UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT
PRACTICES IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST AND VALLEY VIEW
UNIVERSITY

CLEMENT OWUSU

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BY

CLEMENT OWUSU

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

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

Candidate's Name: Clement Owusu

Candidates's Signature………………………   Date…………………………...

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 Name: Dr. A. L. Dare

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the human resource development (HRD) practices of the University of Cape Coast (UCC) and Valley View University (VVU). The study was a descriptive survey and two sets of questionnaire with Cronbach's alpha of .91 for T & D officers and .61 for academic and non academic staff and interview guide were used to gather data. The study involved 491 participants comprising 397 from the UCC and 94 from VVU. The Mann Whitney U test was used to determine the differences and similarities between the two universities in terms of staff development practices.

The study disclosed that both universities had almost the same set of driving forces informing their HRD practices, the differences exhibited only reflected the kind of premium placed on the individual drivers by each institution. Both universities also relied on a combination of on-the-job training methods and off-the-job training methods for its T & D programmes in order to cater for individual differences. Compared to VVU, more staff training was done in the UCC however, both universities did not maximise the full potential of benefits that accrue from T & D programmes due to the lack of career counselling.

The study concluded that both universities were striving to achieve higher standards of productivity, quality, and effectiveness in order to survive in the new environment and subsequently, it was recommended that management in both universities must adopt the best practices from each other's HRD system.

DEDICATION

To my foster-parents Osabarima Professor and Mrs Opare; a very special

one Ms. Jennifer Asare; and my son Henry Yoofi Cole.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Desimone and Harris (1998) argue that people are the assets on which competitive advantage is built, whether in the public or private sector, corporate world or in the world of education. They further argue that people are an "inimitable" asset and that their skills are one thing that competitor organisations cannot imitate.

Schultz (1961) identified human resource development (HRD) as one of the vital keys to economic, social and political success of any nation. In contrast to Schultz's assertion, Belcourt and McBey (2009) described three types of resources; natural resources, physical capital and raw labour as the prominent factors of economic success. However, it is said that in today's' world, these are only resources of temporary advantage. Akangbou (1987) confirmed the argument that these resources identified by Belcourt and McBey are not sufficient in developing a modern highly productive economy when he unravelled that:

> Prior to the Second World War, it was believed that only physical resources (capital) were responsible for the rapid growth of some western nations. But the post Second World War experience of the war-ravaged countries of Europe and their quick recovery debunked this belief and

therefore became evident that other factors like the human skills available does account for the economic growth and that the labour force requires adequate training for it to contribute effectively to rapid growth (p. 12).

It could be noted that Akangbou's revelations set the premise that a wide array of human skills is necessary for national development. Without it, the economic prospects of a nation are bleak. Many experts over-rate the necessity of having natural resources in a country. However, the stairs of economic successes of the early states in the Mediterranean area and along the coast of Northern Europe, and currently Hong Kong as well as Singapore, do not support the opinion of these experts (Bikas, 1982). That is to say, it is not possible to utilise efficiently the many complex forms of modern physical capital without a relatively high level of human skills.

According to Todaro (1977), most economists would probably agree that it is the 'human resource' of a nation, not its capital, nor its material resources that ultimately determine the character and pace of its economic and social development. Todaro's assertion of the importance of human resources affirms the statement by Harbison (1973) that:

> Human resources, not capital nor material resource, constitute the ultimate basis for the wealth of nations. Capital and natural resources are passive factors of production; human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organisations and carry forward national development. In economic terms, the wealth of a nation can be expressed in terms of the level of

development and the effectiveness of utilisation of human energies, skills and knowledge for useful purposes (pp. 3, 4).

Schultz (as cited in Davenport, 1999) argued in an article titled "Investment in Human Capital" that the knowledge and skills which people bring to their jobs as a result of their education and training, should be regarded as a form of capital which is capable of providing returns and therefore requires investment to develop. Schultz's research indicated that economic growth was higher in the United States when more investments were made in education. This confirms the recent World Bank assertion that "each year of schooling is associated with an increase of 0.58% in economic growth rate.

Bassi (as cited in Ghansah, 2009) made reference to economic history and stated that there had been three eras in economic history and that each era had been defined by the factor of production, which served as the foundation for wealth creation. She identified those three eras as: the agrarian era; the industrial era; and the knowledge era.

Bassi (as cited in Ghansah, 2009) explained that in the olden agrarian economies, land was the most important factor of production since it was the source of wealth for individuals and societies. During the industrial revolution, machines became the most important factor of production since they determined the wealth of individuals and organisations. With the emergence of knowledge-based economies, human capital had become a significant source of wealth for individuals and organisations. It is evident here that Bassi's emphasis of human

capital formation as a significant source of wealth to nations confirms the earlier assertion made by Akangbou (1987).

In respect of the contribution of human resource (HR) to the development of organisations and countries, Allan Schweyer (as cited in Ghansah, 2009) posits that "in the emerging knowledge economy, value is increasingly driven by talent and other non-tangible capital" (p. 3). It can be deduced from many reports that the competitive strength of companies, social organisations and countries are no longer strictly tied to physical assets or resources, but to the intellectual attributes of their knowledge workers. This was confirmed by Dixon and Hamilton (1996) when they upheld from their analysis that HR constitute between 40% - 80% of wealth worldwide while natural resources are only a little more than 10% of wealth in most parts of the developing world.

In line with this argument, Megginson, Banfield & Joy-Matthews (1999) stated that the long-term relationship between HRD and performance of the individual, organisational and national levels is at last becoming accepted. The association between performance at the national and organisational level, and investment in HRD, is both real and persuasive.

In Ghana, the importance of HR in the economic development of the country has been demonstrated by successive governments through their emphasis on education. Eyiah (as cited in Ghansah, 2009) for example, states among others that the Accelerated Development Plan (ADP) for Education by Osagyefo Dr. Kwame Nkrumah in 1951 gave a big push to education in Ghana. This subsequently reflected in a dramatic increase in the number of elementary and

secondary schools in the country. Eyiah (as cited in Ghansah, 2009) further states that after independence on 6th March 1957, education became one of the priority areas on the government's agenda and policies such as a free textbooks scheme and free compulsory basic education were introduced. During this same period the government established the Ghana Education Trust (GET) to construct school buildings throughout the country (Quist, 2003). New teacher training colleges were established at Peki, Berekum, Tamale and Pusiga, while centers for providing short-courses for pupil-teachers were also set up at Saltpond, Bompata and Effiduase (Kyei-Baffour, 2000).

Tertiary education was expanded after independence. A commission on University education was set up by the C.P.P. Government in 1960. One of the committee's recommendations lead to the elevation of the Kumasi college of Technology into a University status on 22nd August 1961 as well as the establishment of the University College of Cape Coast (UCCC) in 1962.

HRD in general has attracted the attention of many stakeholders of education, successive governments and policy makers. This emanates from the argument that employees need to become familiar with job task, receive appropriate training and understand organisations' practices and procedures (Noe, 1999). Employee development undoubtedly, is a necessary component of an organisation's efforts to improve on quality, to meet the challenges of global competition and social change, and to incorporate technological advances and changes in work design (DeSimone and Harris, 1998).

However, it appears that the country has not been able to maintain a strategic and need-specific HRD programme on a sustainable basis which would unearth the creativity, innovativeness and potential of HR for national development. Mfum-Mensah (as cited in Ghansah, 2009) supports the contention that, Ghana's inability to sustain a strategic HRD programme after the change of government in 1966 was the result of political instability. However, one can say without exaggeration that the development of human resource in Ghana through education has been the bedrock of the countries development agenda since independence. In view of this, the Institute of Adult Education, University of Ghana, Legon, selected 'Developing the human resource for accelerated national development' as the theme for its 57th Annual New Year School, which was held at the University from the 2nd to 8th of January 2006. In a brochure, published by the institute for the 57th New Year School, it was stated that although Ghana is endowed with numerous natural resources, the existence of such natural resources by themselves does not make a country rich. A well developed workforce is needed to transform those natural resources into consumable commodities and services.

Yamson (2006), who was then the Chairman of the University of Ghana Council and was also the Chairman of Unilever (GH) Ltd. in his keynote address to the opening ceremony of the 57th Annual New Year School stated that "if the country must create competitive advantage to derive the growth of enterprises, then it must create it, in the HR that we have; their skills, knowledge and capabilities should be competitive". He also asserted that "we must grow

outstanding people of excellence, with the drive, energy, vision, initiative and creativity. People who see today's difficulties as the opportunities for growth. A new generation who will drive innovation and technological advancement and transform Ghana. As the saying goes: 'Resources are not, they become'.

In recognition of HRD as an indispensable variable in a nations economic growth as agitated by many academics as well as practitioners, details of the distribution of HIPC relief funds since 2002 as published by the Ministry of Finance in a press release published on 6th September 2006 show that, in the years 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005 and 2006, HRD activities were allocated 120.84 billion (44%), 396.68 billion (54%), 520.59 billion (44%) 528.54 billion (27%) and 344.75 (44%) respectively of the total HIPC relief funds. Compared to other priority sectors, the press release revealed that for the five year period under consideration, HRD activities received the largest average allocation of 42% of HIPC relief funds, while private sector development received an average allocation of 32%, good governance activities received an average allocation of 6% and domestic debt servicing obligations received an average allocation of 20.6% (Baah-Wiredu, 2006).

Throwing more light on the government's three priority areas in his State of the Nation Address of Parliament on 3rd February 2005, the then President of Ghana His Excellency John Agyekum Kufuor said that HRD is the government's first priority area which would involve improving the expertise, health and progressive outlook of Ghana's human capital since this would move the economy and propel the country into a middle income nation in the next ten years.

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This was re-echoed by His Excellency John Evans Atta Mills in a speech delivered on Monday 4th January, 2010 at Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) National Congress in Accra that if much priority is not given to HRD, it could make our much touted and cherished dream of achieving a middle income status by 2020 a mirage. He subsequently assured the country of his government's commitment in improving HRD in all sectors of the economy.

Senge (1998), puts it that, today, effective organisations are learning organisations. In effect HRD professionals from both public and private Universities should therefore broaden their horizon of knowledge by learning from each others' HRD programmes which have proven beneficial for their institutions. Administrators however, often fail to identify the immediate benefits of investments in HR because such investments do not quickly produce conspicuous or visible outputs. DeSimone and Harris (1998) have cautioned that unless those responsible for training and development (T & D) make informed choices about the contents and methods of delivering the developmental experience, the results of many HRD efforts will fail to meet expectations.

