledge and skills whilst 78 indicated little improvement and 62 stated that they had moderate improvement in their knowledge.

Table 32: Institutional Response on the Level of Improvement in Knowledge and Skills from Human Capital Development Strategy Accessed

Institution	Responses						Total	
	Little Improvement		Moderate Improvement		Much Improvement		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
UG	23	29.5	23	37.1	60	28.0	106	29.9
KNUST	13	16.7	17	27.4	48	22.4	78	22.0
UCC	8	10.3	4	6.5	48	22.4	60	16.9
UEW	14	17.9	9	14.5	30	14.0	53	15.0
UDS	18	23.0	6	9.7	22	10.4	46	13.0
UMaT	2	2.6	3	4.8	6	2.8	11	3.2
Total	78	100.0	62	100.0	214	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Among the 214 respondents who indicated much improvement, 60(28.0%) were from UG whilst 48(22.4%) each were from KNUST and

UCC. Similarly, 23(29.5%) of the respondents who indicated that they had little improvement in their knowledge and skills were from UG, 18(23.0%) from UDS, 14(17.9%) were from UEW and 13(16.7%) were from KNUST. With respect those who indicated that they had moderate improvement in their knowledge and skills, 23(37.1%) were from UG, 17(27.4%) from KNUST and 9(14.5%) were from UEW.

The findings give an indication that faculty and staff of the older publicly-funded universities, thus, UG, KNUST, and UCC have much improvement in their knowledge and skills. This also shows the level of commitment that the publicly-funded universities show towards the development of their faculty and staff to enhance their productive capacities. Statements by the key informants also corroborate the fact that faculty and staff who accessed the human capital development opportunities in their institutions derived much benefits in terms knowledge and skills improvement. A key informant from the University Ghana for example, notes that:

Both staff and the institution reap benefits from our investments in their professional development. Most of the lecturers especially brought up various innovations to enhance work in their departments. These were ideas they might have gotten from conferences, seminars and even further studies (University of Ghana, March, 2015).

Similarly, a key informant from the UCC explicated how investing in knowledge and skill development of their faculty and staff had been of great

benefit to the institution and staff as well that:

This university has grown tremendously over the years through the introduction of many programmes and innovative ways of teaching and learning. These ideas were gotten from investments made in knowledge and skills development of our faculty and staff through sponsorships for conferences, seminars and further studies. Our faculty and staff often brought novel ideas on the job upon returning from further studies (University of Cape Coast, May, 2015).

These corroborates statement by Hsu et al. (2007) that, human capital development enhances the skills, talents, and knowledge of employees for improved performance on the job. Correspondingly, Peretomode and Chukwuma (2012) note that, manpower development of faculty and staff improves their knowledge and skills and enhances their productivity irrespective of gender, faculty and institution. It also supports the findings of Ukenna et al. (2010) that effective investment in human capital development improves human capital effectiveness.

As depicted by the conceptual framework, the publicly-funded universities could benefit immensely from effectively implementing their human capital development strategies. According to the knowledge-based view theory, ability of an institution to develop the knowledge and skills of its employees determines its competitiveness (Kirsimaria and Aino, 2009). Kogut and Zander (1996) also expound that performance differences between organisations accrue, due to their different stocks of knowledge

and their differing capabilities in using and developing knowledge.

With regard to the specific challenges in the implementation processes, Table 33 shows that 250 of the respondents indicated inadequate financial and other resources to be the major constraints. Among those who indicated inadequate financial and other resources as a challenge facing the publicly-funded universities, respondents from UG constituted the majority 77(30.8%), whilst 60(24.0%) were from KNUST, 44(17.6%) from UEW and 40(16.0%) from UCC.

Table 33: Challenges with Implementation of the Human Capital

Development Strategies				
Institution	Challenges			Total
	Inadequate finance and other resources	Long bureaucratic processes	Inadequate communication of strategy	
UG	77(30.8)	27(30.7)	2(12.5)	106(29.9)
KNUST	60(24.0)	17(19.3)	1(6.2)	78(22.0)
UCC	40(16.0)	17(19.3)	3(18.8)	60(16.9)
UEW	44(17.6)	3(3.4)	6(37.5)	53(15.0)
UDS	18(7.2)	24(27.3)	4(25.0)	46(13.0)
UMaT	11(4.4)	-	-	11(3.2)
Total	250(100.0)	88(100.0)	16(100.0)	354(100.0)

Figures in parentheses are percentages

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

The key informants also explained that, besides the fact that only a limited number of faculty and staff were sponsored at a given time, those sponsored for further studies especially, sometimes experienced delays in the release of funds for the payment of their fees as a result of inadequate funds. A key informant at KNUST for example stated that:

Funding the professional development of our faculty and staff sometimes becomes a major problem since there is so much pressure on our internally generated fund. We do our best to meet some of our obligations since faculty and staff development is of immense benefit to us (Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, March, 2015).

Another key informant from the Mampong campus of UEW shared a personal experience on this challenge that:

I have personally experienced the challenge in respect of delays in release of funds for paying my fees when I was studying abroad. It was not easy for me at all. However, I did not blame the institution much because I was familiar with some of the challenges our institution sometimes faced with funding various issues (University of Education, Winneba, April, 2015).

The conceptual framework also depicts allocation of funds and other resources as one of the main organisational factors that can influence the successful implementation of the human capital development strategies. The publicly-funded universities therefore, must generate enough funds to

cater for the development of their faculty and staff. As the resource-based view theory notes, an institution may have a great strategic plan in place, yet it means nothing if as a result of inadequate funding, its people lack access to appropriate and relevant knowledge, skills, and attitudes to successfully carry out the strategic plan (Seshadri, 2010).

The findings also substantiate the assertions by Lipsky (2010), that effective implementation of any policy can be severely undermined through lack of sufficient funds as well as professional and technical resources. It also confirms findings of Pressman and Wildavsky (1973) in a study that examined the implementation strategies of the Economic Development Administration (EDA) in Oakland, California, in the United State of America. According to the authors, despite having excellent intentions, the strategies were unsuccessfully implemented due mainly to lack of resources and uncoordinated administrative procedures resulting in undue delays in the implementation process.

The long bureaucratic processes were also identified by the respondents as a challenge hampering the strategy implantation processes in the publicly-funded universities. Table 33, shows that 88 of the respondents indicated long bureaucratic processes in accessing opportunities for human capital development as a challenge. Among the respondents who indicated that as a challenge, 27(30.7%) were from UG, 24(27.3%) from UDS, 17(19.3%) from both UCC and KNUST and 3(3.4%) from UEW. Aghemelo and Osumah (2008), however, note that the bureaucratic processes involved in the strategy implementation processes

were meant to help achieve a common goal towards the achievement of the strategy objectives. According to Idahosa (1997), bureaucratic processes have the capacity to coordinate expert knowledge, experience, skills, and commitment to disseminate human capital to those who sought it. The bureaucratic processes could also be referred to as the quality assurance measure of the implementation processes. This assertion is substantiated by responses by the key informants. A key informant from KNUST for example stated that:

The bureaucratic processes in the publicly-funded universities are very important. Such processes enable schedule officers to properly validate various documents before final approval is given for sponsorship of any kind. Inadequate checks have associated consequences and could run down the institution (Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, March, 2015).

Similarly, a key informant from Tamale campus of UDS expatiated the value of bureaucratic processes in the universities with the statement that:

Universities thrive on the committee system in decision making. These committees have meeting schedules and therefore, some issues relating to sponsorships especially, have to wait for the committees decision. Such practices are guided by the university statues and management usually adheres to such processes to avoid any legal tassel (University for Development Studies, December, 2015).

The conceptual framework attest to the fact that human capital development is a process and bureaucracy is meant to improve the system. As Alan et al. (2008) note, human capital development, as a process of increasing human knowledge, enhancing skills for increase in productivity and stimulating resourcefulness of trainees, should be systematic, sustainable, and strategic. Bureaucratic processes are therefore required to ensure efficiency in the implementation processes and successful outcomes (Olaniyan & Okemakinde, 2008). According to the structural functionalist theory, bureaucratic processes in strategy implementation cannot be avoided because organisational improvement require individual insight and learning to be captured within organisational structures, procedures and routines (Kalu, 2011).

The challenge resulting from inadequate communication of strategy supports the assertion by Kaplan and Norton (2005) that, employees of an institution must be well informed of the human capital development strategies because, if they do not understand or are unaware of the strategy, they surely cannot help the institution to implement it effectively. According to the resource-based view theory, the market value of institutions depends on their intangible assets, such as their knowledge, core competencies and organisational capabilities and therefore effective communication strategies for effective human capital management is critical for the success of the institution (Kudonoo et al., 2012; Lawler, 2004).

The conceptual framework depicts a continuous flow of information from implementers as well as feedback from those being governed by those strategies. Any break in those forward and backward linkages could result in implementation challenges and policy failure. The key informants in all the six publicly-funded universities however, were of the view that their institutions have put adequate measures in place to ensure that information reached the faculty and staff on schedule. A key informant at the Kumasi campus of UEW for example, explained that:

Communication of issues relating to human capital development opportunities was initially a huge problem in this university. Technology has made the dissemination of such information very easy. Most issues are usually announced on the university's website and sometimes through text messages (University of Education, Winneba, April, 2015).

Another key informant from UMaT also disclosed the fact that:

we always ensure that information reached faculty and staff of this institution on time. Gone were the days when that was a problem. These days, faculty and staff can update themselves of every information when they check their mails and also visit their departments regularly (University of Mines and Technology, November, 2015).

The above responses by the key informants give indication of the efforts universities have put in place to improve communications within

their respective institutions. As Baharom (2008) notes in a study, there is a strong positive relationship between organisational communication and a successful strategy implementation and, therefore, implementers must ensure that issues related to the strategies are duly communicated to those whom the policy is meant for.

Respondents were further asked to provide details on the measures put in place by management of their institutions to mitigate the major challenge of inadequate finance and other resources. Table 34 shows that 214 of the respondents indicated that their universities introduced market-driven programmes to attract more students in order to boost their internally generated fund. Among the 214 respondents, 44(32.8%) were from UG, 28(20.9%) from KNUST, 21(15.7%) from UCC, and 19(14.4%) from UDS, whilst 17(12.7%) and 5(3.7%) were from UEW and UMaT respectively.

Similarly, 62 respondents indicated that their institutions have initiated business ventures to boost their internally generated fund. Among respondents in this category, majority 57(34.3%) were from UG, 34(20.5%) from UCC, 33(19.9%) from KNUST and 28(16.9%) from UEW. These findings show the extent to which management of the publicly-funded universities are committed to ensuring the growth and development of their institutions. It also depicts the essential roles played by the top management in the strategy implementation process.

Table 34: Efforts Made by the Publicly-Funded Universities to Mitigate the Challenge of Inadequate Finance and Other Resources

Institution	Responses							
	Don't Know		Initiated Business ventures to boost IGF		Introduced market-driven programmes		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UG	5	9.3	57	34.3	44	32.8	106	29.9
KNUST	17	31.5	33	19.9	28	20.9	78	22.0
UCC	5	9.3	34	20.5	21	15.7	60	16.9
UEW	8	14.7	28	16.9	17	12.7	53	15.0
UDS	15	27.8	12	7.2	19	14.2	46	13.0
UMaT	4	7.4	2	1.2	5	3.7	11	3.2
Total	54	100.0	62	100.0	214	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

As Cole et al. (2006) note, the introduction of new programmes or products for income generation to facilitate the capacity building of staff for the success of those programmes demand top management commitment. Statements by the key informants also corroborates these views. A key informant at UCC for example, stated that:

Following the huge financial demands that our university is confronted with, it became necessary to establish other business ventures alongside the introduction of new and market-driven programmes to boost our internally

generated fund for capacity building. Currently we have a fuel station, printing press, water production section and many more (University of Cape Coast, May, 2015).

Another key informant at the Winneba campus of UEW stated some of the interventions that management of the university had put in place to enhance their internally generated fund that:

We have been able to support some of our faculty and staff to pursue terminal degrees and others attended conferences, both locally and abroad. Because the government could no longer shoulder that huge financial demands, we had to device other ways of generating additional income internally to facilitate our capacity building agenda (University of Education, Winneba, April, 2015).

The publicly-funded universities had made frantic efforts at improving their means of income generation in order to be able to develop faculty and staff because as the human capital theory notes, education and training of the workforce are very necessary for the success of every organisation (Marimuthu et al., 2009). As depicted by the conceptual framework, providing faculty and staff with the required support through education and training will improve their knowledge and skills and could eventually enhance their performance. As Kern (2009) notes, education of workforce leads to increase in productivity and efficiency of workers by increasing the level of their cognitive skills. This, according to the knowledge-based theory, would sustain the publicly-funded universities in

the current knowledge-based economy (Cavalcanti, 2003). As the structural functionalists theory notes, knowledge and skills acquired would enable the faculty and staff to play their functional roles for the success of their institutions.

Summary of Findings on Enhancements and Challenges Associated with the Implementation of the Human Capital Development Strategies

This chapter brought to the fore that management of the publicly-funded universities largely adhered to the procedures and processes involved in the development of their faculty and staff. The models of strategy implementation were also used to examine the mode of awarding scholarships to faculty and staff. Universities operate on committees and, therefore, blend the top-down and bottom-up models in making decisions for the implementation of the human capital development strategies. The opportunities provided by the human capital development strategies largely improves knowledge, skills and abilities of faculty and staff in the publicly-funded universities.

Three major challenges were identified by the respondents as inhibiting the successful implementation of the human capital development strategies. They are : inadequate financial and other resources, long bureaucratic processes in the administrative setup of the universities, and inadequate communication of strategies to faculty and staff. inadequate finance and other resources were believed to be the major inhibiting factors to strategy implementation in the publicly-funded universities. Strategies

adopted by the publicly-funded universities in dealing with the major challenge include the introduction of market-driven programmes to attract many students and the initiation into other business ventures such as sachet water production, printing press, yoghurt production, and the establishment of fuel sales points or stations among others.



CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the summary of the study, the conclusions drawn from the findings, and recommendations. The summary begins with a discussion on the problem, the objectives, and the methodology used in this study. Conclusions reflect the objectives of the study. The key findings also provide detailed information based on each objective. Discussions on the recommendations are based on the key findings. The final section of this chapter examines the contribution to knowledge and areas for further research.

Summary

The study examined the myth and reality in the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana. Three specific objectives guided the study. The first objective sought to analyse the mode of implementing the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana. The second objective examined the relationship between the organisational factors and the implementation of the human capital development strategies. The third objective also analysed the levels of enhancement and the challenges experienced by the publicly-funded universities in the implementation of the human capital development strategies for their

faculty and staff.

In order to achieve the set objectives, the mixed-methods research design, involving both quantitative and qualitative methods was chosen for the study. A sample of 354 employees of the publicly-funded universities, was selected from a population of 4,282 from six publicly-funded universities namely: the University of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, the University of Cape Coast, the University of Education, Winneba, the University for Development Studies, and the University of Mines and Technology.

The multi-stage sampling technique was applied to generate the sample size of 354. Sampling with probability proportionate to size was adopted to distribute the sample size of 354 among the publicly-funded universities per the various categories. The quota sampling method was used to ensure that each dimension of the population was represented in the sample. The sample size of 354 comprised 291 lecturers and 63 administrators/professional staff. Among the lecturers, 236 were males, whilst 55 were females. The sample drawn for administrators, on the other hand, comprised 44 males and 19 females. The purposive sampling technique was used to select 7 key informants from each of the publicly-funded universities. Thus, 42 key informants comprising 30 Provosts/Principals/Deans, 6 Heads of Human Resource and 6 Heads of Finance in the publicly-funded universities were selected for the study.

Data were collected through the use of interview schedule for the faculty and staff and an interview guide for the key informants.

Documentary analysis was also used to support discussions on the findings. The data analysis was done using the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (Version 20) software. Data were presented using percentages and frequencies. The Chi-square test was used to examine the relationships of the variables in the study as well as the association between rank or status of a respondent and access to the opportunities available for the professional development of faculty and staff in the publicly-funded universities.

The first objective sought to examine the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana. The following key findings emerged:

- The majority (198) of the respondents were of the view that the human capital development strategies were properly documented in the conditions of service, the institutional statutes, and the corporate strategic plans of the various institutions. Among the respondents in this category, UG had the highest number 74(37.4%), whilst UMaT had the least 4(2.0%).
- Three main modes that the publicly-funded universities used to build the capacity of their faculty and staff are: sponsorships for the pursuance of terminal degrees; sponsorship for conferences; and sponsorship for seminars/training workshops.
- In connection with sponsorship for further studies to pursue terminal degrees, 218 of the respondents had ever been sponsored for further studies. The University of Ghana had the highest number 61(28.0%) of respondents in this category and UMaT had the least 6(2.7%).

- With regard to conferences UG had the highest number 74(32.5%) of the respondents who had ever been sponsored, followed by KNUST 54(23.7%) and UCC 43(12.7%). UMaT had the least number 6(2.6%) of respondents in this category.
- Majority (280) of respondents in all the publicly-funded universities had ever been sponsored for seminars/training workshops. The University of Ghana had the highest number 79(28.2%) of respondents in this category whilst UMaT had the least number 10(3.6%) of respondents.
- With regard to accessibility to the opportunities for professional development, most of the respondents at both UG 85(36.6%) and UDS 31(13.4%) with universal mandates, as well as KNUST 43(18.6%) and UMaT 8(3.4%) with science based mandates had easy accessibility to those opportunities. The trend was not the same for UCC and UEW with education based mandates. Whilst Majority 39(16.8%) of respondents at UCC indicated easy accessibility to the opportunities, majority 27(22.1%) of the respondents at UEW however, were of the view that the mode of accessing the opportunities in the human capital development strategies were not easily accessible.
- There was a significant difference in the number 207(71.1%) of faculty as against the number 11(17.5%) of staff who had ever been sponsored for study leave with pay.
- There was a significant association between the number 220(75.6%)

of faculty as against the number 8(12.7%) staff who had ever been sponsored to attend conferences.

- There was a significant association between the number 220(75.6%) of faculty as against the number 60(95.2%) staff who had ever been sponsored to attend seminars/training workshops. The significance is weak and negative indicating that many staff and quite a number of faculty were considered for seminars/training workshops.
- With respect to the mode of implementation, faculty and staff had to take the initiative by either seeking admission on to a programme of study, or to attend a conference, and seminar/training workshop, and then provide evidence to that effect, when applying for sponsorship.
- Applications for sponsorships were usually routed through the Heads of Departments, the Dean of Faculty and through the Provost, if any, to the Vice-Chancellor. The administrative staff also apply through their Heads of Departments, the Registrar and to the Vice-Chancellor.
- Both the bottom-up and top-down model of implementation were blended in the implementation of the human capital strategies in the publicly-funded universities.

The second objective examined the relationship between the organisational factors and implementation of the human capital development strategies. The following are the key findings that emerged:

- The majority of the respondents were of the view that both allocation of resources 227(78.2%) and top managements'

support 268(75.7%) influence the implementation of the human capital development strategies. Quite a number 196(55.4%) agreed on the influence of the inter-departmental or organisational communication, whilst only 36.4 percent of the respondents agreed that the dispositions of the implementers influences implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities.

- Majority of the respondents at all the publicly-funded universities agreed that top management support, allocation of resources, and inter-departmental communications influence implementation of the human capital development strategies.
- There is a significant association between top managements support and implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff in the publicly-funded universities.
- There is a significant association between allocation of resources and implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff in the publicly-funded universities.
- Though there is a positive association between dispositions of the implementing departments and implementation of the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities, the relationship is not significant.
- There is no significant association between inter-departmental communications and implementation of the human capital

development strategies for faculty and staff of the publicly-funded universities.

The third objective analysed the levels of enhancement and the challenges associated with the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities. The objective first assessed the challenges in the context of adherence to the modalities for the implementing the strategies. The following key findings emerged:

- Majority 216(61.0%) of the respondents were of the view that management of their institutions adhered strictly to the strategies whenever any decision related to human capital development was taken. Majority 74(34.3%) of respondents in this category were at UG, followed by KNUST 53(24.5%) and UCC 36(16.7%).
- Majority (214) of the respondents indicated that they experienced much improvement in their knowledge and skills from the opportunities offered by the human capital development strategies they ever accessed. Among respondents in this category, majority 60(28.0%) were at UG, 48(22.4%) were at both KNUST and UCC.
- Majority (250) of the respondents indicated inadequate financial and other resources as the major constraints facing the implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana. Among respondents in this category, most 77(30.8%) of

them were at UG, 60(24.0%) were at KNUST and 44(17.6%) were at UEW.

- long bureaucratic processes in the administrative setup of the universities, and inadequate communication of strategies to faculty and staff were also indicated as challenges existing in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana.
- Most of the respondents indicated that their institutions had introduced market-driven programmes to attract many students so as to boost their internally generated fund. Majority 44(32.8%) of respondents in this category were at UG, whilst 28(20.9%) and 21(15.7%) were at KNUST and UCC respectively.

Conclusions

The publicly-funded universities in Ghana have been working at ensuring that their faculty and staff have the required capabilities to meet the institutional mandates. This was achieved through strategies such as, sponsorships for faculty and staff to pursue terminal degrees, attend conferences and seminars/training workshops, and through established mentorship schemes. The older publicly-funded universities, probably due to their levels of development, were able to sponsor many of their faculty and staff for professional development.

Decision on sponsorships for the professional development of faculty and staff were usually mediated by four main organisational factors

namely: top management support, allocation of resources, dispositions of the implementing departments, and inter-departmental communication. However, allocation of resources and top managements' support were the main organisational factors that influenced implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities in Ghana.

Majority of the faculty and staff experienced enhancement in their knowledge and skills after accessing the opportunities provided by the human capital development strategies. However, they were mostly from the older publicly-funded universities. The major challenge that the publicly-funded universities faced in the process of implementing the human capital development strategies is inadequate finance and other resources. In order to mitigate the challenge of inadequate finance and other resources, the publicly-funded universities had introduced market-driven programmes to attract many students and hence, boost the levels of their internally generated fund in order to effectively implement their human capital development strategies.

Overall, implementation of the human capital development strategies in the publicly-funded universities is a reality as seen in the support by top management and the allocation of finance and other resources projected in their strategic plans. However, there are limits to the achievement of the reality due to funding inadequacies, long bureaucratic processes and procedures that usually delayed the release of funds and other resources, and inadequate medium of communicating strategies to faculty and staff.

Recommendations

Based on the key findings and conclusions, the following recommendations have been made for the key actors involved:

Faculty of the younger publicly-funded universities are advised to:

1. pursue terminal degrees locally and in their home university. This will help to reduce the financial burden on their universities since it is expensive pursuing terminal degrees in a foreign country. It will also make room for more faculty and staff to be sponsored at a time for various programmes. They must, therefore, enrol on programmes in their own university or in any of the universities in the country.
2. collaborate with faculty older and well developed universities locally and in other countries for knowledge exchange without necessarily having to travel over long distances for conferences. This collaboration could be done through the internet and the social media. This will save the university from flight costs. That money could be used to augment facilities needed for the professional development.

For the staff, it is recommended that they should:

1. approach management of their universities and have a discussion on the need for them to also to have equal access for professional development in terms of pursuing terminal degrees or analogous professional programmes and to attend conferences locally. This is important because their knowledge and skills complement that of the faculty for the growth and development of their institutions.

2. collaborate with their experienced fellow administrators in renowned universities, through the social media for knowledge exchange and sharing. This will enable them to acquire more knowledge and skills locally without having to travel over longer distances for the same information. It will help save cost and travel time.

Management of the selected universities, especially the younger and less developed ones, are encouraged to:

1. strengthen avenues for generating income internally. This could be done through the introduction of more market driven programmes.

This will enable the institutions to become self-sustaining and be able to sponsor more faculty and staff to build their capacity for enhanced productivity.

2. avoid unduly long bureaucratic administrative processes in the implementation of the human capital strategies. This could be achieved through review and the introduction of effective time-lines in the implementation processes.

3. Improve the channels of communication by making effective use of the social media such as the internet in advertising opportunities.

The universities must update their websites regularly with current information and events in order to attract the faculty and staff to visit the sites for information.

4. develop industry and academia linkage for support in developing human capital for the university. This could be achieved through a

memorandum of understanding between the university and industry.

In this way, faculty and staff could pursue programmes at possibly no cost to their institutions.

5. approach the government to increase its staff development subvention for the publicly-funded universities. This will mitigate the challenge of inadequate financial and other resources and also enable them sponsor many faculty and staff who want to pursue terminal degrees.

6. take collaborative measures with other universities, both locally and abroad for the professional development of faculty and staff. This could be achieved through a memorandum of understanding between the institutions involved. Embarking upon this initiative will enable the universities to develop their faculty and staff at a minimal cost.

7. develop the capacities of administrators in their universities to enable them play a more significant role in their functions as implementers of policy. This increase in their capabilities will enable them to play more valuable roles in the strategic focus of the university.

8. intensify peer mentorship as another approach of developing young faculty and staff. Thus, faculty and staff could be assigned to more experienced professors and colleagues to be mentored by them. This aspect of human capital development is very useful, effective and less expensive.

9. improve the female faculty and staff population in the publicly-funded universities. This could be achieved through encouragement and the award of scholarships to brilliant female students, to enable them enrol on programmes that would prepare them adequately to pursue their careers in the universities.

Contributions to knowledge

Most studies on implementation of human capital development strategies in academic institutions, such as universities, recapitulate the repercussions of organisational factors on the implementation of human capital development strategies. The study, however, found that, among the organisational factors that have some form of association with successful implementation of the human capital development strategies, top management support and allocation of resources are prime to successful strategy implementation. These findings strengthen the existing knowledge using a mixed method approach to strategy implementation studies.

The study also adds to literature by developing a conceptual framework on implementation of human capital development strategies. The conceptual framework revealed the network and associations that must exist among the various segments in a successful strategy implementation.

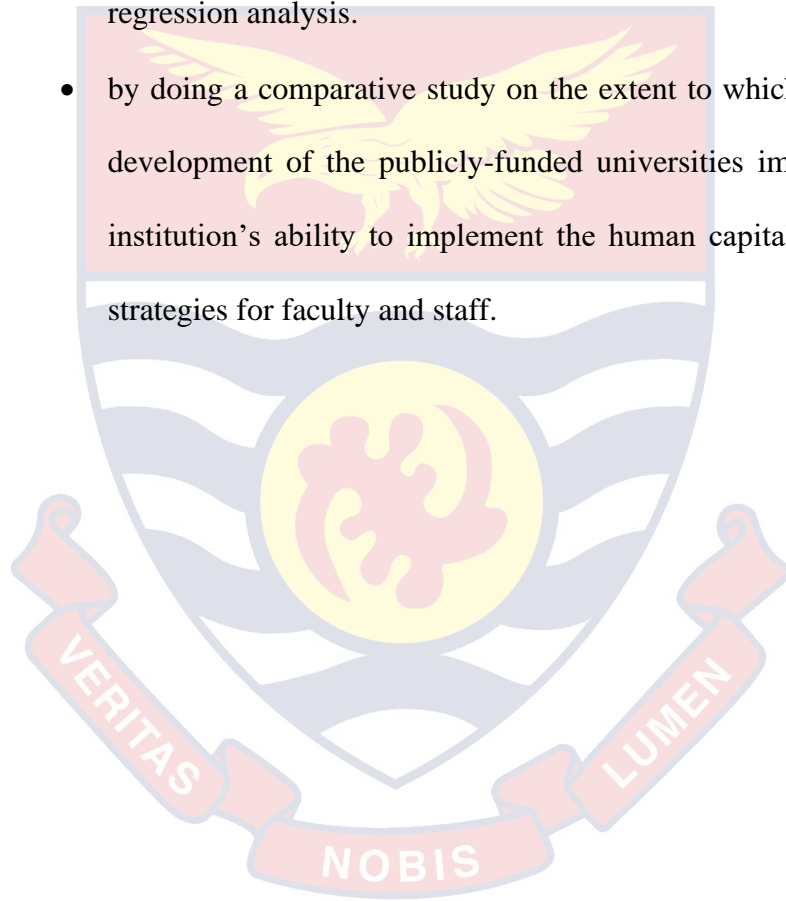
Furthermore, due to the paucity of theories in the discipline of strategy implementation, most studies on the subject used only models in explaining the implementation processes. This study strengthens existing knowledge by blending theories and models to analyse the implementation

of the human capital development strategies.