In the wake of a dispensation where there is a growing realisation among academics and practitioners alike that in today's world the only truly unique resource of the majority of organisations is their human resource that invariably accelerates corporate and national development (Von Krogh et al., 2000). Then it is pertinent and incumbent that Universities keep pace with the changing trends in the society where knowledge can be created, shared and applied (Stiles and Kulvisaechana, 2001) considering the tremendous role they play in the economic

stairs of a nation. This is significant because in this age of talent and knowledge, an organisation's financial value is increasingly dependent on the quality and performance of its employees and the return achieved in human capital. Therefore, managing the HR can no longer be peripheral to a University's success and must be a priority of all administrators.

Statement of the Problem

Giving the indispensability of HRD as a major force in the economic success of the country, tertiary institutions in Ghana including universities are mandated to develop the requisite manpower to support both the productive and service industries.

While the polytechnics are required to produce middle level practical manpower to support our industries, universities are required to produce strategic managers and leaders to support strategic decision making in the job market. Achieving these feats requires that the universities recruit and develop the capacity of high caliber staff that will facilitate the pursuit of the goals of the universities. Indeed, it is incumbent that universities strengthen their HR capacity to equip them with the requisite skills needed to carry out their responsibility as the key actors in HRD and also propel their institutions ahead of the competitive global village.

It is for this reason that each university has a human resource management and development unit. In spite of the existence of special divisions in Universities of Ghana, one wonder how efficiently and effectively human resource within the Universities of Cape Coast and Valley View manage human resource

development towards achieving the goals of the university. Gaining an understanding of the nature of human resource development practices in these universities is crucial for our overall appreciation of human resource issues in the universities. Yet, little research-based evidence exists in this area within the two universities. It is my attempt to bridge this gap that necessitated this study

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore information on existing human resource development practices in the University of Cape Coast (public University) and Valley View University (private University) and establish whether there are any differences and similarities in their practices.

Research Questions

The study has been designed to provide answers to the following questions;

1. Within what policy frameworks of action are the HRD programmes of the two Universities carried out?

2. What are the major driving forces of HRD programmes in the two Universities?

3. What types of staff training techniques are employed by the two Universities in their Training and Development programmes?

4. What are the perceived major HRD challenges currently faced by the two Universities?

5. What are the perceived strategies for addressing HRD challenges faced by the two Universities?

Significance of the Study

Undoubtedly, administrators and authorities of these two Universities would be better informed about the inherent benefits of investments in their human resource and awareness of these benefits will influence them to place much premium on HRD practices and subsequently influence their decisions on budgetary allocations for HRD activities.

The study upon informing authorities and all stakeholders about the benefits that accrue from investing in their human resource would consequently help in formulating policies that seeks to achieve the institutions HRD practices in these two Universities.

Also, the study would unveil and establish good HRD practices adopted by both Valley View University and University of Cape Coast that have yielded tremendous results with respect to the achievement of the Universities mission, vision, goals and objectives.

More so, this research would unravel some difficulties and problems bedeviling the University of Cape Coast and Valley View University in relation to HRD practices and bring to bear possible remedies for improving upon them or combating them.

Finally, the work would add to existing knowledge and studies that have been conducted in human resource development practices.

Delimitation of the Study

University of Cape Coast was selected for the study in respect of the public sector Universities due to its significant and vital role and contribution

since its inception in 1962 in the countries manpower resources towards the education sector. In view of this, HRD practices should be of utmost priority to ensure that its human resource are in tune with new technological ways and means of delivering and achieving educational goals in the new millennium. It was equally a relatively old and large educational institution, as compared to Valley View University, which has been selected for the private sector. Valley View University was also the choice of the researcher because it is the oldest and the only private university that had been granted autonomy and thus, considered as a fully fledged University (www.vvu.edu.gh. Retrieved on September, 12, 2010).

Limitation of the Study

One major setback was the unwillingness of some respondents in filling out the questionnaires. This reflected in some contradictions in the responses given by respondents through the questionnaires and some interviews that were conducted. However, the triangulation approach used by the researcher helped in minimising the effect of this limitation on the findings.

The study was also limited in scope since it compared only one tertiary educational institution in the public sector with another tertiary educational institution in the private sector. More so, some individuals that were interviewed specifically for further insight and clarification to certain issues that emanated from the questionnaires could later not be reached for validation of the responses they offered.

The above, notwithstanding, the study is still worthwhile and could add to knowledge. However, persons using the results of this study should regard its conclusions as indicative and not as the basis for making generalisations.

Operational Definition of Term

Human Resource Development (HRD): This term encompasses a wide range of subjects such as health care, nutrition, population control, education as well as training and development. But, for the purpose of this study, the term HRD has been used to cover education, training and development

Organisation of the Study

This study is organised in five chapters. The preceding chapter serves as the introduction and it deals with the background to the study, research problem, purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitations and limitations of the study as well as the operational definition of terms.

The second chapter looks at a wide array of related literature on HRD issues to the study and ends with a summary of the literature reviewed. The chapter continues with a theoretical framework as well as conceptual framework of the study.

Chapter Three describes the methodology adopted for the study. It includes: research study; population; profiles of the Universities under study; sample and sample size; pilot-testing of instrument; data collection procedure; and analysis of data.

The fourth Chapter presents and discusses the results of the study according to the sequence of the research questions. Both descriptive and

inferential statistical tools are used to analyse the data from the study. The responses generated from the questionnaires are all presented in tabular form whereas responses from the interviews conducted are discussed in text to augment findings that emanated from the analysis of the questionnaires.

The fifth Chapter sums up the results and findings of the study. The chapter starts with a summary of how the study was carried out followed by a summary of the findings from the study. Conclusions are then drawn from the findings and recommendations based on the findings are made. The Chapter ends with suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the findings of empirical studies which have been conducted into HRD practices of private and public sector organisations, particularly private and public Universities. The purpose of the review is to provide a broader perspective for the study by assembling the empirical material, which could provide the basis for making conclusions and generalisations during the data analysis stage of the study.

The interplay of some variables in relation to an organisational HRD practices are examined and developed as follows: concept of human resource; the concept of human resource development; continuing professional development; human resource development in Ghana; trends in human resource development; the learning organisation; assessing needs for human resource development; human resource development policies and strategies; human resource development programmes; on-the-job training (mentoring, coaching, job rotation) off-the-job-training; transfer of learning; evaluation of training and development programmes; the establishment, objectives and functions of public Universities; private participation in tertiary education in Ghana; summary of major issues from literature review; theoretical framework of the study; and the conceptual framework of the study.

Concept of Human Resource

The concept of human resource is not new. More than 200 years ago, Smith (as cited in Emefah, 2007) recognised the importance of human skills as a determinant of individual and national wealth. Later, a formal concept was developed in the early 1960s by a group of economists; prominent among them were Schultz (1961), Becker (1964), and Kiker (1966). They defined human resource as the aggregation of investments in activities, such as education, health, on-the-job training and migration that enhance an individual's productivity in the labour market. More recently, this concept has expanded to include non-market activities. For example, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 1996), defines human resource as the knowledge that individuals acquire during their life and which they use to produce goods, services and ideas in market or non-market circumstances.

It is evident from this definition that, there is some form of knowledge acquired by the individual, but until this knowledge is put into useful activities it cannot be said to be beneficial. Consequently, Sharma (2007) indicated that the human resource has some inherent characteristics called the human potentials which have infinite capabilities and capacity with the possibility of beneficial engagement. These potentials however, it must be noted that are not productive unless an opportunity is seized to translate them into real value. Knowledge is therefore applied to these potentials to be actively engaged in meaningful, worthwhile work and delivering some level of desired productivity. This is the only time that these human potentials are considered to be productive, thereby

producing some degree of dividends and subsequently attains the name human capital.

Though human resource has no generally accepted definition, after a cursory view of several definitions, one could define it as the knowledge, skills and experiences both innate and derived or accumulated embodied in the working age population that allows it to work productively with other forms of capital to sustain economic production and give organisations a competitive edge. From this definition, the skills, knowledge and experiences that constitute the human resource are both inborn and acquired and are difficult to replicate. Thus, employees' unique capabilities will remain the true source of an organisations competitive advantage yielding both financial and non-financial returns to the organisation and employees alike. Financial rewards like better pay or benefits and non-financial rewards like intrinsic job satisfaction, recognition for good performance and opportunities to learn through the job will encourage employees to remain loyal and contribute to organisational goals, while the organisation will achieve economic growth if it invests in its human capital. Consequently, such organisations will also earn a reputation for being high-performing institutions, a status which has numerous advantages to organisations and their workforce.

There is a growing belief that the best source of lasting competitiveness is no longer a function of external forces like industrial structure but can be found in an institution's human resource and the processes for strategically managing it. While this belief is widely shared, most organisations like universities have been unable to act effectively to implement the right human resource strategies that will

propel their institution ahead of the competitive global village. However, the literature on human capital points to the fact that organisations must understand how human resource practices and programmes like pay, training, career management and supervision work together to produce desired outcomes.

Currently, universities have become one of the vibrant sectors in our education system and for that matter play enviable position in Ghana's economy. Strong beliefs about how to survive this new paradigm shift will assist university administrators to apply and redefine what they already know and focus on exploring what is new. This will provide their institutions with a competitive advantage. However, administrators must grapple with the issue of managing the human resource to remain vibrant at all times.

The Concept of Human Resource Development

Nadler (1970), formally introduced the term "human resource development" (HRD) in his book "Developing Human Resource ". The term HRD provided a conceptual umbrella under which the field began to unify, using the three fold notion of training, education and development. Nadler (1970) defined HRD as "a series of organised activities conducted within a specific time and designed to produce behavioural change" (p.3). HRD provided purpose and direction for the continued growth of a field through organised learning to provide the possibility of performance change. Nadler further identified that HRD provides a core discipline from a field of study that could develop adult learning in the workplace.

McLagan (as cited in Emefah, 2007) also conducted some studies in HRD in 1983 and 1989 which reflected a shift-taking in HRD work. In 1983 the assumptions in the competency models focused on change in technology and subsequently proposed the following narrative definitions of HRD in 1987: "Human resource development (HRD) is the integrated use of training and development, career development and organisation development to improve individual effectiveness in an organisation."

"HRD according to McLagan (as cited in Emefah, 2007) also means the process of changing an organisation, stakeholders outside, groups inside, and people employed by it, through planned learning and training so that they would possess the knowledge and skills needed in the future."

As Nadler (1970) illuminated earlier, HRD basically consist of three components (training, development and education) which this report seeks to delve into and establish whether there exist any connections or relationship among them:

To start with, it has been acknowledged that to gain a competitive advantage, training has to involve more than just basic skill development. The word 'training' is inundated with many definitions. DeSimone and Harris (1998), posits that training "involves a process of providing knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) specific to a particular task or job" (p.8). Khanka (2007) threw more light on DeSimone and Harris's definition when he elucidated that "training is a process that tries to improve skills, or add to the existing level of knowledge so that the employee is better equipped to do his present job or to mould him to be

fit for a higher job involving higher responsibilities" (p. 107). In other words training according to Khanka (2007) is "a learning experience that seeks a relatively permanent change in an individual that will improve his/her ability to perform his job" Training therefore is considered one of the most significant processes in the human resource management function in organisations. It plays a critical role in maintaining and developing capabilities of both individual employees and organisations as a whole, and in contributing to the vital process of organisational change as well. Training is said to give employees an opportunity to increase their productivity in the work place, open new opportunities for career development and potentially increase their earnings. Public policy makers see training as contributing to the larger goal of improving the quality of the workforce and national competitiveness. Cole (2002) noted that training is narrower in conception than either education or development; it is job oriented rather than personal. Most experts agree that the ultimate goal of training is for employees to master the knowledge, skills and behaviours emphasised in training programmes and to apply them to their day-to-day activities. It helps newly recruited employees to be productive in a minimum amount of time. As far as experienced workers are concerned, they need refresher courses to enable them keep up with new methods, techniques, machines and equipment for doing their work. Training is therefore not a one step process but continues throughout the life span of an organisation, ultimately bringing about a change in the behaviour of people (Noe, 1999). Examples of training needs include: the need to have efficiency and safety in the operations of particular machines or equipment; the

need for an effective sales force; and the need for competent management in the organisation. In conclusion, training is a key element in improved organisational performance because it bridges the talent gap between desired targets and actual levels of performance. Managers therefore should view the building and managing of these forms of human resource as necessary, while employees should see building them as an opportunity for career progression.

Development on the other hand has broader scope and aims at developing people in all respects. Accordingly, development covers not only activities / skills which improve job performance, but also those activities which bring about growth of the personality, help individuals progress towards maturity and actualisation of their potential. Thus, development enables individuals to become not only good employees but better men and women also. Clearly, development is an ongoing continuous process, while training is one-shot deal. In ultimate sense, development refers to behavioural modification of people through continuous learning practices. Development relates to non-technical organisational functions such as problem solving, decision-making and relating to people (Khanka, 2007). Cole (2002) equally added that development is directed towards future needs rather than present needs; it is concerned more with career growth than immediate performance; the focus tends to be primarily geared towards the organisation's future manpower requirements and secondly on the growth needs of individuals in the workplace. Examples of development needs include: the need for replacing senior staff with potential candidates from within the organisation; the need for preparing employees to accept change, etcetera.

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Last but not the least amongst the three components of HRD is 'education'. Khanka (2007) explicated that education is also wider in scope and broader in purpose when compared to training. Education is the (life-long) process of increasing the general knowledge and understanding of people about the total environment. Its main purpose is to improve the conceptual understanding of the people about a subject or theme or environment and this is imparted through schools or colleges or universities, through the contents of programmes. Cole (2002) asserted that education is primarily focused on the individual needs and secondly on the society needs. Examples of individual needs include: the need to be literate; the need to be prepared for some occupation; and the need to make the most of one's personal gifts and talents. Society needs include: the need for respect for law and order, the need for a variety of talents to sustain economic activities; and the need to protect itself from external aggression.

The development of human resources continues to be of great importance to the well being of contemporary organisations. According to the president and chief executive officer of the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD), more than ever, organisations are investing in training. Thus, he contends that organisations seem to realise that a well trained workforce is the key to competitiveness (ASTD 1996). The more organisations seek excellence, the more employees' training and education become imminent. In contemporary times, it is the ability of the organisation to disseminate knowledge that leads to employee skills and ability development. One thing which is true about the 21st

Century is that the development of human resource is no longer an option but a must for both employers and employees (ASTD, 1996). Berry (1981) suggests that managers who make concerned efforts in their employment strategies, such as career development, are proactively managing employee satisfaction.

Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

In general terms, CPD is concerned with the constant updating of professional knowledge throughout an individual's working life requiring self-direction, self-management and a responsiveness to the development opportunities offered by work experience. Furthermore, it requires the ability to look ahead and prepare for change as well as responding to more immediate needs and challenges. CPD and learning organisations support each other although they can certainly exist independently.

The UK Universities and Colleges Staff Development Agency (UCoSDA, 1994), produced a paper on continuing professional development of staff in higher education and in defining CPD, commented specifically that development is a much broader concept than training, implying longer-term benefits for both the individual and the organisation. It suggested that higher education institutions should commit themselves to development and training within the context of organisational objectives and that appropriate resources should be made available with an individual focus such as personal development plans. In particular it stated that CPD can better prepare staff for their roles and responsibilities, thereby enabling the institution and its faculties to achieve the goals they set and the excellence they pursue.

UCoSDA (1994) outlined 12 recommendations for strategic CPD in higher education with most relating to reviewing, planning, involvement of managers, resourcing, developing learning organisations, etc. Interestingly, one focused on collaboration: Greater collaboration needs to be fostered across universities and colleges in the consideration, planning and provision of CPD for their staff in order to provide more efficiently for their needs.

The essential principles are based on the premise that development should be continuous, with the individual actively seeking to improve performance. As professional development is a personal matter, it should begin from the individual's current learning state and should be owned and managed by the individual learner. Wherever possible, learning objectives should be clear and should serve organisational and/ or client needs as well as individual. A regular investment of time in learning and development should be seen as an essential part of professional life, not an optional extra, with learning an integral part of work. However well qualified or successful the professional may be, further development is always possible. So why is continuing professional development needed? According to the Institute of Personnel and Development (1997) it will ensure that professionals remain up to date and will encourage individuals to aspire to improved performance. In creating and maintaining professional standards of competence and behaviour, colleges and universities are to provide opportunities for its members to ensure high standards of performance and that CPD will ensure that the reputation of the profession as a whole is enhanced and

remains high. As well as institutions require its members to set their own personal development objectives it also expects them to share knowledge and expertise.

Human Resource Development in Ghana

In Ghana, the importance of HR and education as a strategy for HRD has long been recognised even prior to independence as a catalyst to rapid growth and development. This recognition lead to numerous interventions, policies and programmes by successive governments in restructuring the country's educational system. For instance, the seven year development plan of the first republic that saw accelerated expansion of education was to provide its beneficiaries with the best possible opportunities for the development of their potentialities. Ghana, witnessed a dramatic increase in school children in the 1960's and early 1970's. This however dropped in the late 1970's consequently, in 1987; the education reform programme was initiated and launched with the goal to reverse this decline in the educational system. The 1987 Educational Reform in Ghana also had the ultimate aim to provide an increasing number of basic education leavers with the opportunity for education at a higher level to such an extent that the variety of relevant occupational skills that they would be equipped with will have a definitive impact on national manpower requirements.

Similarly, the 1992 Constitution of the Fourth Republic consolidates all efforts made by succeeding governments since independence and also to ensure a continuity of HRD as a process, mandates the state to: provide educational facilities at all levels 38(1); provide free and compulsory universal basic education (FCUBE) 38(2); develop free vocational training 38(3b); ensure there is

equal access to pre-university/university education 38(3a); and provide opportunity for life-long learning 38(3c), Kumado (as cited in Abdulai, 2000).

It was as a result of this constitutional obligation, that the erst-while NPP government implemented a number of policies including the capitation grant at the basic level of education to ensure FCUBE in 2004; the extensive ICT implementation programme that led to the establishment of the Ghana-India Kofi Annan Center of Excellence in ICT in 2003 which became Ghana's first Advanced Information Technology Institute (AITI) and hopes to establish itself as a home for Knowledge Entrepreneurs of West Africa.

The Vision 2020 of the government of NDC succinctly provided for the HRD agenda for the country. The overall goal of the educational policy in the Vision 2020 documents was to ensure a population in which all citizens, men and women alike are at least functionally literate and productive. This also reflected in the NDC better Ghana agenda in 2010 that saw free distribution of school uniforms and exercise books as well as the fight of eliminating schools under trees. Thus, the education system is expected to provide the population with the skills necessary to cope successfully in increasingly competitive global world.

One can therefore say without exaggeration that the development of human resource in Ghana through education has been the bedrock of the countries development agenda since independence. However, just like any human endeavour this feat could not be achieved without challenges. Likewise, universities that are invariably said to be the principal reservoir of skilled human

resource and considered as the key actors in HRD are grappling with numerous challenges.

Abdulai (2000) posited that two major problems confront HRD in Ghana since the mid-1960s. First is the lack of skilled personnel in certain critical areas of the Ghanaian economy. This is mainly due to lack of funds to provide the necessary training at home or abroad. Second is the over-emphasis on liberal education which has ironically created a surplus in certain categories of skills. This unfortunate situation has inevitably impacted on both quantitative and qualitative HRD in Ghana which manifest itself in student performance on standardised tests, academic staff credentials, student exposure to current knowledge and information as well as the relevance of learning to labour market requirements (Association of African Universities, 1997).

Literature also seems consistent with the argument that Africa can develop through the right direction of higher education and this can be achieved through highly qualified and well- motivated staff. Adenyi (1991) however, observed that there is acute human resource needs in almost all fields in African universities or tertiary institutions and that minimum requirements for employment were hardly attained.

Trends in Human Resource Development

There have been a number of studies attempting to predict the major trends in human resource management, and to a lesser degree, the more specialised area of human resource development. Literature was consistent in its prediction that economic, political and sociological factors will have a major

influence on human resource development in the next decade. Influences such as technology, changing workforce demographics, increased regulations and governmental legislation, and the globalisation of organisations were factors constantly cited as impacting the work of human resource professionals in the future (Gilley & Eggland; Kimmerling; Mirvis; and Pynes as cited in Drayton, 1999). The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), as part of the 1990 competency initiative report, equally asked senior-level HR professionals to identify issues which would have substantive human resource implications in the future. Over half of the CEOs agreed that three issues would predominate human resource activities in the future: changing organisational culture and values; attracting, retaining and motivating quality people; and training, retraining and developing employees (SHRM Foundation as cited in Drayton (1999).