Areas for Further Research

Based on the findings, the study could be replicated:

- using a quantitative approach such that the variables could be tested with higher statistical tools like factor analysis and multiple regression analysis.
- by doing a comparative study on the extent to which the levels of development of the publicly-funded universities impacted on the institution's ability to implement the human capital development strategies for faculty and staff.



BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abel, J. R., & Deitz, R. (2012). Do colleges and universities increase their regions human capital? *Journal of Economic Geography*, 12(3), 667-691.
- Abel, J. R., & Gabe, T. M. (2011). Human capital and economic activity in urban America. *Regional Studies*, 45(8), 1079-1090.
- Adelakun, O. J. (2011). Human Capital Development and Economic Growth in Nigeria. *Canadian Social Science Journal*, 7(2), 207-218.
- Adeyeye, J. O. (2009). Human capital development practices and organisational effectiveness: A focus on contemporary Nigerian Banking industry. *Pakistan Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(4), 194-199.
- Agbo, S. A. (2007). *Myth and realities of higher education as a vehicle for nation building in developing countries: The culture of the University and the New African Diaspora*. Paper presented at the Pacific University, Oregon, USA, November 2007. Retrieved on March 12, 2010, from <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu>
- Aghemelo, A.T., & Osumah, O. (2008), *Administrative theory and Practice*. Akure:Sylva Publishing Inc.
- Aguinis, H., & Kraiger, K. (2009). Benefits of training and development for individuals and teams, organisations, and society. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60(45), 451-474.

- Ahmad, S. M., & Mir, A. A. (2011). Need for human resource development (HRD) practices in Indian Universities: A key for educational excellence. *Journal of Human Values, 18*(2), 113-132.
- Akyeampong, K. (2009). Revisiting free compulsory universal basic education (FCUBE) in Ghana. *Comparative Education, 45*(2), 175-195.
- Akyeampong, K. (2011). *(Re)assessing the impact of school capitation grants on educational access in Ghana (CREATE Pathways to Access Series, Research Monograph)*. Falmer, UK: Centre for International Education, Department of Education, University of Sussex.
- Alan, K., Altman, Y., & Roussel, J. (2008). Employee training needs and perceived value of training in the Pearl River Delta of China: A human capital development approach. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 32*(1), 19-31.
- Alashoo, F. R., Castka, P., & Sharp, J. M. (2005). Towards understanding the impeters of strategy implementation in higher education (HE): A case of HE institutes in Iran. *Quality Assurance in Education 13*(2), 132-147.
- Alexander, L. D. (1985). Successfully implementing strategic decisions. *Long Range Planning, 18*(3), 91-97.

- Al-Ghamdi, S. M. (1998). Obstacles to successful implementation of strategic decisions: The British experience. *European Business Review*, 98(6), 322-327.
- Ali, K. (2013). Financial resources of municipalities in Turkey. *International Journal of Finance & Banking Studies*, 2(1) 2147-4486.
- Alidrisi, H. M. (2010). *Resource allocation for strategic quality management: A goal programming approach*. Doctoral thesis, Griffith University. Retrieved on March 10, 2012, from <https://research-repository.griffith.edu.au>
- Alika, I., & Aibieyi, S. (2014). Human capital: Definitions, approaches and management dynamics. *Journal of Business Administration and Education*, 5(1), 55-78.
- Almendarez, L. (2011). *Human capital theory: Implications for educational development*. Retrieved on March 3, 2012, from www.open.uwi.edu/sites/default/files/bnccde/belize/conferencpers
- Amit, R., & Schoemaker, P. (1993). Strategic assets and organisational rent. *Strategic Management Journal*, 14(1), 33-46.
- Anisur, R., & Shahriar, K. (2016). A critical insight into policy implementation and implementation performance. *Public Policy and Administration*, 15(4), 538-548.
- Argenti, P. A. (1996). Corporate communication as a discipline. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 10(1), 73-97.

- Argenti, P. A. (1998). Strategic employee communications. *Human Resource Management*, 37(4), 199-206.
- Arksey, H., & Knight, P. (1999). *Interviewing for Social Scientists*. London: Sage.
- Armstrong, C. E., & Shimizu, K. (2007). A review of approaches to empirical research on the resource-based view of the firm. *Journal of Management*, 33(6), 959-986.
- Armstrong, M. A. (2009). *Handbook of human resource management practice*. London: Kogan Page Limited.
- Arnold, V., Collier, P. A., Leech, S. A., Sutton, S. G., & Vincent, A. (2013). Simulating experience to accelerate expertise development by knowledge workers. *Intelligent Systems in Accounting, Finance and Management*, 20(1), 1-21.
- Arshed, N., Carter, S., & Mason, C. (2014). The ineffectiveness of entrepreneurship policy: is policy formulation to blame? *Small Business Economics*, 43(3), 639-659.
- Assem, Z. T. (2012). The role of higher education system in human capital formation. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 18(Special Issue of Economics), 135-139.
- Atherton, A., & Price, L. (2008). Can experiential knowledge and localized learning in start-up policy and practice be transferred between regions? The case of the START network. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 20(1), 367-385.

- Aziah, I., & Abdul, G. K. (2011). Human capital development practices in Malaysian public universities. *Current Research Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(5), 389-398.
- Baah-Boateng, W. (2013). Human capital development: The case of education as a vehicle for Africa's economic transformation. *Legion Journal of International Affairs and Diplomacy*, 7(1), 31-55.
- Baharom, A. (2008). HRD policy implementation in Malaysian public universities: An investigation of the relationship between organisational factors and implementation. *Proceedings of the 3rd International Borneo Business Conference, 15-17 Dis Kota Kinabalu, Sabah*.
- Balatbat, L. (2010). *Perceived implementation of human resource management practices and demographic variables of employees in private higher education institutions*. SISC KAIZE. Retrieved on 6th February, 2012, from <https://www.southville.edu.ph/openc>
- Balan, D. J., & Knack, S. (2012). The correlation between human capital and morality and its effect on economic performance: Theory and evidence. *Journal of Comparative Economics*, 40(3), 457-475.
- Barbie, E. R. (2007). *The practice of social research*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Corporation.
- Bardach, E. (1979). *The implementation game: What happens after a bill becomes a law*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Barker III, V. L., & Barr, P. S. (2002). Linking top manager attributions to strategic reorientation in declining firms attempting turnarounds. *Journal of Business Research*, 55(12), 963-979.

Barney, J. B. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1), 99-120.

Barney, J. B. (1995). Looking inside for competitive advantage. *Academy of Management Executive*, 9(4), 49-61.

Barney, J. B., & Clark, D. N. (2007). *Resource-based theory: creating and sustaining competitive advantage*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Barrett, S. (2004). Implementation studies: Time for a revival? *Public Administration*, 82(2), 249-62.

Bassey, S. U., & Bassey, U. U. (2011). *Management of higher education in Africa*. Uyo: Abam Publishing.

Bassi, L. J., Lev, B., Low, J., McMurrer, D. P., & Siesfeld, G. A. (2008). Measuring corporate investments in human capital. In: Blair, M. M., & Kochan, T. A. (Eds.). *The new relationship: Human capital in the American corporation*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Bassi, L., & McMurrer, D. (2008). *Human capital and organisational performance: Next generation metrics as a catalyst for change*, USA: Whitepaper, McBassi & Company.Inc.

- Beach, M. J. (2009). A critical of human formation in the US and the economic returns to Sub-Baccalaureate credentials. *Education studies. A Journal of the American Educational Studies*, 4(1), 24-38.
- Becerra, M. (2008). A resource-based analysis of the conditions for the emergence of profits. *Journal of Management*, 34(1), 110-126.
- Becker, G. S. (1964). *Human Capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis with special reference to education*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Becker, G. S. (1993). *Human capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis with special reference to education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Benhabib, J., & Spiegel, M. (1994). The role of human capital in economic development: Evidence from aggregate cross-country data. *Journal of Monetary Economics*, 34(2), 143–174.
- Berman, P. (1978). The study of macro and micro implementation. *Public Policy*, 2(1), 157-184.
- Bingab, B., Forson, J., Mmbali, O., & Baah-Enumh, T. (2015). The evolution of university governance in Ghana: Implications for education policy and practice. Retrieved on January 4, 2016, from <https://mpira.ub.unimuenchen.de/70940/1/MPRA>.
- Birkland, T. A. (2005). *An introduction to the policy process theories, concepts, and models of public policy making (2nd ed)*. New York: M.E. Sharpe.

- Blaug, M. (1976). Human capital theory: a slightly jaundiced view. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 14(3), 827-855.
- Blaug, M. (Ed.). (1992). *The empirical status of human capital theory: A slightly jaundiced survey. The economic value of education: Studies in the economics of education*. Aldershot: Edward Elgar.
- Blundell, R., Dearden, L., Meghir, C., & Sianesi, B. (1999). Human capital investment: The returns from education and training to the individual, the firm and the economy. *Fiscal Studies*, 20(1), 1-23.
- Boateng, F. (2010). *State-higher education relationship dynamics in Ghana in historical and contemporary perspectives*. (Master's thesis, University of Oslo). Retrieved on February 15, 2012, from <https://www.duo.uio.no/bitstream/handle/10852/30462/Boateng-thesis.pdf>
- Bohnenkamp, T. (2013). *The effect of resource-based view on decisions in supply management. Proceedings from the first IBA Thesis Conference*. Enschede, The Netherlands: University of Twente.
- Boidoun, S. (2003). An Empirical Study of Critical Factors of TQM in Palestinian Organizations. *Logistics Information Management* 16 (2), 156-171
- Bontis, N. (2001). *Assessing knowledge assets: A review of the model used to measure intellectual capital*. Retrieved on March 3, 2012, from <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/>

- Bourgeois, L. J., & Brodwin, D.R. (1984). Strategic implementation: Five approaches to an elusive phenomenon, *Strategic Management Journal*, 5(3), 241-264.
- Bovée, C. L., & Thill, J. V. (2003). *Business communication today* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bowles, S., & Gintis, H. (2002). *The inheritance of inequality*. Retrieved from <http://www.umass.edu/preferen/gintis/>
- Brenes, E., Mena, M., & Molina, G. (2008). Key success factors for strategy implementation in Latin America. *Journal of Research*, 61(6), 590-598.
- Bridgman, P., & Davis, G. (2004). *Australian policy handbook*. Crows Nest, NSW: Allen & Unwin.
- Brown, A., Forde, C., & Spencer, D. (2008). Changes in HRM and job satisfaction, 1998-2004: Evidence from the workplace employment relations survey. *The University of York Human Resource Management Journal*, 18(3), 237-256.
- Bryman, A. (2004) *Social Research Methods* (2nd edition). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Burke, K. Morris, K., McGarrigle, L., (2012). *An introductory guide to implementation-terms, concepts, and frameworks. CES Guide*. Centre for Effective Services.

- Calhoun, C. J. (2010). Robert K. Merton: *Sociology of science and sociology as science*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Camelo, C., Alles, M., & Hernandez, A. (2010). Strategic consensus, top management teams, and innovation performance. *International Journal of Manpower*, 31(6), 678-695.
- Caselli F. & Esquivel G. & Lefort F. (1996). Reopening the convergence debate: a new look at cross-country growth empirics. *Journal of Economic Growth* 1, 363-389.
- Cavalcanti, M. (2003). Conhecimento e Desigualdade. *Silva and Neves (Orgs.) Gestão de Empresas na Era do Conhecimento, Lisboa: Edições Sílabo*, 72-81.
- Chaudhary, A., Iqbal, A., & Gillani, S. (2009). The nexus between higher education and economic growth: An empirical investigation for Pakistan. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences* 3(1),1-9.
- Chilcott, J. H. (1998). Structural Functionalism as a heuristic device. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 29(1), 103-111.
- Chompucot, M. C. (2011). *Major Factors Affecting Educational Policy Implementation Effectiveness for the three Southernmost Provinces of Thailand as Perceived by School Directors*. Retrieved from <http://libdcms.nida.ac.th/thesis>

Cerna, L. (2013). *The nature of policy change and implementation: A review of different theoretical approaches*. Retrieved on July, 7, 2014, from: <https://pdfs.semanticscholar>.

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power as a general data-analytic system. *Psychological Bulletin*, 70(6), 426-443.

Cole, G. A. (2005). *Management theory and practice (6th ed.)*. London: Book Power.

Cole, M., Harris, S., & Bernerth, J. (2006). Exploring the implications of vision, appropriateness, and execution of organisational change. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 27(5), 352-367.

Collins, D., & Montgomery, C. (1995). Competing on resources. *Harvard Business Review*, 73(4), 118-128.

Collins, D., & Montgomery, C. (2008). *A corporate strategy: A resource based approach*. New York, NY: Mc Graw-Hill.

Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry research design: Choosing among five approaches*. California: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Crook, T. R., Ketchen, Jr, D. J., Combs, J. G., & Todd, S. Y. (2008). Strategic resources and performance: a meta-analysis. *Strategic Management Journal*, 29(11), 1141-1154.

Crook, T., Todd, S., Combs, J., Woehr, D., & Ketchen, Jr, D. (2011). Does human capital matter? A meta-analysis of the relationship between human capital and firm performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(3), 443-456.

Crutchfield, E. B. (2000). *Developing human capital in American manufacturing: A case study of barriers to training and development*. New York: Garland Publishing.

Curado, C., & Bontis, N. (2006). The knowledge-based view of the firm and its theoretical precursor. *International Journal of Learning and Intellectual Capital*, 3(4), 367-381.

Dae-Bong, K. (2009). *Human capital and its measurement. Proceedings from the third world forum on "statistics, knowledge and policy" charting progress, building visions, improving life*. Busan, Korea: OECD.