Drayton (1999) further illuminated that a separate component of ASTD's Models for HRD Practice study was conducted in 1989 which identified the linkage between future forces and human resource development roles. The final listing according to McLagan & Suhadolnik (as cited in Drayton, 1999) was of the forces which were rated as having the highest potential to impact human resource development. The 13 future forces as defined by the Models for HRD Practice research were listed in the sequence according to degree of consensus by the experts: increased pressure and capacity to measure workforce productivity, performance, cost-effectiveness and efficiency; increased pressure to demonstrate the value, impact, quality, and practicality of HRD services; accelerated rate of change and more uncertain business environment; increased emphasis on

customer service and expectation of quality products and services from the workforce; increased sophistication and variety of tools, technologies, methods, theories and choices in HRD; increased diversity (demographics, values, experience) at all levels of the workforce; increased expectations for higher levels of judgment and flexibility in worker contribution (specifically, more creativity, risk taking, adaptation to change, and teamwork); increased use of systems approaches that integrate HRD systems and technology in the workplace; business strategies that concentrate more on human resources and require strategic HRD actions: changed emphasis in organisations from loyalty to merit, accountability, performance, and relevant skills; globalization of business, increased and expanded international markets, joint ventures, overseas ownerships and competition; increased need for commitment, meaningful work and participation on the job by a larger proportion of the workforce; and increased use of flatter, more flexible organization designs; smaller, self-contained work groups and reduced staff (McLagan & Suhadolnik as cited in Drayton, 1999).

The Learning Organisation

Some organisations stagger blindly from one crisis to the next, never pausing to draw the lessons from one disaster before the next is upon them. Others consciously plan for and cope with change and learn consciously from them. The latter is a typical example of a learning organisation. Zuboff (1988) reiterates that learning is the new form of labour.

Senge (1998) suggested that, the learning organisation is continually expanding its capacity to create its own future. Peddler et al as cited in Buckley

and Caple (2000) encompassed the key elements in their definition when they described the learning organisation as one which facilitates the learning of its members and continually transforms itself.

For Mayo and Lank (as cited in Hacket, 2002) a learning organisation harnesses the full brain power, knowledge and experience available to it, in order to evolve continually for the benefit of its stakeholders. Thus according to them becoming a learning organisation is not something that happens by accident. It happens as a result of conscious, strategic decision to create the kind of custom that supports learning, and to put in place the processes that will enable it happen.

Noe (1999) saw a learning organisation as one that has an enhanced capacity to learn, adopt and change. A learning organisation needs to ensure that trainees have the opportunity to perform, management and all other authorities support the training activities, trainees are motivated to learn, and the work as well as the work environment itself is favourable for learning.

From the unfolding analysis as the definitions indicate, it could be summarised that learning by the organisation and by individuals within it is seen as critical to its survival and development. In order to implement this concept, many organisations would need to develop new perspectives on how they work, their status, their working relationships and their openness. They would have to manage their own individual change happening in the organisation. To tap into the valuable source of ideas and initiatives of employees, individuals in the organisation should be encouraged to challenge without fear the traditional ways

of doing things, and the organisation should be ready to absorb any suggested change or innovation which can realistically be implemented.

Typically, organisations are composed of multiple interacting communities, each with highly specialised knowledge, skills and technologies. Important task like product design and innovation in knowledge-intensive firms require these diverse communities to bridge their differences and integrate their knowledge and skills to create a new shared perspective. Some researchers argue that this social sharing is the crucial first step towards knowledge creation (Nonaki and Takeucji, 1995).

Assessing Needs for HRD

Atwoods and Ellis (as cited in Gilley and Eggland, 1992) suggest that a 'need' is a deficiency that distracts from a person's well-being. Gilley and Eggland (1992) stress that it is useful to think of need as a gap between a current set of circumstances and some desired change or desirable set of circumstances. They further stress that the circumstances can be described in terms of proficiency (knowledge, skills and attitudes), performance and situations. The concept of need according to DeSimone and Harris (1998) typically refers to a discrepancy between what an organisation expects and what actually occurs. They stress that these discrepancies may become the foundation of a training or HRD need. Needs identified in this sense may help focus on correcting substandard performance and in some cases, an HRD intervention such as coaching or skill training may be necessary to correct the discrepancy.

Noe (1999) defines needs assessment as a process used to determine if training is necessary. It is therefore the process by which an organisation's HRD needs are identified and articulated. It is the starting point of the HRD process. The issue then is to distinguish clearly between 'need' and 'want'; this is because most of the time a want could easily be mistaken for a need.

Noe (1999) opined that need assessment typically involves organisational analysis, person analysis, and task analysis. Organisational analysis involves considering the context in which training will occur. It determines the appropriateness of training, given the company's business strategy, its resources available for training and support by managers and peers for training activities. Person analysis helps to identify who needs training and what kind of training they need. It involves: determining whether performance deficiencies result from a lack of knowledge, skill, ability (a training issue) or from a motivational or work design problem; identifying who needs training; and determining employees' readiness for training. Task analysis includes identifying the important tasks, knowledge, skills and behaviours that need to be emphasised in training for employees to complete their tasks.

DeSimone and Harris (1998) equally outlined various methods of obtaining information from organisational, task and person analyses. To start with, they posit that there are various sources of data for organisational analysis and these may include analysing organisational goals and objectives to identify where training emphasis can and should be placed, using manpower inventory to determine where training is needed to fill gaps caused by retirement, turnover and

age. Other methods are using skill inventory, customer complaints and organisational climate indexes among others.

Also, task needs analysis according to DeSimone and Harris (1998) can be conducted using such methods as job description, performance standards, observe job or work sampling, asking workers about the job and analysis of operating problems. Information concerning who needs training can be obtained through performance appraisal data, observing the employee on the job, interviews, questionnaires, critical incidents etc.

From these needs assessment there can be many different outcomes that can suggest that training is necessary. The identification of a training needs means that performance is not up to the level required and this is turn means that both the existing level of achievement and that required have been measured and assessed. Training needs can obviously be many and various depending on the nature of the job to be done and the people who have to perform the jobs. Some training needs are straighter to assess or measure than others. These may include performance problems, new technology, internal or external customer preferences, new products or employees lack of basic skills. However these outcomes do not guarantee that training is the best solution. It is only when these outcomes are due to lack of knowledge that they can be addressed by training (Rae, 1997).

Brinkerhoff (as cited in DeSimone and Harris, 1998) suggests that focusing only on performance deficiency in needs analysis is too restrictive and proposed three other possible ways of looking at training needs. These include democratic needs, diagnostic needs and analytic needs. Democratic needs are

options that HRD programmes that are preferred selected or voted for by employees or managers or both. Diagnostic needs focus on the factors that lead to effective performance and prevent performance problem rather than existing problem. Analytic needs on the other hand identify new better ways to perform tasks. Brinkerkoff's categorisation of needs (as cited in DeSimone and Harris, 1998) reinforces the notion that HRD programmes should be proactive and future oriented.

Finally, Agnaia (1996) studied how management training and development needs are assessed in Libyan industial companies and the criteria used in selecting trainees for management courses. Data was collected through the administration of questionnaires and interviews with managers. It was revealed that the techniques used by the Libyan companies for selecting trainees and assessing management training and development needs are mostly dependent on indications from performance reports and the views of supervisors. It was discovered that administrative functions were practiced without regard to acceptable standards and decisions related to management were mostly dependent on personal relations, family ties, tribalism, nepotism among others rather than established procedures.

HRD Policies and Strategies

Hassan and Ismail (2006) studied employees' perception of HRD practices in eight selected organisations in Malaysia. To collect data for the study, questionnaires were administered to a total of 239 employees from the eight organisations which were divided into two groups of four organisations in each

group. One group was made up of organisations which had a better learning, training and development system for its employees as well as a career development plan, a performance guidance system, a reward and recognition system. The other group of organisations did not have well developed HRD systems. The study compared employee perception of human resource activities in the two groups of organisations. It was revealed that employees in the first group of organisations recognised that their organisations were implementing good HRD programmes.

Marouf and Ur Rehman (2004) also explored the HRD policies and practices in 30 Kuwaiti private companies for their ICT professionals. Data were collected through structured interviews with key human resource managers of the companies. Questions addressed were related to induction and orientation programmes, in-house training policies, resources and facilities, as well as policies for sending employees for outside training. It is revealed that almost all the companies had intensive programmes for providing induction and orientation courses for their new employees. The majority of them have facilities for organising in-house training programmes and have also developed policies for considering outside training options for their employees. However, it was discovered that the administration of training awards was biased in favour of seniors, managers and natives without regard to organisational needs.

Oduro and Oduro (2004) also examined some cultural values and practices that affect performance management and which adversely inhibit productivity in the University of Cape Coast (UCC). Data were collected through interview from

six (6) people who were directly connected with management issues, within the vice-chancellors' office, the registrar's office, the faculties and academic departments of the university. The study revealed that authorities of the UCC found themselves in a state of dilemma, thus, authorities were entangled between commitment to cultural expectations and management governed by organisational ethics. Underpinning this state of dilemma were the issues of 'relationship', 'sentiments' and 'passion'. They illuminated that for the purpose of maintaining good relations with colleagues, relatives and other family ties, authorities tended to compromise their performance management principles.

Human Resource Development Programmes

Needs assessment helps to determine whether an organisation will purchase training from a vendor or consultant or else develop training using internal resources. Armed with needs assessment data, the focus now turns to designing and implementing an HRD programme. The HRD professional must translate the need into a set of programme objectives that will define what participants will expect to learn as a result of participating in the HRD programme. Performance related training is training undertaken specifically to meet performance requirements. Thus training is seen as an intervention to correct the deficiency in performance. The question is how would we know if learning has occurred? Suggestions may be to conduct a test after the training programme or to select evaluation criteria to measure whether training objectives were achieved.

Psychologically, the essentials of training can be grouped as stimulus, response, motivation, reward and incentives. The principles of learning which have been applied in the context of training include goal-setting, reinforcement, feedback, behaviour modeling, transfer of learning and readiness to learn. Having identified training needs, the trainer or HRD professional develops specific training objectives which must be set forth in behavioural terms. Training objectives should be defined in terms of measurable performance.

Once training needs have been identified and objectives set, it is expedient that the trainer selects the appropriate training method to satisfy the need which can achieve the set objectives. In general, training methods can be grouped into two categories: on-the-job methods which typically occur in the employee's normal working setting and classroom methods which typical take place away from the job (DeSimone and Harris, 1998). There are various procedures or steps involved in training.

DeSimone and Harris (1998) have outline the training and HRD process in the form of a model and this is presented figure 1.

| Assessment | Design/Implementation | Evaluation |

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┌──────────────┐
│ Assess Needs │
└──────┬───────┘
       │
       ▼
┌──────────────┐        ┌──────────────────┐        ┌──────────────────┐
│  Prioritise  │───────▶│ Define Programme │───────▶│ Select Evaluation│
└──────┬───────┘        │    objectives    │        │     criteria     │
       │                └────────┬─────────┘        └────────┬─────────┘
       │                         ▼                           │
       │                ┌──────────────────┐                 │
       │                │  Select Trainer  │                 │
       │                └────────┬─────────┘                 │
       │                         ▼                           │
       │                ┌──────────────────┐                 │
       │                │Develop Lesson Plan│                │
       │                └────────┬─────────┘                 ▼
       │                         ▼                  ┌──────────────────┐
       │          ┌────────────────────────┐        │ Create Evaluation│
       │          │Select programme methods│        │      design      │
       │          │   and techniques       │        └────────┬─────────┘
       │          └────────────┬───────────┘                 │
       │                       ▼                             │
       │                ┌──────────────────┐                 │
       │                │ Prepare materials│                 │
       │                └────────┬─────────┘                 │
       │                         ▼                           │
       │                ┌──────────────────┐                 │
       │                │Schedule Programme│                 ▼
       │                └────────┬─────────┘        ┌──────────────────┐
       │                         ▼                  │    Implement     │
       │                ┌──────────────────┐        │   Evaluation     │
       │                │Implement programme│──────▶│     Design       │
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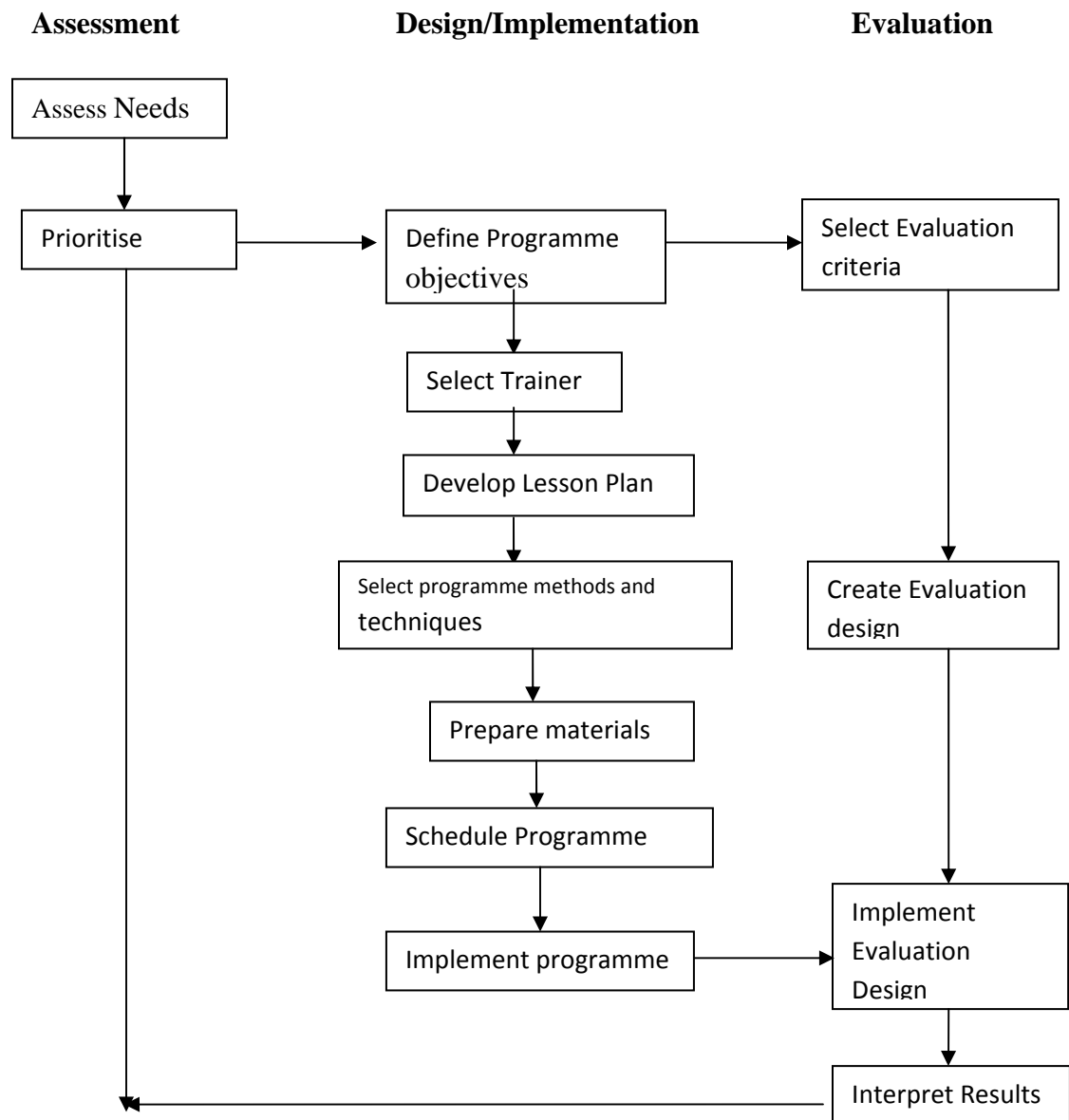
Figure 1. Training and HRD process model

Source: De Simone and Harris (1998, p. 132)

Ultimately the goal of HRD is to improve an organisation's effectiveness. However, HRD effectiveness can only be mentioned when it successfully addresses orgnisational needs (DeSimone and Harris, 1998). But how are these

needs identified? The answer is only through conducting needs assessment which this literature has earlier discussed. Thus, in summary needs assessment is a process by which an organisation's needs are identified and articulated Consequently, when needs are identified, it would be better if the organisation moves toward prioritising those needs assuming that a needs analysis reveals multiple needs. Thus, as in any organisational function, limited resources are usually available for the HRD effort hence decisions must be made about what resources would be used in the HRD programme.

Armed with prioritised needs data, the focus now turns to designing and implementing the HRD programme. A key feature in the design and implementation stage is defining programme objectives. Mager as cited in DeSimone and Harris (1998) defines an objective as a description of a performance you want learners to be able to exhibit before you consider them competent'. Buckley and Caple (2000) equally contends that the purpose of a training objective is to state as clearly as possible what trainees are expected to be able to do at the end of their training, the condition under which they will demonstrate their learning and the standards that must be reached to confirm their level of competence. Well-written training objectives can be used as a means to validate and evaluate training, they assist trainers to decide upon method and content of training and they provide trainees with a clear target. The evaluation of training and other HRD activities is a demanding and challenging responsibility which reflects choices made by those leading the evaluation process about what to evaluate, when to do so, who should do so, who should be involved and how

much time can and should be dedicated to what is perceived to be the most important issues and requirements. The evaluation of training is concerned with producing evidence of learning outcomes and behavioural change, and with the generation of insights into why and how such outcomes and changes were produced. Evaluation can also attempt to show that changes to the bottom line of the balance sheet are related to training and development. Evaluation may help to provide answers to the questions, 'why did training work?', but these answers derive their significance from and within discrete organisational situations, which are in many respects, unique, dynamic and complex (Megginson et al, 1999).

On-the-Job Training

On the job training occurs when workers pick up skills whiles working alongside experienced workers at their place of work. For example this could be the actual assembly line or offices where the employees work. New workers may simply "shadow" or observes fellow employees to begin with or are often given instruction manuals or interactive training programmes to work through (Emefah, 2007).

While many organisations have shown their commitment to off-the-job training, the importance and significance of on-the job training often seems to be ignored or underestimated. Sloman (as cited in Buckley and Caple, 2000) noted that 'the legion of people who deliver on the job training in the office, on the factory floor and at the construction site are neither recognised nor recorded and in almost all cases are not trained to train.

A research survey carried out on behalf of the Training Commission (UK) and reported by Sloman (as cited in Buckley and Caple, 2000) provided some very interesting findings. From it, it was found out that training delivered on the job accounted for at least half of the total training undertaken. In addition, it would seem that a great deal of on the job training is of the one-to-one variety and that between one and two million people in the UK act as on-the-job trainers. Effective on the job training is dependent upon the level of corporate priority and support given. A major effort to improve the quality of on the job training would pay considerable benefits to most employees. On the job training has so many advantages. These include less time taken, flexibility and overall cost of training reduced (Buckley and Caple, 2000). Given these advantages why has less attention been given to on-the job training and in particular to one to one coaching? There have been two fundamental interrelated assumptions, which unfortunately have meant that in many circumstances these types of training have been introduced and conducted in a less than professional manner.

The first of these assumptions is that one-to-one training is a natural and familiar process. This assumption has its origins in the earliest form of training and learning given by parent to child. There are also historical precedents to be found in crafts apprenticeships. The second assumption is that having expertise or skill in a subject or discipline is linked with the ability to teach or to educate others in that field. The attitudes engendered by the traditions of the well-rounded and motivated amateur remain very strong in training where it is often believed that if the technical expertise is available within a particular area, any associated

training problem will be solved automatically (Buckley and Caple, 2000). Pettinger (2002) stresses that it is essential to recognise the value of having staff able and willing to carry out on-the-job training for incomers and new starters. This in turn, reinforces both individual and collective morale as well as security of employment.

Mentoring

Mentoring according to Megginson and Clutterbuck (2005) is "offline help by one person to another in making significant transmission in knowledge, work or thinking" (p. 13). Mentoring is a learning situation which is broader than that involved in coaching. The latter is definitely skills or competency focused, whereas the former is concerned with passing on knowledge, insight and attitudes as well as skills. Mentors, it should be pointed out here that, are not necessarily the line managers but other senior managers in the organisation. This enables mentoring to proceed in a relatively friendly fashion without the stress of accountability being present.

Mentoring requires a culture to support its implementation and fully integrate it into the organisation. Without cultural congruence, the challenge of embedding mentoring into the organisation is daunting. Any mentoring effort will continuously face challenges that have an impact on its viability and sustainability. For example, an organisation culture that fosters learning strengthens mentoring. If learning is not valued, learning is stifled and mentoring efforts are undermined. As the work of creating a mentoring culture unfolds, mentoring integrates itself more deeply into the organisations culture and

becomes embedded in the fabric of the culture. Alignment between the organisational culture and the mentoring effort must be well established in order to promote cultural integration.

A congruent organisational culture becomes the placeholder for mentoring by maintaining its presence on the organisational agenda. It helps ensure its viability and sustainability by making mentoring a cultural expectation and organisational competence. Mentoring is so tightly woven into the fabric of organisational life that it seamlessly informs the way business is accomplished (www.peer.ca/mentor.html). A mentoring culture continuously focuses on building the mentoring capacity, competence and capability of the organisation. This strengthens the argument by Beardwell and Holden (1994) that mentoring is a process by which an experienced employee takes charge of the training and development of a new employee. That is to say mentors assist and ensure professional growth and experience by the new employee. The mentor as an experienced professional opens the pathway to the new professional to become established.