Davenport, T. H., & Prusak, L. (1998). *Working Knowledge*. Cambridge: HBS Press.

DeLeon & DeLeon (2002). What ever happened to policy implementation? An alternative approach. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 12(4), 467-492.

Delery, J. E., & Doty, D. H. (1996). Modes of theorizing in strategic human resource management: Tests of universalistic, contingency, and configuration performance predictions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(4), 802-835.

Demeulemeester, J. L., & Diebolt, C. (2011). Education and growth: what links for which policy? *Historical social research*, 36(4), 323-346.

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (eds) (2011). *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.

Diamond, A. (2000). *Inter-departmental communication*, Article Reprint: Tech Week.

Dierickx, I., & Cool, K. (1989). Asset stock accumulation and sustainability of competitive advantage. *Management Science*, 35(12), 1504 - 1511.

Ding, Q., Akoorie, M., & Pavlovich, K. (2009). Understanding the specificity and complexity of inter-firm knowledge flows in alliance networks. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 1(7), 8-33.

Dixon, N. M. (1990). The relationship between trainee responses on participant reaction forms and post-test scores. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 1(2), 129-137.

Dolphin, R. R. (2005). Internal communications: Today's strategic imperative. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 11(3), 171-190.

Drucker, P. F. (1957). *Landmarks of tomorrow*. New York, NY: Harper.

Drucker, P. (1992). *Managing for the future*. New York, NY: Harper Collins.

Drucker, P. F. (1993). *Post capitalist Society*. New York: Harper Collins Publishers.

Drucker, P. F. (1999). Knowledge-worker productivity: The biggest challenge. *California Management Review*, 41(2), 78-94.

Dul, J., & Hak, T. (2008). *Case study methodology in business research*. Oxford, Elsevier Ltd.

Ebiringa, O., & Okorafor, G. (2010). Effects of human capital development on the performance of small and medium scaled enterprises in the south eastern region of Nigeria. *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, 12(8), 49-58.

Edvinsson, L., & Malone, M. S. (1997). *Intellectual Capital: Realizing Your Company's True Value by Finding its Hidden Roots*. New York: Harper Collins Publishers.

Effah, P. (2011). A Ghanaian response to the study of widening participation in higher education in Ghana and Tanzania: Developing an equity scorecard. *Research in Comparative & International Education*, 6(4), 374-382.

Effah, P., & Hofman, A. (2010). *Regulating tertiary education: Ghanaian and International Perspectives*. Accra: Ghana Universities Press.

Enyekit, E. O., Amaehule, S., & Teerah, L.E. (2011). Achieving human capital development in Nigeria through vocational education for nation building. *Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 2(2): 131-139.

Epstein, E., & Freund, W. C. (1984). *People and productivity. The New York Stock Exchange guide to financial incentives and the quality of work life*. New York: Irwin.

Erosa, A., Koreshkova, T. A., & Restuccia, D. (2010). How important is human capital? A quantitative theory assessment of world income inequality. *Review of Economic Studies*, 1(1), 1-32.

- Etor, R. B. (2011). Distance learning management in higher education. In Bassey, S.U and Bassey, U.U (eds.), *Management of higher education in Africa* (pp. 216-229), Uyo, Nigeria: Abaam Publishing Co Books Ltd.
- Farid, M. Z., Chaudhary, I. S., & Malik, M. S. (2012). How does human capital formation affect labour force participation in Pakistan? A primary data analysis. *Canadian Social Science*, 8(4), 162-171.
- Felin, T., & Foss, N. J. (2005). Strategic organisation; A field in search of micro-foundation. *Strategic Organisation*, 3(4), 441-455.
- Felin, T., & Hesterley, W. S. (2007). The knowledge-based view, nested heterogeneity, and new value creation: philosophical considerations on the locus of knowledge. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(1), 195-218.
- Ferreira, A. I., & Mertinez, L. F. (2011). Intellectual capital: Perceptions of productivity and investment. *RAC, Curitiba*, 12(5), 249-260.
- Findsen, B., & Formosa, M. (2011). *Lifelong learning in later life*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Fleisher, B., Li, H., & Zhao, M. Q. (2010). Human capital, economic growth and regional inequality in China. *Journal of Development Economics*, 92(2), 215-231.
- Flick, U. (2002). *An introduction to qualitative research*. London, Thousand Oaks, CA and New Delhi: Sage.

- Frank, A., & Brownell, J. (1989). *Organisational communication and behaviour: Communication to improve performance*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston: Orland.
- Fraenkel, R. J., & Wallen, E. N. (2000). *How to design and evaluate research in education (4th ed.)*. San Francisco: McGraw-Hill.
- Friedman, R. M. (2003). A conceptual framework for developing and implementing effective policy in children's mental health. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioural Disorder*, 11(1), 11-19.
- Friedman, W. Kremer, M., Miguel, E., & Thornton, R. (2011). Education as liberation? *National Bureau of Economic Research Working Paper No. 16939*.
- Fugar, F. D., Ashiboe-Mensah, N. A., & Adinyira, E. (2013). Human capital theory: Implications for the Ghanaian construction industry development. *Journal of Construction Project management and Innovation*, 3(1), 464-479.
- Galunic, D. C., & Anderson, E. (2000). From security to mobility: Generalized investments in human capital and agent commitment. *Organisation Science*, 11(1), 1-20.
- Garavan, T. N., Morley, M., Gunnigle, P. & Collins, E. (2001). Human capital accumulation: The role of human resource development. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 25(2), 48-68.
- Garibaldi, P. (2006). *Personnel economics in imperfect labour markets*. *Industrial and Labour Relations Review*. Retrieved on March 10,

- 2012, from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication>
- Gebhardt, G., Carpenter, G., & Sherry, J. (2006). Creating a market orientation: a longitudinal, multiform, grounded analysis of cultural transformation. *Journal of Marketing*, 70(4), 37-55.
- Gibb, A. A. (2000). Corporate restructuring and entrepreneurship: What can large organisations learn from small? *Enterprise and Innovation Management Studies*, 1(1), 19-35.
- Giles, W. D. (1991). Making strategy work. *Long Range Planning*, 24(5) 75-91.
- Gondal, U., & Shahbaz, M. (2012). Interdepartmental communication increases organisation performance keeping HRM as a mediating variable. *Journal of Asian Business strategy*, 2(6), 127-141.
- Government of Ghana (2010). *University of Ghana Act*, 2010, (Act 806).
- Government of Ghana (2004). *University of Education, Winneba Act*, 2004, (Act 672).
- Government of Ghana (1992). *University of Cape Coast Law*, 1992, (PNDC Law 278).
- Grant, R.M. (1996). Towards a Knowledge Based Theory of the Firm. *Strategic Management Journal*, 17(52), 109-122.
- Grant, R., & Baden-Fuller, C. (2004). *A Knowledge Accessing Theory of Strategic Alliances*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Gratton, L., & Ghoshal, S. (2003). Managing personal human capital: New ethos for the volunteer employee. *European Management Journal*, 21(1), 1-10.

- Gratton, L., Hope-Hailey, V., Stiles, P., & Truss, C. (1999). *Strategic human resource management: Corporate rhetoric and human reality*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Towards a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11(3), 255-274.
- Gunasekara, C. (2004). The third role of Australian universities in human capital formation. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 26(3), 329-343.
- Gurkov, I. (2009). Strategy process as formulation and realization of corporate goals: The synthesis of surveys in Russian firms, *Journal of East European Management Studies*, 14(1), 48-64.
- Guthrie, J. P., Flood, P. C., Liu, W., & Maccurtain, S. (2009). High performance work systems in Ireland; human resource and organisational outcomes. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 2(1), 112-125.
- Hallberg, N.L. (2009). On the relationship between economic rent and profit. Lund Institute of Economic Research Working Paper Series. Economic growth. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 107(2), 407-437.
- Hambrick, D. and Cannella, A. (1989), Strategy implementation as substance and selling. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 3 (4), 278-85.

- Hanushek, E. A., & Kimko, D. D. (2000). Schooling, labour force quality, and the growth of nations. *American Economic Review*, 90(5), 1184-1208.
- Hanushek, E., & Woessmann, L. (2008). The role of cognitive skills in economic development. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 46(3), 607-668.
- Hargreaves, D. H. (2007). *System redesign: the road to transformation in education*. Retrieved on March 12, 2010, from www.ssat-inet.net/resources/publications.aspx
- Harper, D. (2011). *Structural-Functionalism: Grand theory or methodology*. School of Management, UK: University of Leicester.
- Helfat, C. E., Harris, D., & Wolfson, P. J. (2006). The pipeline to the top. Women and men in the top executive ranks of U.S. corporations. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20(4), 42-64.
- Helfat, C. & Peteraf, M. (2003). The dynamic resource-based view: Capability lifecycles. *Strategic Management Journal*, 24, 997-1010.
- Hill, C. W. L., & Jones, G. R. (2001). *Strategic Management: An integrated approach*. Wiley India: Pvt. Ltd.
- Hill, L. H. (2005). Concept mapping to encourage meaningful student learning. *Adult Education*, 16(3), 7-13.
- Hill, M., & Hupe, P. (2014). *Implementing public policy: An introduction to the study of operational governance*. London: Sage.

- Hill, R. (1998). What sample size is “enough” in internet survey research. *Interpersonal computing and Technology: An Electronic Journal for the 21st Century*, 6(3), 1-10. Retrieved on March 12, 2010, from www.ssat-inet.net/resources/publications.aspx
- Hirsch, F. (1976). *Social Limits to Growth*, (London: Routledge).
- Hofer, C. W., & Schendel, D. (1978). *Strategy formulation*. St. Paul, MN: West Publishing.
- Holland, P., & Pyman, A. (2006). Corporate universities: A catalyst for strategic human resource development? *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 30(1), 19-31.
- Holmwood, J. (2005). Functionalism and its critics. *Historical Developments and Theoretical Approaches in Sociology*, 2(1), 1-9. Retrieved on May 5, 2010, from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication>.
- Holton, E. F., & Yamkovenko, B. (2008). Strategic intellectual capital development: A Defining paradigm for HRD? *Human Resource Development Review*, 7(3), 270-291.
- Homan, G., & Macpherson, A. (2005). E-learning in the corporate university. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 29(1), 75-90.
- Howlett, M., & Ramesh, M. (1998). Policy subsystem configurations and policy change: operationalizing the post positivist analysis of the politics of the policy process. *Policy Study Journal*, 26(3), 466-481.
- Hrebiniak, L. G., & Joyce, W. F. (1984). *Implementing strategy*. New York: Macmillan Publishing.

- Hrebiniak, L. G. (2005). *Making strategy work: Leading effective execution and change*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Wharton School Publishing.
- Hrebiniak, L. G. (2006). Obstacles to effective strategy implementation. *Organisational Dynamics*, 35(1), 12-31.
- Hsu, I. C., Lin, C. Y. Y., Lawler, J. J., & Wu, S. H. (2007). Toward a model of organisational human capital development: Preliminary evidence from Taiwan. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 13(2), 251-275.
- Hupe, P. L. (2011). The thesis of incongruent implementation: Revisiting Pressman and Wildavsky. *Public Policy and Administration*, 26 (1), 63-80.
- Idahosa, S. A. (1997). Understanding the bureaucracy contending perspectives. *The Nigerian Journal of Politics and Public Policy*, 1(1).
- Ingraham, P. W. (1987). Toward more systematic consideration of policy design. *Policy Studies Journal*, 15(4), 611-28.
- Ishiyama, J., & Breuning, M. (Eds.). (2010). *21st Century political science: A reference handbook*. Washington, DC: SAGE.
- Islam, N (1995). Growth Empirics: A panel data approach. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 110(4), 11-27.
- Ismail, K. N., & Karem, M. A. (2011). Intellectual capital and the financial performance of banks in Bahrain. *Journal of Business Management and Accounting*, 1(1), 63-77.
- Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (2003). *Managing human resources through strategic partnerships*. 8th Edition. Mason, OH: South-Western

Publishing.

Jacobs, R. (2017). Knowledge work and human resource development.

Human Resource Development Review, 16(2) 176-202.

Jain, H., & Murray, V. (1984). Why the human resources management

function fails. *California Management Review*, 26(4), 95-110.

Jamal, W., & Saif, I. M. (2011). Impact of human capital management on

organisational performance. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, Issue 34, pp. 55-69.

Jayashree, S., Malarvizhi, C., Mayel, S., & Rasti, A. (2015). Significance

of top management commitment on the implementation of ISO 14000 EMS towards sustainability. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 23(12), 2941-2945.

Jick, T. D. (1979). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods:

Triangulation in action. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24(4), 602-611.

Jogulu, U., & Pansiri, J. (2011). Mixed methods: a research design for

management doctoral dissertations. *Management Research Review*, 34(6), 687-701.

Johnes, J. (2006). Measuring teaching efficiency in higher education: An

application to data envelopment analysis to economics graduates from UK Universities, 1993. *European Journal of Operations Research*, 174(1), 443-456.

Johnson, R., & Onwuegbuzie, A. (2004). Mixed methods research: A paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 239-271. Retrieved on March 3, 2010, from

<http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/0013189X033007014>

Kalla, H.A. (2005),” Integrated internal communications: A multidisciplinary perspective”, corporate communications: *An International Journal*, 10(4), 302–314.

Kalu, K. (2011). Institution-building not nation-building: A structural-functional model. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 77(1), 119-137.

Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (2005). *Creating the office of strategy management*. Division of Research, Harvard Business School.

Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (2008). Mastering the management system. *Harvard business review*, 86(1), 29-48.

Katou, A., & Budhwar, P. (2010). Causal relationship between HRM policies and organisational performance: Evidence from the Greek manufacturing sector. *European Management Journal*, 28(1), 25-39.

Kearney, M. (1993). *The Internationalisation of higher education: Issues and trends*. Seminar Paper, UNESCO. Retrieved on May 3, 2012 from http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/24_234.pdf

Kearney, M. (2009). Higher education, research and innovation: Charting the course of the changing dynamics of the knowledge society. In Meek, V. L., Teichler., Ulrich, & Kearney, M. (Eds.), *Higher*

Education, Research and Innovation: Changing Dynamics-Report on the UNESCO Forum on Higher Education, Research and Knowledge 2001-2009. Kassel: International Centre for Higher Education Research.