Coaching

Coaching has been defined as support requested by or offered to professional learners who own the responsibility for their learning development and wish to review and refine established practice in the light of their interest and concern about their learning development (Megginson et al, 1999). Harris (2000) in an earlier study defined coaching as "an informal unplanned T&D activities provided by supervisors and peers" (pp. 351-352). While coaching may provide

valuable help for employees, it should be viewed strictly as a supplement to, rather than a substitute for formal T&D programmes. Coaching differs from mentoring in that coaching is an intervention delivered by an external professional coach. The assignment is designed to focus on a specific area of the development of an employee's performance. For instance, Harris (2000) identified some key areas that may require coaching. These include: when an employee demonstrates a new competency; when an employee expresses interest in a different job within the organisation; when an employee seeks feedback; when an employee expresses low morale, violating organisations policies and practices; when an employee needs help with a new skill following a formal training programme.

From an analysis and insight given by Cole (2002), coaches, by implication have to be people who are already skilled to a high level; people who have already proven themselves to their core mandate and the public. Coaching is one of the principal tools organisations have for developing their people. Lore International Institute (2002), describes a coach as a person who helps others develop their knowledge and skills and improve their performance through individual assessment and guidance. That is to say the ultimate goal of coaching is to help people learn more about themselves to change their behaviour.

Job Rotation

This in common parlance is a formal planned programme that involves assigning trainees to various jobs in different parts of the organisation. According to Harris (2000) the purpose of job rotation is "to provide trainees with a larger organisational perspective and a greater understanding of different functional

areas, as well as a better sense of their own career objectives and interest" (p. 252). Job rotation appears to improve participants' job skills, increase job satisfaction, and provide valuable opportunities for networking within the organisation.

Off-the-Job Training

This occurs when workers are taken away from their place of work to be trained. This may take place at a training agency or local college, although many larger firms also have their own training centers. Pettinger (2002) opines that there is a great range and variety of methods available and each brings its own opportunities, advantages and consequences. Training can take the form of lectures or self-study and can be used to develop more general skills and knowledge that can be used in a variety of situations, e.g. management skills programme.

Off-the-job training can be advantageous over other techniques of training in diverse ways which include the following: employees learn from specialists in that area of work who can provide in-depth study; training can more easily deal with groups of workers at the same time; employees may respond better when taken away from the pressure of working environment; and workers may be able to obtain qualifications or certificates. Off-the-job training methods include: lecture or the classroom training; role play; distance learning; internet/intranet-based training.

Transfer of Learning

For training programmes to be successful, trainees must effectively and continually apply the learned capabilities gained in training to their jobs. This is known as transfer of learning. Several factors influence transfer of learning, trainee characteristics, training design and the work environment. Trainee characteristics include the ability and motivation to learn. Training design refers to the characteristics of the learning environment whereas the wok environment include factors like managers support, peer support, technology support, the climate for transfer and the opportunity to use newly, acquire capabilities on the job.

Hamblin (as cited in Yadapadithaya and Stewart, 2003) points out that there are various levels of evaluating the effectiveness of transfer of learning. These are the reaction stage; learning stage; job behavior level; organisational unit; and finally the ultimate value. These stages act as powerful links in a chain of cause and effect. They contend that:

Training leads to reactions, which lead to learning, which leads to changes in job behaviour, which lead to changes in the organisational unit, which lead to changes in the achievement of the ultimate goals of the organisation. But this chain is as strong as its weakest link, and it can be broken at any link. Trainees can react favourably to a course, they can enjoy it but learn nothing. They can however learn something, but cannot, or will not, or are not allowed to, apply it. They apply it, but it does no

good within their own area of competence. It does some good in their

function, but does not further the objectives of the organization (p. 118)

Tannenbaum (1997) conducted an earlier study on transfer of learning and

provided convincing evidence that the work environment, it being the physical,

social, and psychological conditions that individuals experience at work can either

encourage or discourage the acquisition and transfer of new skills and ideas. The

other key determinants of transfer of learning provided by Reid and Barrington

(1997); Tracey, Tannenbaum and Kavanagh (1995) include: the support and

encouragement of the immediate supervisor and co-workers, the availability of

equipment to allow the use of newly acquired skills and ideas, and timely

identification and minimisation of situational constraints (e.g., unclear task

assignments, unrealistic time pressures, etc).

Evaluation of Training and Development Programmes

Given the importance of training programmes, one might expect that HRD

programmes are regularly and carefully evaluated. However, this is not the case.

Many articles have been written about the importance of conducting evaluations,

but more organisations pay lip service to evaluations than actually conducting

them. Gilley and Eggland (1992) intimated that successful training programmes

must meet specific learning objectives, measure the effectiveness of learning

specialist and the competencies of programme design. They also reiterated that

another purpose of evaluation is to determine the impact that learning had on a

person and whether or not a change in behaviour occurred. That leads to the

question: did the training programme enable the learner to develop adequate

knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to close the gap between 'what is' and 'what should be'? Again, the question is why aren't evaluation done more frequently? There are several possibilities. Evaluation processes require time, resources, procedures and expertise, thus making it difficult to indulge in.

On the basis of a research by Manghan and Silver as cited in Buckley and Caple (2000) suggest that the incidence of training was not always related to company performance and that some companies which were doing no training at all were as likely to be successful as those who did a great amount. This is supported in a study of 80 of the largest business organisations in the United Kingdom in which Hussey as cited in Bukley and Caple (2000) found that only 33% of the respondents felt that there was a direct link between training and the achievement of corporate objectives. They also discovered that very few of these organisations assessed the full cost of training activities and therefore were unable to evaluate the benefits.

HRD professionals should recognise the importance of evaluating HRD programmes and the variety of ways in which evaluation can be conducted. Nevertheless, it should be noted that not every programme needs to be evaluated to the same extent. New programmes and those with high visibility and expense should be evaluated more rigorously and more thoroughly than proven programmes and those that are offered less frequently (DeSimone and Harris, 1998).

Al-Athari and Zairi (2002) examined the evaluation of training interventions in five United Kingdom organisations (recognised as best practice

organisations in their T&D activities) and 77 Kuwaiti organisations (40 from the government sector and 37 from the private sector). Data were also collected through interviews and the administration of questionnaires. The study revealed that for the majority of respondents, both in the government and private sectors alike contended that evaluation of training interventions were done occasionally and the most popular evaluation technique used by both government and private sector organisations were questionnaires.

Furthermore, Ngware and Ndirangu (2005) examined the evaluation of teaching effectiveness in Kenyan universities. Three public and private universities were randomly selected to participate in the study. A total of 79 respondents from the five universities were selected through a simple random sampling and questionnaires were used for the data collection. The study established that both public and private universities in Kenya had no clear policy on evaluation of teaching effectiveness. Students evaluation of teaching effectiveness was therefore only from the lecturer's perspective.

Turk and Roolaht (2005) also compared the performance appraisal and compensation systems among academics in Estonian public and private universities in order to identify the similarities and differences. Data were collected through questionnaires administered to 29 respondents from four public and two private universities, as well as one Art College. The researcher also relied on previous studies. For example, it cited the study of Willis and Taylor in 1999 that identified three key functions of higher educational institutions; teaching/advising, research and service. The results of the study indicate that there

were no major differences between public and private universities in Estonia so far as performance appraisal and compensation systems were concerned. However, it was noted that respondents from the private universities in Estonia placed more value on the appraisal function and student feedback on lecturers' performance than their counterparts in the public universities.

The Establishment, Objectives and Functions of Public Universities

Walton (2005) examined the mission statements, core values, guiding principles, aims and objectives of a sample of public and private universities in the United States and the United Kingdom from their web sites for the purpose of identifying the similarities and differences between public and private universities. He found out that the private universities were more interested in promoting activities that will facilitate the achievement of their corporate objectives than promoting intellectualism, while the public universities were not doing much in respect of the achievement of organisational objectives.

Similarly, Effah (2003) conducted a study on the state of higher education in Ghana which covered the establishment and history of public universities in Ghana and the recent emergence of private universities.

The actual development of higher education and subsequent establishment of a premier University institution in Ghana the University College of Gold Coast (now the University of Ghana, Legon) in 1948 resulted from at least half a century of a sustained pressure by the intelligentsia on the colonial Government demanding the setting up of a university institution. Agitation for university institution, however, yielded partial result when during the governorship of Sir

Gordon Guggisberg established Achimota College in 1927 which had a university department.

After the Second World War, the leaders of Gold Coast became more conscious that without higher education, achievement of independence will be more difficult. They realised that development of their human resource was expedient and requisite in facilitating their nationalist struggle for political independence. The mounting pressure compelled the colonial Government to set up two commissions in 1943. The 'Asquith Commission' that was to consider the issue of higher education for the British colonies in general and the 'Elliot commission' that was to deal specifically with the British West African colonies (Macmillan & Kwahima, 1978).

The study disclosed that the first higher educational institution in Ghana, the University College of Gold Coast was established in 1948 as a result of the recommendation of the Elliot commission. The establishment of the university college was to satisfy the need in providing tertiary education for the colonial people and to develop the skills and knowledge of its people so as to utilise them effectively in the national economy. Thus, one can say without exaggeration that the development of human resource in Ghana through education has been the bedrock of the countries development agenda prior to independence.

By 2010, Ghana had six (6) fully autonomous public universities with conscious efforts being made to introduce new programmes that would bring variations in the development of the human resource and equip students adequately for the business and industrial sectors. Mentions can be made of Cape

Coast University which had recently introduced a wide range of courses such as Management and Business Administration (MBA), organisational Development (OD), Human Resource Development and Management, Democracy, Governance and Law, just to mention a few (UCC Postgraduate brochure, 2010).

Private Participation in Tertiary Education in Ghana

The growth of tertiary education was not without problems. Successive governments since independence attempted to improve access, quality and make it relevant to the aspirations of Ghanaians in general and students in particular. Every year the demand for higher education increased but funding was limited. This prompted the PNDC government to set up a commission to review tertiary education in Ghana which was otherwise called the 'University Rationalisation' Programme. Their terms of reference were in relation to many vital issues affecting tertiary education that included: improved quality higher education; increase access to tertiary education; provide sustainable basis for funding; and evaluate policy performance in tertiary institutions.

Government issued a white paper on the report of the commission after a careful study of its recommendations. The commission's report captured private participation in tertiary education as one of its recommendations. Hence, the reform gave birth to private participation in tertiary education. Ghana has witnessed an impressive change in private participation in university education since its inception in the latter part of the twentieth century. This tremendous renaissance in private awaking gave birth to many private university colleges throughout the country. These are classified as;

i. Sectarian ones operating under religious sponsorship and

ii. Non-Sectarian ones that operate under individual sponsorship.