Kern, A. F. (2009). *Human capital development theory: Implications for education-comparison of influential twenty-first century economists, Samuel Bowles and Gary S. Becker.* Retrieved on June 2, 2012, from http://www.personal.psu.edu/afk119/blogs/career_tech_ed/2009/12/h

Khan, A., & Khandaker, S. (2017). A critical insight into implementation and implementation performance. *Public Policy & Administration*, 15(4), 538-548. Retrieved on March 18, 2018, from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication>

Kirsimarja, B., & Aino, K. (2009). *Knowledge-based view of the firm-theoretical notions and implications for management.* Retrieved on May 2, 2010, from <http://www.lut.fi/documents/10633/109602/tijo>

Kirsimarja, B., & Aino, K. (2015). *Knowledge-based view of the firm: theoretical notions and implications for Management.* Retrieved on April 7, 2016, from <http://www.lut.fi/documents/10633/10>

Kogut, B., & Zander, U. (1996). What firms do: Coordination, identity and learning. *Organ. Sci.* 7(5), 502-518. Retrieved on July 13, 2012, from <https://edisciplinas.usp.br/pluginfile.php/3553367>

Kraaijenbrink, J., & Groen, A. (2008). *Towards a functional resource-based theory of the firm.* Paper presented at the SMS 28th Annual International Conference, Cologne, Germany. Retrieved on March

12, 2010, from <http://kraaijenbrink.com/wp-content/>.

Kraaijenbrink, J. Spender, J. C., & Groen, A. (2009). The resource-based view: A review and assessment of its critiques. *Journal of Management*, 36(1), 349-372. Retrieved on March 10, 2012, from <http://mpa.ub.uni-muenchen.de/21442/>

Kristandl, G., & Bontis, N. (2007). Constructing a definition for intangibles using the resource based view of the firm. *Management Decision*, 45(9),1510-1524. Retrieved on May 12, 2010, from <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/>

Kudonoo, E., Buame, S., & Acheampong, G. (2012). Managing Human Resources for competitive entrepreneurial advantage in Ghana: A resource-based view. *School of Doctoral Studies (European Union) Journal*. Retrieved on July 15, 2014, from www.iiuedu.eu/press/jou

Kuo, C. C., & Yang, C. H. (2008). Knowledge capital and spill over on regional economic growth: evidence from China. *China Economic Review* 19(4), 594-604.

Kurtz, M. J., & Brooks, S. M. (2011). Conditioning the resource course: Globalization, human capital, and growth in oil-rich nations. *Comparative Political Studies*, 44(6), 747-770.

Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (2005). *Corporate Strategic Plan, (2005-2014), Plan 2K14*.

Kwon, D. (2009). *Human capital and its measurement*. Retrieved on March 11, 2010, from <http://www.oecdworldforum2009.org>.

Laughlin, R. (1995). Empirical research in accounting: alternative

- approaches and a case for middle-range thinking. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 8(1)63-87. Retrieved on March, 10, 2016, from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09513579510146>
- Legge, K. (1995). *Human resource management: Rhetorics and realities*. Basingstoke: MacMillan.
- Legon lecturers flee classroom. (2005, August 1). *Ghana Web*.
- Lenka, K. (2012). Employers' view on problems related to workforce skills and qualification. *Journal of competitiveness*, 4(4), 50-66.
- Lepak, D. P., & Snell, S. A. (1999). The human resource architecture: Toward a theory of human capital allocation and development. *Academy of Management Review*, 24(1), 31-48.
- Leydens, J. Lucena, J., & Schneider, J. (2012). Are engineering and social justice in commensurable? A theoretical exploration of macro-sociological frameworks. *International Journal of Engineering, Social Justice, and Peace*, 1(1), 63-82.
- Liedl, C. (2011). *Top-down vs. Bottom-up. Does a top-down approach bear more advantages than a bottom-up approach within the implementation process of housing security projects?* Unpublished Undergraduate Thesis. Universiteit Twente. Netherlands. Retrieved on March 3, 2010, from <http://essay.utwente.nl/61106/1/BSc>
- Lipsky, M. (2010). *Street-level bureaucracy*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- London, M. (1989). *Managing the training enterprise*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Lopez, C., Valle, R., & Herrero, I. (2006). The contribution of core employees to organisational capabilities and efficiency. *Human Resource Management*, 45(1), 81-109.
- Lorange, P. (1982). *Implementation of strategic planning*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Luck, L., Jackson, D., & Usher, K. (2006). Case study: a bridge across paradigms. *Nursing Inquiry*, 13(3), 103-109
- MacDuffie, J. P. (1995). Human resource bundles and manufacturing performance: Organisational logic and flexible production systems in the world auto industry. *Industrial Relations and Labour Review*, 48(2), 197-221.
- Macionis, J. (2009). *Society: the basics (10th ed.)*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Prentice Hall.
- Maimunah, I., & Lawrence, A. (2008). Workforce Diversity: A human resource development perspective towards organisational performance. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(2), 244-250.
- Malkab, M., Nawawl, J., Mahmud, A., & Sujiono, E. (2015). The implementer disposition on teacher certification policy in Indonesia. *International Education Studies*, 8(5), 54-60.
- Manda, G. (2013). *Human Capital Development Activities*. Retrieved from http://www.ehow.com/info_12046900_human-capital
- Mango, D. R. (2014). Determinants of successful strategy implementation: A survey of selected public schools in South Africa. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, 3(1), 41-46.

- Mankiw, N. G., Romer, D., & Weil, D. (1992). A contribution to the empirics of economic growth. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 107(2), 407–437.
- Mankoe, J. O. (2006). *Policy analysis in education*. Kumasi, Ghana: Payless Publication Limited.
- Manuh, T., Gariba, S., & Budu, J. (2007). *Change and transformation in Ghana's publicly funded universities: A study of experiences, lessons and opportunities*. Ghana: Woeli Publishing services.
- Marginson, S. (2014). Student self-formation in international education. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 18(1), 6-22.
- Marimuthu, M., Arokiasamy, L., and Ismail, L. (2009). Human capital development and its impact on firm performance: Evidence from developmental economics. *The Journal of International Social Research*, 2(8), 265- 272.
- Marks, A. (2003). 'Welcome to the new ambivalence: Reflections on the historical and current cultural antagonism between the working class male and higher education'. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 24(1), 83-93.
- Marshall, C. & Rossman, G. (2006). *Designing qualitative research*, Sage Publications, 4th edition, London.
- Mathis, R.L. & Jackson, J.H. (2011). *Human resource management*. South-Western Cengage Learning, USA.
- Matland, R. (1995). Synthesizing the implementation literature: The ambiguity-conflict model of policy. *Journal of Public*

Administration Research and Theory, 5(2), 145-174.

Mason, J. (2002). Qualitative interviews: Asking, listening and interpreting.

In T. May (ed.). *Qualitative research in action*, London: Sage.

Mayer, P., & Wilds, M. (2015). *Managing change at universities. A selection of case studies from Africa and Southeast Asia*. University of Applied Sciences. Osnabruck.

Mayo, A. (2001). *The human value of the enterprise: Valuing people as assets – Monitoring, measuring, managing*. London: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.

Mazmanian, D. A., & Sabatier, P. A. (1989). *Implementation and public policy*, Lanham: University Press of America.

Mazmanian, D. A., & Sabatier, P. A. (1981). *Effective policy implementation*. Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books.

Mazmanian, D., & Sabatier, P. (1983). *Implementation and public policy*. New York: HarperCollin.

Mbahalati, J. O. (2012). The genesis of the knowledge-based view. *Journal of Knowledge Management and Practice*, 13(2).

Mehta, A. (2011). Human capital management: A comprehensive approach to augment organisational performance. *Review of Management*, 1(2), 44-57.

Melnychuk, D. O., Pidlisnyuk, V. V., & Stefanovska, T. R. (2003). *Key questions about sustainable development: what everyone needs to know*. Kyiv: Hopak Publisher House.

- Mertens, D. M. (2010). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods (3rd ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Meter, D. S. V., & Horn, C. E. V. (1975). The policy implementation process: A conceptual Framework. *Administration and Society*, 6(4), 445-488.
- Mintzberg, H. (1983). *Structure in fives: Designing effective organisations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Moghalu, K. C. (2013). *The Human Capital Dimension of Economic Transformation*. Lecture delivered at the Golden Jubilee Ceremony of the 1st graduates of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Retrieved from <https://allafrica.com/download/resource/>
- Moore, M., Konrad, A., & Hunt, J. (2010). Creating a vision boosts the impact of top management support on the employment of managers with disabilities. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, 29(6), 609-626.
- Nadler, L., & Nadler, Z. (1989). *Developing human resources*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey – Bass
- Najam, A. (1995). A developing countries' perspective on population, environment and development. *Population and Research Review*.
- Najim, N. A., Al-Naimi, M. A., & Alnaji, L. (2012). Impact of intellectual capital on realising university goals, sample of Jordanian Universities. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 4

(14), 153-162.

National Accreditation Board (2015). *Tertiary education statistics report: Composite statistical report on all categories of tertiary educational institutions in Ghana for the 2012/2013 Academic year*. Accra, Ghana: National Accreditation Board.

Ndinguri, E., Prieto, L., & Machtmes, K. (2012). Human capital development dynamics: the knowledge-based approach. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 11(2), 121-136.

Netcoh, S. (2016). *The strengths and limitations of human capital theory in educational research and policymaking*. Retrieved on June 8, 2017, from <http://blog.uvm.edu/cessphd/>

Nickerson, J. A., & Zenger, T. R. (2004). A knowledge-based theory of the firm: The problem-solving perspective. *Organisation Science*, 15(6), 617-632.

Niringiye, A., Luvanda, E., & Shitundu, J. (2010). Human capital and labor productivity in East African Manufacturing Firms. *Current Research Journal of Economic Theory*, 2(2), 48-54.

Noble, C. H. (1999). The eclectic roots of strategy implementation research. *Journal of Business Research*, 45(1), 119-134.

Nonaka, I. & Takeuchi, H. (1995). *The knowledge-creating company*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Nonaka, I., & von Krogh, G. (2009). Tacit knowledge and knowledge conversion: Controversy and advancement in organisational knowledge creation theory. *Organisation Science*, 20(3), 635-652.

- Nordhaug, O. (1993). *Human capital in organisations: Competency, training and learning*. Oslo: Scandinavian University Press.
- Norton, D. P. (2006). How to implement a new strategy without disrupting your organisation. *Harvard Business Review*, 84(3), 100-109.
- Nugroho. (2009). *Public policy*. Jakarta, PT. Elex Media Komputindo.
- Obi, N. I. (2007). Sustainable development security for the future. *Journal of Social Policy and Society*, 2(4), 97-104
- Octavian, J., & Nicoleta, D. (2010). Investment in human capital-an investment in future. *Annals of the University of Oradea, Economic Science Series*, 19(2), 270-276.
- OECD (2001). *Insights: Human Capital*. Retrieved March 3, 2009, from <https://www.oecd.org/insights/37967294.pdf>
- OECD (2007). *Higher Education and Regions: Globally Competitive, Locally Engaged*. Paris. OECD Publishing.
- Okoroafor, C. (2010). Human capital development and vision 20:2020. A perspective on tertiary education. *SBMT Nekede Conference Journal*, 1(2), 71-73.
- Okoye, P., & Ezejiofor, A. (2013). The effect of human resources development on organisational productivity. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(10), 250-268.
- Olaniyan. D. A., & Okemakinde, T. (2008). Human capital theory: Implications for educational development. *European Journal of Scientific Research*, 24(2), 157-162.

- Olusegun, O. T., & Adenugba, A. A. (2013). Human capital development in first bank in Nigeria PLC. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(2), 783-801.
- Oluwatobi, S. O., & Ogunrinola, I. O. (2011). Government expenditure on human capital development: Implications for economic growth in Nigeria. *Journal of sustainable development*, 4(3), 72-80.
- Onuka, A., & Ajayi, K. (2012). Effects of manpower development on workers' job performance. *European Journal of Educational Studies*, 4(3), 423-430.
- Orsini, B. (2000) Improving internal communications. *Internal Auditor*, 57(6), 28-33.
- Oruma, B. W., mironga, J. M., & Muma, B. O. (2014). Top management commitment towards implementation of total quality management (TQM) in construction companies in Nakuru County-Kenya. *International Journal of Economics, Finance and Management Sciences*, 2(6), 332-338.
- Osim, R., Onya, U., Chika C., & Ekpiken, E. (2013). The role of universities in human capital development: Implications for national transformation. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4(23). Retrieved on March 2, 2014, from <https://www.iiste.org/Journals>.
- Osman-Gani, A. M. (2015). Human capital development in Singapore: An analysis of national policy perspectives. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 6(3), 276-287. Retrieved on June 8, 2016, from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/238066848>

- O'Toole, L. (1986). Policy recommendations for multi actor implementation: An assessment of the field. *Journal of Public Policy*, 6(2), 181-210.
- Oyinlola, O., & Adeyemi, A. (2014). An empirical analysis of human capital development and organisational performance in banking sector: a Nigerian experience. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*, 2(7), 1-15.
- Palumbo, D. J., & Calista, D. J. (1990). *Implementation and the policy process: Opening up the black box*. New York: Greenwood Press.
- Palumbo, D., Maynard-Moody, S. & Wright, P. (1984). Measuring degrees of successful implementation: Achieving policy versus statutory goals. *Journal of Applied Social Research*, 8(1), 45-74.
- Parnes, H. S. (1984). *People power*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Parsons, T. (1961). *Theories of society: foundations of modern sociological theory*, Free Press, New York.
- Peltokorpi, V. & Tsuyuki, E. (2006). Knowledge governance in a Japanese project-based organisation. *Knowledge Management Research and Practice*, 4(1), 36-45.
- Penrose, E. T. (1959). *The theory of the growth of the firm*. Oxford: Blackwell Business.
- Peretomode, V., & Chukwuma, R. (2012). Manpower development and lecturers' productivity in tertiary institutions in Nigeria. *European Scientific Journal*, 8(13), 16-28.