Private participation in the provision of tertiary education emerged in 1999 with programmes such as theology, management, business administration, information and communication technology (ICT), marketing and other science related courses (Presidential Committee Report on Review of Education Reforms in Ghana, 2005). It must also to be noted that as at the time this study was being conducted, there were forty five accredited private tertiary institutions (Tetteh-Enyo, 2009). Valley View University was the only private university out of the lot that had gained autonomy that had presidential charter since May 28, 2006 (www.vvu.edu.gh). In spite of the rapid growth in private participation in tertiary education, the sector account for less than 5% of the total admission (Effah, 2003).

Both the public and private universities in Ghana have a two-tier system of governance. They have a university council vested with the overall responsibility for administrative matters such as finance, development, appointments and discipline. Besides, they have Academic Boards which handle academic affairs. It was discovered during the study that the private universities have become attractive because they have the advantage of introduction of subjects which are required by the changing labour market. Unlike the traditional public universities, there are a lot of institutional bottlenecks that hinder the introduction of new subjects.

Moreover the mushrooming of private universities in Africa and Ghana in particular does not only pose competitive threat to public universities but has more importantly necessitated the transformation of how they operate. Hence one major challenge that the advent of private universities has posed to public institutions is how they could attract and retain quality staff and effectively utilise their skills and knowledge towards meeting market demands (Oduro and Oduro 2004).

Summary of Major Issues from the Literature Review

There is a growing belief that the best source of lasting competitiveness is no longer a function of external forces like industrial structure but can be found in an institution's human resource and the processes for strategically managing it. Thus, employees' unique capabilities will remain the true source of an organisations competitive advantage yielding both financial and non-financial returns to the organisation and employees alike. While this belief is widely shared, most organisations like universities have been unable to act effectively to implement the right HR strategies that will propel their institution ahead of the competitive global village.

Universities which have become one of the vibrant sectors that play an enviable position in today's economy can only survive this new paradigm shift when they apply and redefine what they already know and focus on exploring what is new. Thus, to provide their institutions with a competitive advantage, administrators must grapple with the issue of managing the human resource to remain vibrant at all times.

Walton 2005 found out that the private universities in the United States and the United Kingdom were more interested in promoting activities that will facilitate the achievement of their corporate objectives than promoting intellectualism, while the public universities were not doing much in respect of the achievement of organisational objectives.

In developing countries such as Ghana and Kenya, the emergence of private universities were facilitated by the limited opportunities which were available in the public universities for prospective students and the desire of religious organisations to provide tertiary education for their followers.

According to Drayton (1999) some major future driving forces that would necessitate HRD practices include: increased pressure and capacity to measure workforce productivity, performance, cost-effectiveness and efficiency; increased pressure to demonstrate the value, impact, quality, and practicality of HRD services; accelerated rate of change and more uncertain business environment; increased emphasis on customer service and expectation of quality products and services from the workforce; increased sophistication and variety of tools, technologies, methods, theories and choices in HRD; increased diversity (demographics, values, experience) at all levels of the workforce; increased expectations for higher levels of judgment and flexibility in worker contribution.

The World Bank through the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (1997) identified that one major problem that confronts university managers, graduate employers, students and their families was how the quality of university education in Africa has declined significantly. This reflects

in student performance on standardized tests, academic staff credentials, student exposure to current knowledge and information, relevance of learning to labour market requirements among others.

Abdulai (2000) also posits that two major problems confront HRD in Ghana since the mid 1960's. First is the lack of skilled personnel in certain critical areas of the Ghanaian economy mainly due to lack of funds to provide the necessary training at home or abroad. Second is the over-emphasis on liberal education which has ironically created a surplus in certain categories of skills. Also, some major deficiencies in HRD programmes include: lack of a systematic and comprehensive training needs analysis; absence of transfer of learning; and failure to evaluate the effectiveness of HRD programmes more rigorously.

Evaluation is not done more frequently due to several possibilities that include: evaluation processes require time, resources, procedures and expertise, thus making it difficult to indulge in. For a sample of public and private organisations in the United Kingdom and Kuwait, evaluation of training interventions was done only occasionally. Also, both public and private universities in Kenya have no clear policy on the evaluation of teaching effectiveness.

Techniques used in Libyan industrial companies in selecting trainees and assessing management T&D needs are mostly dependent on indications from performance reports and the views of supervisors through questionnaires. Decisions related to management T&D is often influenced by personal relations, family ties, tribalism etc rather than on established procedures.

Oduro and Oduro (2004) identified that authorities of the UCC were entangled between commitment to cultural expectations and management governed by organisational ethics. That is to say performance management principles were in most cases compromised for the purpose of maintaining good relations with colleagues, relatives and other family ties.

ICT professionals in Kuwait regard induction and orientation courses for new employees, the development of policies for considering and sending employees for outside training and availabilities of facilities for organising in-house training programmes as characteristics of an organisation with a good HRD system.

In conclusion, all the empirical studies reviewed so far reveal that public and private universities have some similarities and differences regarding their HRD practices. Subsequently, fresh data from the UCC and VVU will be used to find if the similarities and differences exhibited in the literature review are the same or have seen any significant changes since the previous studies.

Theoretical Framework

One of the theoretical underpinnings of this study is provided by the human architecture model, developed by Lepak and Snell (1999). This model is grounded in three major theoretical streams of research but the focus of this research permits it to limit itself to one of these theoretical streams: the human capital theory.

The human capital theory, as advanced by Becker (1976), helps to identify the conditions under which investment in the development of human resources

makes economic sense for an organisation. Human capital theory gained prominence in the early 1960s, when Schultz (1961), Denison (1962) and others made a successful attempt to explain the reasons for the rapid growth of the United States economy in terms of its human resource other than physical capital, labor, land or management (Nafukho, Hairston and Brooks, 2004). Schultz (1961) argued that effective utilisation of human capital leads to significant positive results at the individual, organisational and societal levels. Becker (1964, 1993) demonstrated that individuals enhance their human capital through education and learning that occurs through on-the-job and off-the-job training. Recently, Nafukho et al., (2004) summarised the main outcomes that result from investment in people. These outcomes are improved performance at the individual level, improved productivity and profitability at the organisational level, and returns that benefit the entire society at the societal level.

This was earlier asserted by Smith's Human Capital Theory in 1776 which recognised the importance of human skills as a determinant of individual and national wealth. He illuminated that "A large part of educational services mostly consist of the development of human resources known as investment in human capital, which is, spending on education and training, provides a high rate of return on investment in the form of increased performance and income". Hence, education and training enhance the quality of labour. Thus, given the same amount of time and capital equipment; any given number of workers who have been trained and are highly skilled will produce a greater quantity of output than the same number of workers who are untrained and unskilled. On the aggregate,

the average production of labour increases due to investments in human resource. HRD therefore has a positive effect and correlation on performance.

Saxton (2000) conclusions in a research analysis examining the concept of human capital in the United States confirm Smith's Human Capital Theory in 1776. Saxton (2000) concludes that increased levels of education benefit individuals, their respective organisations and the society at large. Thus, increasing the years of schooling, training, and experience of workers has a significant effect on the earnings of individuals, their respective organisations and the society. The summary from his research includes the following: The rate of return on an additional year of schooling is quite substantial. In 1990, this rate averaged almost 10 percent per annum; in 1998, the median income of bachelor degree recipients was $46,285, nearly $20,000 higher than the median income for workers with only high school diplomas; increased educational attainment increases the probability that an individual will remain in the labor force. Among male workers in their 30's, 2.4 percent of college graduates were out of the labor force, compared to 7.9 percent for high school graduates; individuals with more human capital tend to be very efficient at their employment search, increasing their likelihood of remaining with the same firm. Workers with higher education and training are less likely to experience involuntary job changes; the return on a college diploma varies from one concentration area to another. For example, the recent median starting salary of a college graduate with a degree in computer science or engineering was $32,802, or was 36 percent higher than the median starting salary of all college graduates; there is a positive relationship between

increased education and good health; Human capital formation has a positive effect on economic growth. The contribution of increased educational levels to U.S. economic growth has been estimated to be as high as 25 percent; if education levels had stagnated at 1959 levels, and everything else had remained the same, GDP in 1997 would be 82.6 percent of its current level in real terms; more education is associated with a reduced dependence on income transfers; where the population is better educated there are, on average, fewer crimes; and a positive association exists between increased education and reduction in out-of wedlock childbirth (www.house.gov/jec/educ.pdf).

However, Towsend (1975) theorised that "the most important determinant of a person's job performance is the persons themselves, and a whole series of quality, trainability and developmental potential of the individual need to be carefully considered and related to the objective and intended outcomes of any training programme". He further re-iterates that training is only one, and it might not be the most important factor in determining person's level of job performance. People who have been trained do not necessarily perform at higher levels than those who have not been through a similar training experience. Townsend adds that training has to be targeted at staff or employees who are receptive to the opportunities for the development it offers. Towsend expounds that using training as a means of trying to improve the attitudes of people who do not want to change, is likely to be a waste of time. In effect it follows logic that forcing people to train when the rationale is unclear or unacceptable is bound and likely to result in failure.

Subsequently, Ulrich (as cited in Megginson et al, 1999) postulates that there ought to be a distinction between the identification of an activity such as training people, which is thought to contribute towards improving personal performance and the results of such an activity. He adds that training should be seen by staff as an opportunity and a challenge. The opportunity stems from the importance attached by Ulrich (as cited in Megginson et al, 1999) to the ability to learn, the possession of key skills and competences as well as the ability to manage processes quickly. These are human attributes which are to a degree acquired through the initial employment of people, but are also generated through effective training, re-training and development policies and practices.

Emanating from Ulrich's concern as seen in the preceding paragraph is another underlying theory of this study. Ulrich (as cited in Megginson et al, 1999) elucidated that many HRD initiatives fail to deliver the results expected of them; that training activities take place, trainees participate in them and resources are consumed, but somehow behavioural change at work and on the job seems marginal at best, and in worst case scenarios, there is no observable and or sustained improvement in job performance. Ulrich (as cited in Megginson et al, 1999) emphasises on deliverables and its implications for training. Carrying out training and delivering learning which supports job performance are not the same, and the recognition that the process of training staff, wherever it is done, and in whatever form, is the starting point rather than the end of a process of changing staff skills and attitude toward work.