- Perrin, R. G. (1973). The Functionalist theory of change revisited. *Pacific Sociological Review*, 16(1), 47-60.
- Pidlisnyuk, V. (2010). Education in sustainable development: the role of universities. *Economic and Environmental Studies*, 10(1), 59-70.
- Porter, M. E. (2000). Location, competition, and economic development: local clusters in a global economy. *Economic Development Quarterly*, 14(1), 15-34.
- Pressman, J. L., & Wildavasky, A. (1973). *Implementation: How great expectations in Washington are dashed in Oakland*. Berkley: University of California Press.
- Pritchett, L. (2001). Where has all the education gone? *World Bank Economic Review*, 15(3), 367–91.
- Pritchett, L. (2013). *The rebirth of education: From 19th century schools to 21st century learning*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press for Centre for Global Development.
- Psacharopoulos, G., & Woodhall, M. (1985). *Education for development: An analysis of investment choices*. Washington, DC: Oxford University Press/World Bank.
- Purcell, K. & Pitcher, J. (1996). *Great expectations: the new diversity of graduate skills and aspirations*, Manchester, careers services unit.
- Puukka, J., & Marmolejo, F. (2008). Higher education and regional mission: Lessons learnt from the OECD review project. *Higher Education Policy*, 21(1), 217-244.

- Quartey, P. (2009). *Migration in Ghana: A country profile 2009*. Geneva, Switzerland: International Organization for Migration.
- Radomsla, J. (2014). Role of managers in effective strategy implementation. *International Journal of Contemporary Management*, 13(3), 77-85.
- Raps, A. (2004): Implementing strategy. *Strategic Finance*, 85(12), 48-53. Retrieved on May 12, 2009, from <https://sfmagazine.com/wp-content/uploads/>
- Rastogi, P. N. (2000). Sustaining enterprise competitiveness – Is human capital the answer? *Human Systems Management*, 19(3), 193-203.
- Reich, R. B. (1991). *The work of nations: Preparing ourselves for 21st century capitalism*. New York, NY: A.A. Knopf.
- Reich, R. B. (1992). *The work of nations*. New York, NY: Vintage Books.
- Richards, D., & Smith, M. (2006). Central control and policy implementation in the UK. *Journal of Comparative Policy Analysis*, 8(4), 325-45.
- Rodriguez, P. J., & Loomis, R. S. (2007). A new view of institutions, human capital, and market standardization. *Education, Knowledge & Economy*, 1(1), 93–105.
- Romer, P. (1990). Human capital and growth: theory and evidence. *Carnegie Rochester Conference Series on Public Policy*, 32(1), 251-286. Retrieved on July 4, 2008, from <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article>
- Rosak-Szurocka-Boriowski, S. (2007). Workers as the Basic Determinant of the Stationery Medical Treatment Services Quality. In

*Proceedings of 4th International Scientific Conference. Manazment
Tudskeho Potencialu v Podniku Zilina.*

Rosen, H. S. (1999). *Public Finance*. New York: McGraw -Hill

Rothwell, W., & Kazanas, H. (1999). *Building in-house leadership and
management development programs*. Westport, Conn.: Quorum
Books.

Rubin, H., & Rubin, I. (1995). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing
data*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rumelt, R. (1984). Towards a strategic theory of the firm. In: Lamb, R.
(Ed.) *Competitive Strategic Management*. Englewood Cliffs:
Prentice Hall.

Saif, N. (2011). *The impact of the application of total quality management
standards in the Jordanian government hospitals from the point of
view of doctors and nurses*. PhD. thesis in the department, Amman
Arab university for graduate studies. Amman, Jordan. Retrieved on
March 10, 2015 from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/>

SalehElomr, I. (2012). The relationship between education and economic
growth in Saudi Arabia. *The Faculty of Commerce's Scientific
Research Journal*, 2(10), 1-15. Alexandria university.

Sarantakos, S. (2013). *Social research*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Satterfield J. M., & Hughes, E. (2007). Emotion skills training for medical
students: a systematic review. *Med. Educ.* 41(10), 935-941.

- Siegel, H. (2006). Epistemological diversity and educational research: Much ado about nothing much? *Educational Researcher*, 35(2), 3-12. Retrieved on March 12, 2015 from <http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/001>
- Schein, E. (1978). *Career dynamics: Matching individuals and organizational needs*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Schultz, T. W. (1971). *Investments in human capital*. New York: Macmillan.
- Schultz, T. W. (1993). The economic importance of human capital in modernization. *Education Economics*, 1(1), 13-19.
- Seddon, T. (2001). Exploring capacity-building: from functionalist to political analysis. Retrieved on May 5, 2010, from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/234756460_Exploring_Capacity-Building
- Seleim, A., Ashour, A., & Bontis, N. (2007). Human capital and organisational performance: A study of Egyptian software companies. *Management Decision*, 45(4), 789-801.
- Seligman, B., Kress, D., Winfrey, W., Feranil, I. & Agarwal, K. (1997). Reproductive health and human capital: A framework for expanding policy dialogue. *Policy Project Paper. The Futures Group International*. The US Agency for International Development (USAID).
- Selvarajan, T. T., Ramamoorthy, N., Flood, P. C., Guthrie, J. P., MacCurtain, S., & Liu, W. (2007). The role of human capital philosophy in promoting firm innovativeness and performance: Test

of a causal model. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18(8), 1456-1470.

Seshadri, S. (2010). *Sourcing resource competency and effective collaboration: A resource-based view*. Research Collection. Lee Kong Chian School of Business.

Sharabati, A. (2013). The relationship between human capital and Jordanian pharmaceutical organizations' business performance. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 3(1), 260-279.

Sharabati, A., & Nour, A. (2013). Relationship between human capital development and university's business performance. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5(6), 104-119.

Sheffrin, M. S. (2003). *Economics: Principles in action*. New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Siddharthan, N., & Narayanan, K. (2013). *Human capital and development. The Indian experience*. India: Springer.

Simkovic, M. (2013). Risk-Based Student Loans. *Washington and Law Review*, 70(1), 527-648. Retrieved on June 18, 2015, from <http://scholarlycommons.law.wlulr/vol70/iss1/8>

Simon, D. G., Hitt, M. A., & Ireland, R. D., (2007). Managing firm resources in dynamic environments to create value: looking inside the black box. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(1), 273-292.

- Skivington, J. E., & Daft, R. L. (1991). A study of organisational framework and process modalities for the implementation of business-level strategic decisions. *Journal of Management Studies*, 28(1), 45-68.
- Smallbone, D., & Welter, F. (2009). *Entrepreneurship and small business development in post-socialist economies*, London: Routledge.
- Smith, A. (1776). An inquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations, Book 2. Retrieved on March, 12, 2014, from <https://oll.libertyfund.org/titles/smith-an-inquiry-into-the-nature->
- Snell, S. A., & Dean, J. W. (1992). Integrated manufacturing and human resource management: A human capital perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35(3), 467-50
- Sofoluwe, A. O., Shokunbi, M. O., Raimi, L., & Ajewole, T. (2013). Entrepreneurship education as a strategy for boosting Human Capital Development and Employability in Nigerua: Issues, prospects, challenges and solutions. *Journal of Business Administration and Education*, 3(1), 25-50.
- Son, H. H. (2010). Human capital development. *ADB Economics Working Paper*, No. 225. Retrieved on March 14, 2012, from <http://www.adb.org/documents/working-papers/2010/economics>
- Soukiazis, E., & Antunes, M. (2012). Foreign trade, human capital and economic growth: An empirical approach for the European Union Countries. *Journal of International Trade and Economic Development*, 21(1), 3-24.

- Souleh, S. (2014). The impact of human capital management on the innovativeness of research centres: The case of scientific research centres in Algeria. *International Journal of Business Management*, 11(2), 80-96.
- Spence, M. (1973). Job Market Signaling. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 87(3), 355-374.
- Spitzer, R., Swidler, M. (2003). Using a marketing approach to improve internal communications. *Employment Relations Today*, 30(1), 69-82.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Sum, V. (2011). Integrating training in business strategies means greater impact of training on the firm's competitiveness. *Research in Business and Economics Journal*, 4(1), 1-19. Retrieved on May, 12, 2015, from <https://www.aabri.com/manuscripts/11771.pdf>
- Talerngsri, A. (2010). *Building the future base on sustainability*. Retrieved on April 16, 2013, from: <http://www.smethailandclub.com/web/columnist/inside/id/3>.
- Terborg, J. R., & Ungson, G. R. (1985). Group-administered bonus pay and retail store performance: A two-year study of management compensation. *Journal of Retailing*, 61(1), 63-77.

- Tessema, A. (2014). The impact of human capital on company performance: Case of the footwear sector in Ethiopia. *Journal of Business and Administrative Studies*, 6(2), 76-103. Retrieved on March 14, 2015, from <https://www.ajol.info/index.php/jbas/article/view/169095/158553>
- Tetty, J. W. (2010). *Challenges of developing and retaining the next generation of academics: Deficits in academic staff capacity at African Universities*. Partnership for Higher Education in Africa. Retrieved March 10, 2012, from http://www.foundation-artnership.org/pubs/pdf/tetty_deficits.pdf
- Thaker, S. (2008). *Purpose of Training and Development*. Retrieved on February 11, 2012, from <http://www.trainingguru.org/>.
- Theriou, N., Aggelidis, V., & Theriou, G. N. (2009). A theoretical framework contrasting the resource-based perspective and the knowledge-based view. *European Research Studies*, 12(2), 177-190.
- Tim, M., & Brinkerhoff, R. O. (2008). *Courageous Training Bold actions for business*. Colorado: Bernet.
- Torrington, D., Hall, L., & Taylor, S. (2005). *Human resource management*. Edinburg Gate, England: Pearson Education Limited,
- Truss, C. (2001a). Complexities and controversies in linking HRM with organisational outcomes. *Journal of Management Studies*, 38(8), 1121-1149.

- Truss, C. (2001b). Shifting the paradigm in human resource management: From the resource based view to complex adaptive systems. *HRM Working Paper Series*. Kingston Business School, Kingston University.
- Tsendjav, E. (2011). *Factors affecting the implementation effectiveness of civil service reform policy in Mongolia*. (Doctoral thesis, National Institute of Development Administration). Retrieved on March 10 2015, from <http://libdcms.nida.ac.th/thesis6/2011/b175242.pdf>
- Turner, J. H. (2010). *Theoretical principles of sociology*. New York, Springer.
- Ubeku, A. K. (1983). *Industrial Relations in Developing Countries: The case of Nigeria*. London: Macmillan.
- Ukenna, S., Ijeoma, N., Anionwu, C., & Olise, M. (2010). Effect of investment in human capital development on organisational performance: Empirical examination of the perception of small business owners in Nigeria. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, 26(1), 1450-2275.
- Ulrich, D. (1997a). Measuring human resources: An overview of practice and a prescription for results. *Human Resource Management*, 36(3), 303-320.
- University of Cape Coast (2012). *Corporate Strategy (2012-2017)*.
- University for Development Studies (2017). *Strategic Plan for Workforce Development (2017-2023)*.

University of Education, Winneba (2014). *Corporate Strategic Plan (2012-2017)*.

University of Ghana (2014). *Strategic Plan (2014-2024)*.

University of Mines and Technology (2015). *Strategic Plan (2015-2024)*.

Urwin, K., & Jordan, A. (2008). Does public policy support or undermine climate change adaptation? Exploring policy interplay across different scales of governance. *Global Environmental Change*, 18(1), 180–191.

Van Cauwenberge, P., Vander Bauwhede, H., & Schoonjans, B. (2013). An evaluation of public spending: the effectiveness of a government - supported networking program in Flanders. *Environment and Planning C-Government and Policy*, 31(1), 24- 38.

Van Meter, D. S., & Van Horn, C. W. (1975). The policy implementation process: A conceptual framework. *Administration and Society*, 6(4), 445-498.

Vodak, J. (2010). How to Measure return on investment into human capital development. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 1, Turkey: CAG University.

Vogel, R., & Keen, W. H. (2010). Public higher education and New York State's economy. *Economic Development Quarterly*, 24(4), 384-392.

Vedung, E. (1997). *Public policy and program evaluation*. New Brunswick: Transaction Publishers.

- Waijanjo, E., Mukulu, E., & Kahiri, J. (2012). Relationship between strategic human resource management and firm performance of Kenya's corporate organisations. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2(10), 62-70.
- Wali, M. A. (2010). *The dynamics of policy implementation in Nigeria*, Bloomington: Universe.
- Wang, H. C., He, J., & Mahoney, J. T. (2009). Firm-specific knowledge resources and competitive advantage: the roles of economic and relationship-based employee governance mechanisms. *Strategic Management Journal*, 30(1), 1265-1285.
- Wang, S., & Noe, R. A. (2010). Knowledge Sharing: A review and directions for future research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 20(2), 115-131.
- Watson, T. J. (1995). In search of HRM: Beyond the rhetoric and reality distinction or the case of the dog that didn't bark. *Personnel Review*, 24(4), 6-16.
- Weatherly, L. A. (2003). Human capital – The elusive asset. *HR Magazine*, 48(3), 1-8.
- Weatherley, R., & Lipsky, M. (1977). Street-level bureaucrats and institutional innovation: Implementing special-education reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 47(2), 171-192.
- Webster, K. A. S. (2005). *Parental involvement: Perceptions of how Section 1118 of No Child Left Behind is being implemented in New Orleans Public Schools*. University of Minnesota, Minnesota.

- Weiss, A. (1995). Human Capital vs signaling Explanation of Wages. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 9(4), 133-154.
- Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Werner, J., & DeSimone, R. (2012). *Human resource development*. USA: Erin Joyner.
- Wheelen, T.L., & Hunger, D.J. (2006). *Concepts in strategic management and business policy*. Upper Saddle River: Pearson - Prentice
- Winslow, C. D., & Bramer, W. L. (1994). *Future work: Putting knowledge to work in the knowledge economy*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Wognum, A. A., & Lam, J. F. (2000). Stakeholder involvement in strategic HRD aligning: the impact on HRD effectiveness. *International Journal of Training and Development*, 4(2), 98-110.
- Woods, M., Miles, P. (2014). Collaborative development of enterprise policy: a process model for developing evidence-based policy recommendation using community focused strategic conversations and SERVQUAL. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 27(3), 174-189.
- Winter, S. (2006). Implementation. In Peters, B. G. and Pierre, J. (Eds.). *Handbook of public policy*, (pp. 151-66). London, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Wright, P., & Kehoe, R. (2007). *Human resource practices and organisational commitment: A deeper examination*. Centre for Advanced Human Resource Studies working Paper Series, Cornell University. Retrieved on March 2, 2015, from <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/>
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research design and methods*. Applied Social Research Methods Series, 5. London: Sage publications.
- Youndt, M. A., Subramaniam, M. & Scott, S. A. (2004). Intellectual capital profiles: An examination of investments and returns. *Journal of Management Studies*, 41(2), 335-361.
- Yueh, L. (2013). What drives China's growth? *National Institute Economic review*, 233(1), 4-15. Retrieved on July 8, 2015, from <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F002795011322300102>
- Zamani, F. G., Nahandi, Y. B., Lalepour, M., & Rezagholibeyghi, A. (2012). The relation between corporate governance and intellectual capital stressing human capital characteristics. *International Journal of Business and Management Tomorrow*, 2(7), 1-7.
- Zetter, J. (2005). Frameworks for sound urban policy implementation. *Town and Country Planning*, 74(2), 57-60.
- Zula, K., & Chermack, T. (2007). Integrative literature review. Human capital for planning. A review of literature and implications in human resource development. *Human Resource Development Review*, 6(3), 245-262.

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE ON IMPLEMENTATION OF HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

Identification Box

Name of interviewer

Institution.....

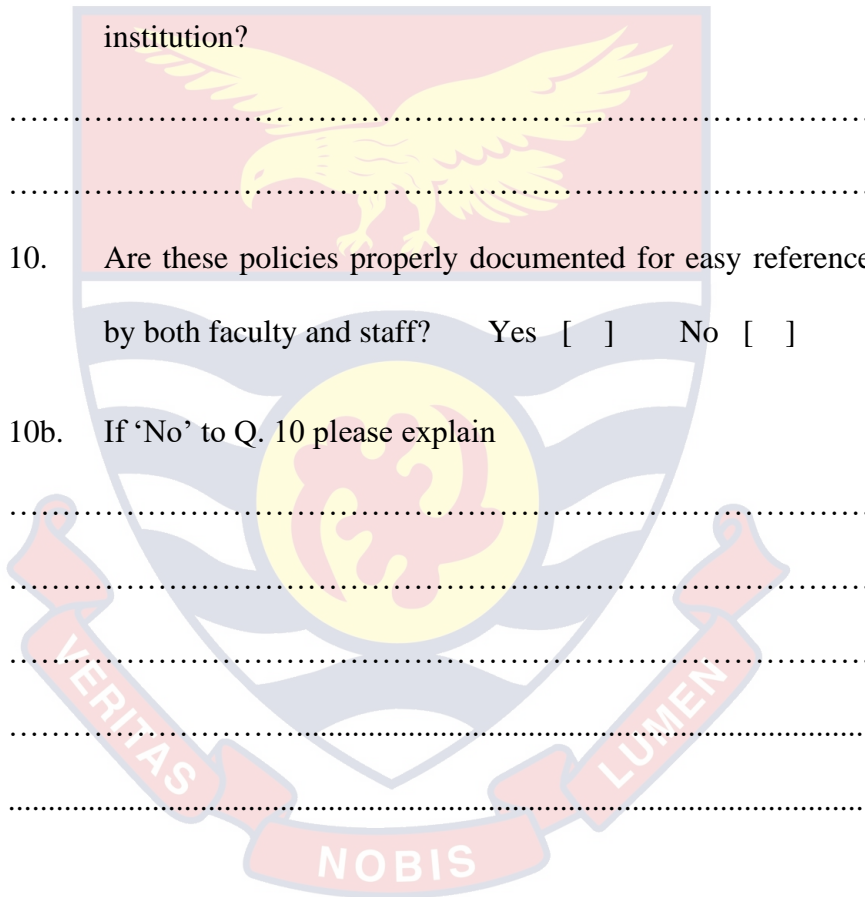
Section A: Demographic Characteristics of respondents

1. Name of institution
2. Sex of respondent Male Female
3. Marital status Married Single Divorced
 Separated Widowed
4. Status in the institution Senior member (Teaching)
 Senior member (Admin)
5. Highest educational qualification
6. Number of years in the present institution
7. Rank/job title of respondent

SECTION B: Human Capital Development Policies in the Publicly-funded Universities

8. Does your institution have policies with regard to developing its human capital? Yes [] No []

9. If 'Yes' to Q.8 what are the human capital development programmes and practices for faculty and staff of your institution?



.....

.....

10. Are these policies properly documented for easy reference by both faculty and staff? Yes [] No []

10b. If 'No' to Q. 10 please explain

.....

.....

.....

.....

SECTION C: implementation of Human Capital Development Strategies

The implementation of human capital development strategies in institutions such as the publicly funded Universities is mostly influenced by some organisational factors.

11. Kindly indicate by ticking [✓] the most appropriate for your level of awareness of the fact that the implementation of human capital development strategies in your institution is influenced by certain organisational factors.

a. Not at all aware []

b. Somewhat aware []

c. Extremely aware []

12. The organisational factors in the table have been identified as having the much influence on the implementation of the human capital development strategies in most publicly funded universities. Kindly indicate your level of agreement by ticking [✓] the most appropriate response against each of the organisational factors in the table as pertains to your institution.

Organisational factors		Level of Agreement		
		Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree
a	Top management support			
b	Resource allocation			
c	Disposition of the implementing department			
d	Departmental communication			

13. Kindly indicate by ticking [✓] the most appropriate level of influence that each of the organisational factors has on the implementation of the human capital development strategies in your institution.

Organisational factors		Level of influence		
		Not at all influential	Somewhat influential	Very influential
a	Top management support			
b	Resource allocation			
c	Disposition of the implementing department			
d	Departmental communication			

14. Kindly provide an explanation to your choice on the level of influence by each of the organisational factors in Q13.

.....

.....

.....

SECTION D: Mode of Accessing Opportunities for Human Capital Development

15. Does the human capital development strategies of your institution provide opportunities for the faculty and staff to pursue post-qualification education?

Yes [] No []

16. If 'Yes' to Q.15, please specify.

.....
.....

17. Have you ever accessed any of the opportunities stated in

Q.16? Yes [] No []

18. If 'Yes' to Q.17, please specify

.....
.....

19. Does your institution have procedures in place for faculty and staff to access the opportunities for human capital development?

Yes [] No []

20. Have you ever used those procedures in accessing the opportunities for human capital development?

Yes [] No []

21. If 'Yes' to Q.20, please specify

.....
.....
.....

22. Were the procedures easily accessible?

Yes [] No []

23. Please provide an explanation for your choice in Q.22

.....
.....
.....

SECTION E: Challenges in Implementing the Human Capital

Development Strategies

24. Does management of this institution strictly adhere to the documented policies to ensure the development of its human capital?

Yes [] No []

25. Kindly provide an explanation to your choice in Q.24

.....
.....
.....

26. Have there been any improvement in your knowledge and skills as a result of the human capital development opportunity you ever assessed?

Yes [] No []

27. If 'yes' to Q26 kindly indicate by ticking [✓] the most appropriate for your level of improvement in knowledge and skills resulting from the human capital development opportunity you ever accessed.

- a. Little improvement []
- b. Moderate improvement []
- c. Much improvement []

28. Are there any challenges that usually confront your institution in the process of implementing policies aimed at developing its human capital?

Yes [] No []

29. If 'yes' to Q28 please specify those challenges.

.....

.....

.....

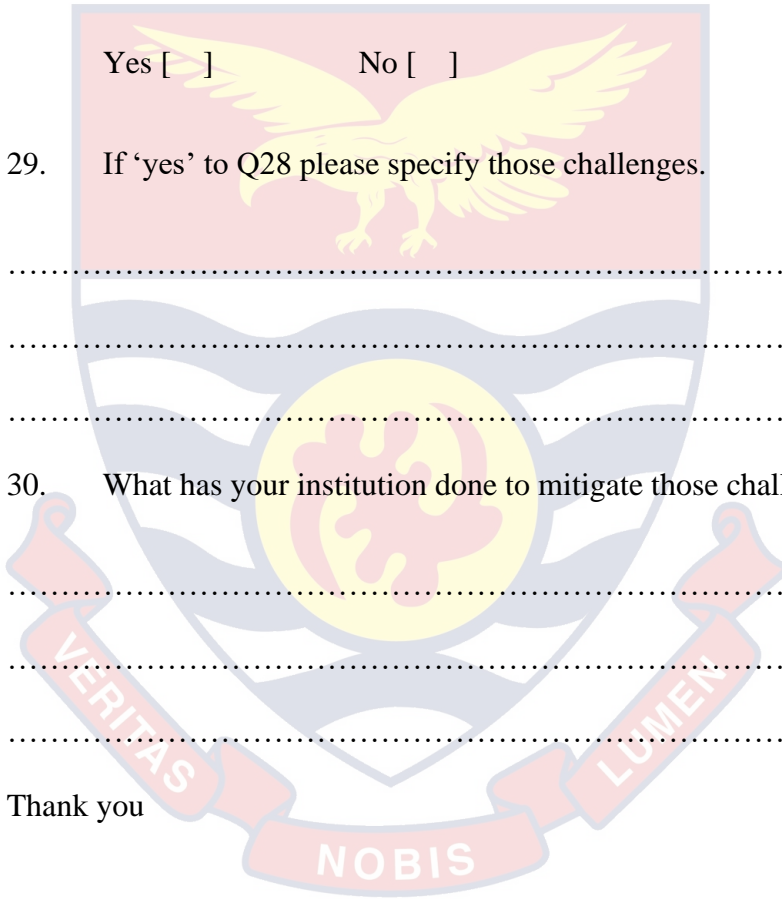
30. What has your institution done to mitigate those challenges?

.....

.....

.....

Thank you



APPENDIX B
INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR KEY INFORMANTS IN THE
PUBLICLY- FUNDED UNIVERSITIES

<p>Identification Box</p> <p>Status of key informant</p> <p>Institution.....</p>

1. What are the human capital development programmes and practices for faculty and staff of this institution?
2. Are these programmes and practices properly documented as policies for easy reference by both faculty and staff?
3. Does management of this institution adhere strictly to those policies when considering the development of its faculty and staff?
4. The implementation of human capital development strategies in institutions such as the publicly funded universities had been found in various studies, to be influenced by certain organisational factors. Are you aware of the prevalence of some of such organisational factors in your institution?
5. Kindly mention some of such organisational factors prevalent in your institution.
6. Kindly discuss with me the extent to which each of the organisational factors listed below, influence the implementation of those programmes and practices aimed at developing faculty and staff of your institution:

- a. Top management support
 - b. Resource allocation
 - c. Disposition of the implementing department
 - d. Departmental communication
7. Following from the effects of the above stated organisational factors, what mode(s) does your institution adopt in developing its existing faculty and staff?
8. Does the human capital development strategies of your institution provide opportunities for your faculty and staff to pursue post qualification education?
9. How do faculty and staff access these opportunities for their professional development?
10. What are the challenges that usually face your institution with regard to the implementation of the human capital development strategies of your institution?
11. What has your institution done to mitigate those challenges?

Thank you

APPENDIX C

TABLE FOR DETERMINING SAMPLE SIZE FROM A GIVEN POPULATION

N.....n	N.....n	N.....n	N.....n	N.....n
10.....10	100.....80	280.....162	800.....260	2800.....338
15.....14	110.....86	290.....165	850.....265	3000.....341
20.....19	120.....92	300.....169	900.....269	3500.....346
25.....24	130.....97	320.....175	950.....274	4000.....351
30.....28	140.....103	340.....181	1000.....278	4500.....354
35.....32	150.....108	360.....186	1100.....285	5000.....357
40.....36	160.....113	380.....191	1200.....291	6000.....361
45.....40	170.....118	400.....196	1300.....297	7000.....364
50.....44	180.....123	420.....201	1400.....302	8000.....367
55.....48	190.....127	440.....205	1500.....306	9000.....368
60.....52	200.....132	460.....210	1600.....310	10000.....370
65.....56	210.....136	480.....214	1700.....313	15000.....375
70.....59	220.....140	500.....217	1800.....317	20000.....377
75.....63	230.....144	550.....226	1900.....320	30000.....379
80.....66	240.....148	600.....243	2000.....322	40000.....380
85.....70	250.....152	650.....242	2200.....327	50000.....381
90.....73	260.....155	700.....248	2400.....331	75000.....382
95.....76	270.....159	750.....245	2600.....335	100000.....384

Where N = Population size, and n = sample size required.

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) in Hill (1998)

APPENDIX D

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
Institutional Review Board
School of Graduate Studies and Research

TELEPHONE: +233 42 32440-9 & 32480-9 Ext. 237
DIRECT: +233 42 35351 & 028 9670793(4)

TELEGRAM: UNIVERSITY, CAPE COAST.

Our Ref: UCC/IRB/4^A
Your Ref:



C/O UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

8th October, 2014

Mr. Francis Narh Akrono
Institutes of Development Studies
U.C.C

ETHICAL CLEARANCE –ID NO: UCCIRB: 8/10/2014

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted **Provisional Approval** for implementation of your research protocol titled:

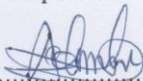
“Practical Implementation of Human Capital Development Strategies for Employees in the Public Universities in Ghana: Myth or Reality”.

This approval requires that you submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

Please note that any modification of the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol


.....
For: Joseph C. Sefenu
ADMINISTRATOR

cc: The Chairman, UCCIRB

APPENDIX E

INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES & LEGAL STUDIES
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

Telephone: 03321-32983/35410/37105
Fax: 03321-32982
Website: www.cds-ucc.edu.gh



Post Office Box 01
University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast

Our Ref: IDS/40/Vol. 4/172
Your Ref:

Date: 8th October, 2014.

The Registrar
University of Ghana
Legon

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

We write to introduce to you **Mr. Francis Narh Akrono**, a student pursuing **Ph.D (Development Studies)** programme with Registration Number SS/DSD/07/0001 at the Institute for Development Studies, University of Cape Coast.

He is writing his thesis on the topic: **"PRACTICAL IMPLEMENTATION OF HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES FOR EMPLOYEES IN THE PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA: MYTH OR REALITY"**.

We shall be grateful if you can accord him all the necessary assistance that he requires for his thesis.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Betty K. Addo-Nkrumah'.

Betty K. Addo-Nkrumah (Mrs.)

Assistant Registrar

For: Director

.....
Assistant Registrar
INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
CAPE COAST

cc: Director, IDS, UCC.



UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

DIVISION OF HUMAN RESOURCE

P. O. Box 25, Winneba, Ghana. Tel: 233- 03323-21028/233-03323-22139/140 Ext. 1157
e-mail: personnel@uew.edu.gh

Our Ref: PF/1266/99

October 27, 2014

Mr. Francis Narh Akrono
College of Languages Education
University of Education, Winneba
Ajumako

Dear Mr. Akrono,

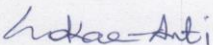
RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA

We refer to your letter on the above subject dated October 20, 2014 and write to inform you that permission has been granted you to collect data for your PhD thesis.

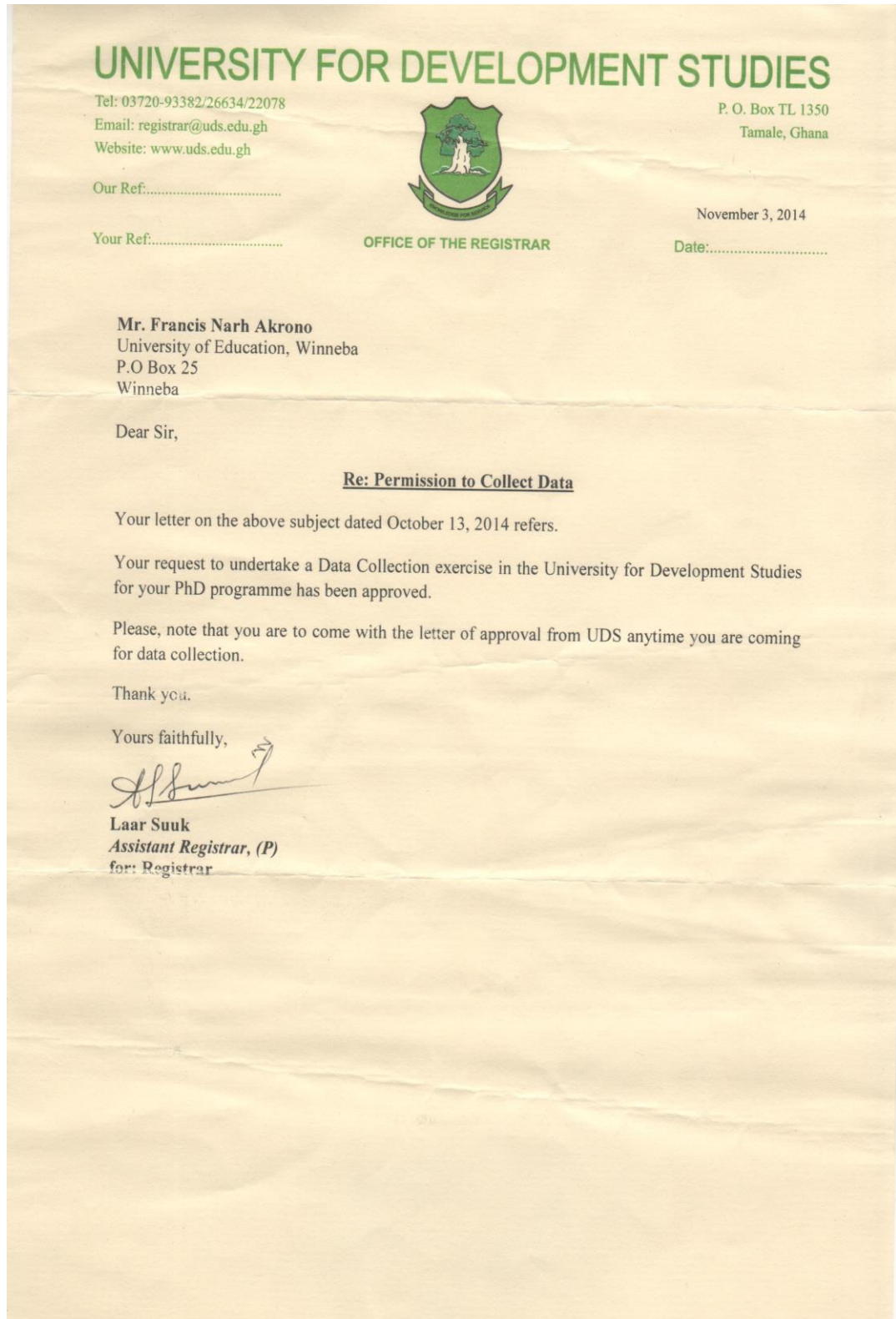
We wish you well in your studies.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,


Christie Okae-Anti (Mrs.)
Deputy Registrar, Division of Human Resource

APPENDIX G



APPENDIX H



UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

REGISTRAR'S OFFICE

P. O. BOX LG 25 LEGON, ACCRA, GHANA

My Ref: No.: LR.79

11th November, 2014

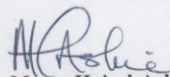
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

INTRODUCTORY LETTER
MR. FRANCIS NARH AKRONO

This comes to introduce Mr. Francis Narh Akrono, a PhD candidate of the University of Cape Coast. He is conducting his research on the topic "Practical Implementation of Human Capital Development Strategies for Employees in the Public Universities of Ghana".

Mr. Akrono has been granted permission to contact teaching and non-teaching Senior Members in the University of Ghana to collect data relating to his research topic.

I should be grateful if you would assist him with the information he needs.


Mercy Haizel-Ashia
REGISTRAR

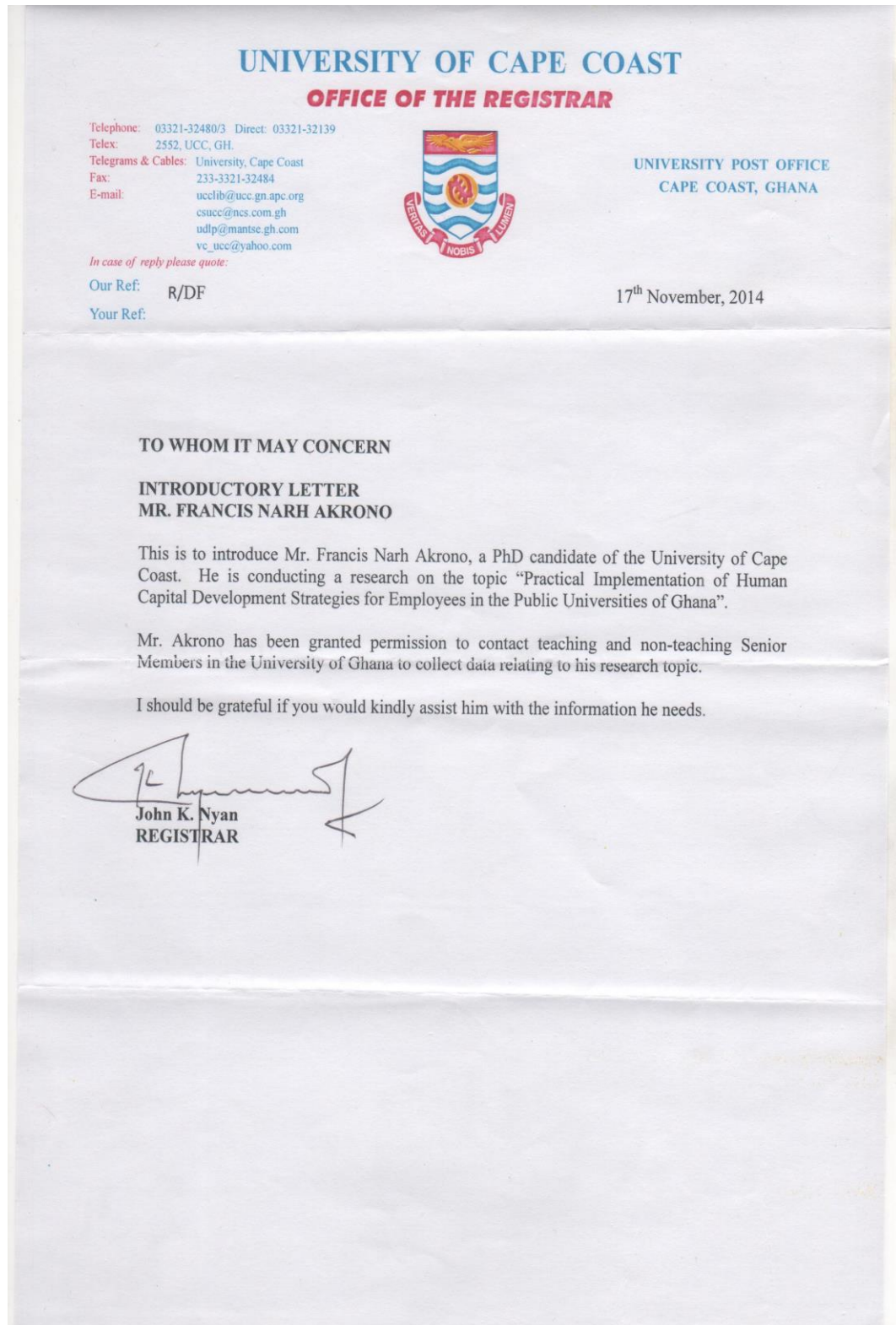


UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

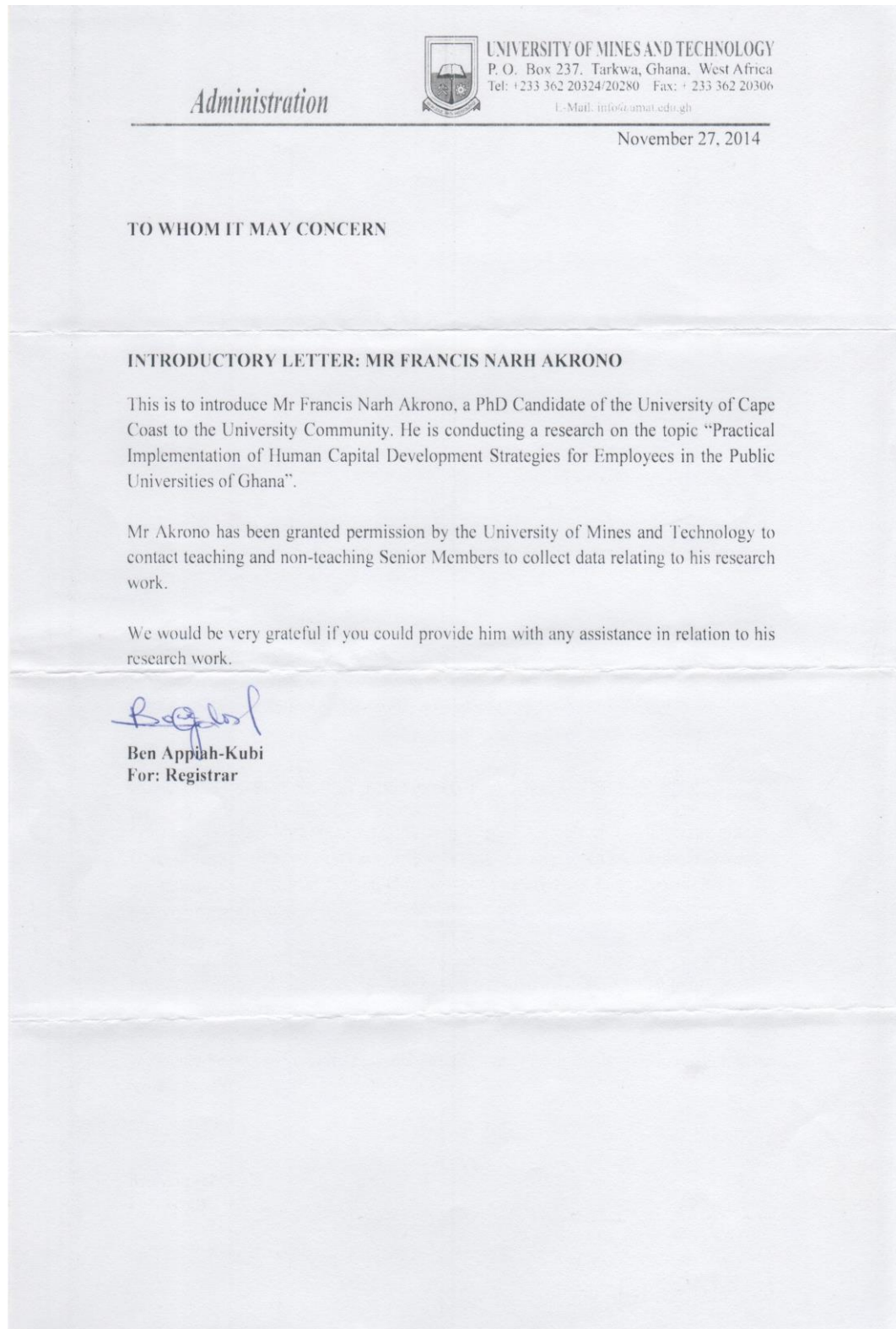
Tel: (+233-302) 500383 Direct
(+233-302) 500381 Ext. 6114 Registrar
Ext. 6113 } Secretary
Ext. 6028 }
Fax: (+233-302) 500383

E-mail: registrar@ug.edu.gh

APPENDIX I



APPENDIX J



APPENDIX K