Ulrich (as cited in Megginson et al, 1999) third concern is the positioning of training in relation to other human resource and performance oriented strategies and the expectations that different stakeholders have of it. At a more strategic level, the issue of whether training is isolated from or integrated with other initiatives and activities, for example in relation to performance appraisal, career development or incentives systems, needs to be explored. This is important because many of the potential benefits of training are based on a synergistic relationship between different performance enhancing strategies. In other words, training on its own is unlikely to generate the deliverables Ulrich is emphasizing. Rothwell and Kazanas (2003) makes a similar point when he argues that there are many solutions to solve human performance problems. He says that such strategies are not limited to training; they should be chosen on the basis of the human performance problems they are to solve or the human performance improvement opportunities they are to cultivate.

In a nutshell many different solutions may be used to improve human performance. Selection of any one solution is dependent upon the cause and the nature of the performance problem, and the criteria used to evaluate a solution must include its potential to make a measurable difference in the performance system. The significance of this statement for training lies in the ability to accurately diagnose the reasons for performance deficiencies and weaknesses to ascertain whether training is a potential solution to a performance problem, either on its own or in conjunction with other responses, or the need gap identified results from one of motivation, attitude, or opportunity.

The Conceptual Framework

Training Policy

Establish training

Identify training

Evaluate training   Plan required training

Carry out training
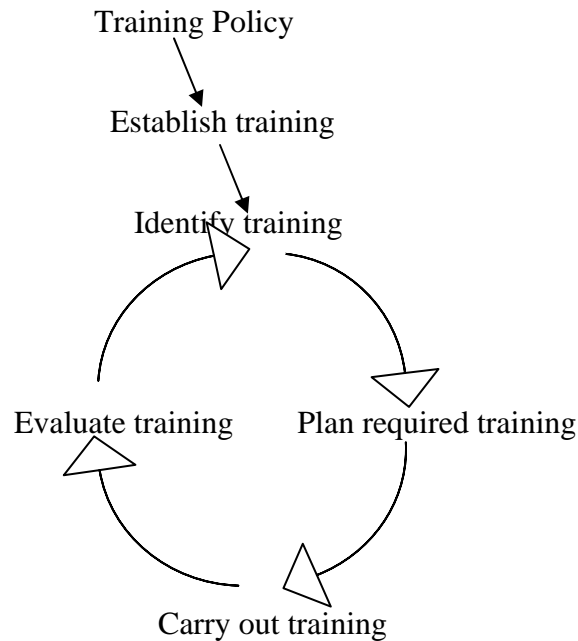
Figure 2. The basic cycle of a systematic training

Source: Cole (2005, p. 351)

Figure 2 is a conceptual framework showing a systematic flow of human resource development in an organisation. Cole (2005) referred to systematic training as "a term frequently used to describe well-organised Training and Development" (p. 351).

The first step of the process is to identify the 'Training Policy'. This in common parlance is said to be the organisations position on HRD programmes. Undoubtedly, the scope of T & D activities depends on the policy and strategies of the organisation. It is known that there are many organisations in the commercial field that carry out the minimum of staff T & D, because, as a matter of policy, they prefer to recruit staff that are already trained or professionally qualified. These organisations normally are prepared to pay the top market-rates

for skilled staff, and they put into recruitment, selection and pay the benefits they do not put into T & D. It is incumbent for organisations, to have well defined policy on T & D as it is the only sure way that the organisation will provide resources to ensure that key skills are maintained within the organisation. Such policy may also comprehensively indicate the various actions to be taken to ensure not only a regular supply of skills, but also a high degree of personal motivation through development opportunities provided by the organisation. In regards to this, literature stipulates that both private and public institutions including universities have well defined HRD policies governing their institutions (Ghansah' 2009)

The next stage of the process is the establishment of the training institution. This is very vital and a pre-requisite for the success of every T & D programnme. The role of the training organisation depends considerably on the culture of the organisation. If the organisation actively encourages T & D activities, then the training organisation will have an exciting and important role to play; if, however, the organisation only wishes to pay lip-service to training, then the role of the training organisation will be severely limited. The other major factor in deciding what kind of role can be played is that of the training staff's own competence and professionalism. Where trainers are highly skilled both politically and professionally, they will tend to enjoy a good reputation within the organisation; where their skills and ambitions are of a lower order, then so will their reputation and effectiveness be proportionately lower.

Once the training organisation has been set up, the next priority is to establish what the T & D needs (Needs assessment) of the organisation are. Cole (2005) asserts that training need "is any shortfall in terms of employee knowledge, understanding, skill and attitudes against what is required by the job or demands of the organisational change" (p. 352). Diagrammatically, it can be expressed as shown in figure 3.

Level of knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes required by job possessed by employee

Shortfall or training needs

Level of knowledge, skills etc
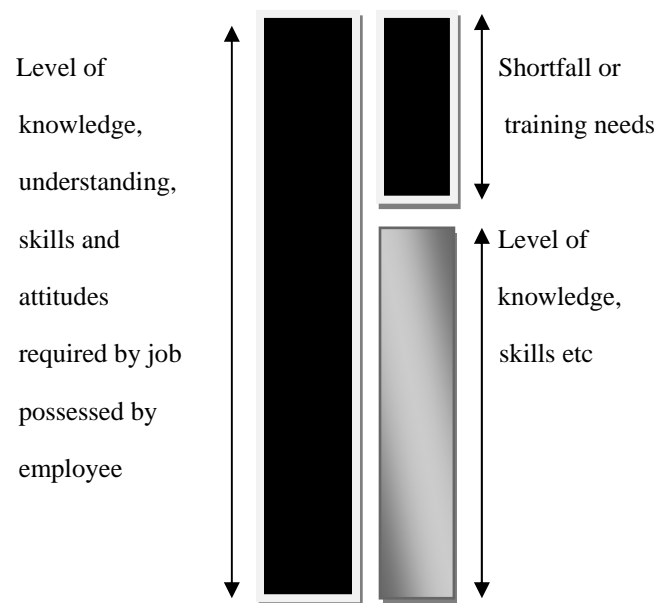
Figure 3. A training need diagram

Source: Cole (2005, p. 353)

Noe (1999) opines that need assessment typically involves organisational analysis, person analysis, and task analysis. Organisational analysis involves considering the context in which training will occur. It determines the appropriateness of training and aids in prioritising needs, given the organisation's business strategy, policies, goals and objectives; resources available and support by managers and peers for training activities. Person analysis helps to identify

who needs training and what kind of training they need. It involves determining whether performance deficiencies result from a lack of knowledge, skill, ability (a training issue) or from a motivational or work design problem; identifying who needs training; and determining employees' readiness for training. Task analysis includes identifying the important tasks, knowledge, skills and behaviours that need to be emphasised in training for employees to complete their tasks. This involves the use of job descriptions, employee appraisal records and other data which may indicate such needs.

In order to identify the training needs of organizations DeSimone and Harris (1998) stipulated that training needs assessment reports is required. This report documents those needs in an organized manner. There is the growing perception that private sector organizations (universities) prepare training needs assessment reports on a more regular basis than their counterparts in the public sector.

The next step is to design programme to meet the needs identified which entails such matters as setting budgets and timetables; and deciding on the objectives, contents and methods of training to be employed. The adult learning theory as proposed by Malcolm Knowles (as cited in Noe, 1999) must be considered at this stage. This indicates that adults: have a need to know why they are learning; to be self directed, bring more work-related experiences into the learning situation, enter into a learning experience with a problem centered approach to learning, and are motivated to learn by both extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. Hence, indicators like interest, expectations among others must be

factored in during this stage. However, the growing perception is that the design of HRD programmes of private sector (universities) are more based on their needs assessment reports than that of the private universities.

Having implemented the required training, it is important to evaluate the results so that subsequent changes to content and methods can be made if necessary. At the programme evaluation stage, the question of what to evaluate is crucial to the evaluation strategy. Kirkpatrick (as cited in Cole, 2005) identified four levels of evaluation process:

(a) *Reactions* (did the learner like the training?). This seeks to obtain and assess the reactions of trainees to the learning experiences they have been put through.

(b) *Learning* (what was learnt from the training?). Learning-centred evaluation seeks to measure the degree of learning that has been achieved. This is usually achieved by testing trainees following the training, as in a driving test.

(c) *Behaviour* (how much did learners change their behaviour as a result of the training?). This is aimed at assessing the degree of behavior change which has taken place on-the-job after returning from a period of training. It is a measure of learning, but learning which has been applied in the workplace. It is however, not an easy task to evaluate the degree to which learning has been applied, especially in cases where training involves social skills, such as leadership, are concerned.

(d) *Results* (how much organisational improvement resulted from the learners behavioural change?). This is the final stage of the evaluation process, where the impact of learning on organisational goals is considered. Thus, what has training done for profitability or organisations image, for example? This is probably a

favourite question asked by top management, but is extremely difficult to evaluate on account of the many other variables which have an impact on these goals.

Cole (2005) however, elucidated that evaluation must be conducted as the programme unfolds as well as when the outcome of the programme is being utilised. Thus, an evaluation data can be obtained prior to training, during training, immediately after training, or at a specified time after the end of training.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methods and procedures used in conducting the research. It provides general information about how the study was conducted, the size and nature of characteristics of the population, the sampling technique and types of data collection technique which was used in carrying out the research study. The chapter is arranged under the following sections: research design; population; profiles of the universities under study; sample and sample size; pilot-testing of instrument; data collection procedure; and data analysis procedure.

Research Design

The study sought to gather and analyse information on existing human resource development practices in University of Cape Coast and Valley View University institutions, using the descriptive survey method. It was both exploratory and an explanatory research.

Gravetter and Forzano (2006) explained that 'a descriptive survey typically involves measuring a variable or a set of variables as they exist naturally" (p. 136). In descriptive survey design, the researcher draws a sample from the population of interest and generalisations are made taking into consideration their responses. Osuala (1991) also pointed out that descriptive surveys are practical to the researcher and identify present conditions and at the

same time point to the present needs. Respondents were surveyed to collect information describing HRD practices in the UCC and VVU by having respondents from both institutions fill out questionnaires. Respondents were also engaged in an interview with the researcher.

The descriptive survey was chosen over other research designs due to some peculiar characteristic the descriptive survey exhibits that made it more appropriate for the study considering the purpose and focus of the study. First, Osuala (1991) believed that the descriptive survey is regarded by social scientists as the best especially where large populations are involved, and it is widely used in educational research since data gathered through descriptive survey represent field conditions. Second, Amedahe (2002) also argued that in descriptive research, there is accurate description of activities and this goes beyond mere fact-finding. Thus, the study went beyond the 'what' questions to ask 'why' and 'how' questions in order to understand the issues. Third, Amedahe further opines that descriptive survey adopts the method of randomisation so that errors may be estimated when population characteristics are inferred from observation and samples; and, there is the need to present data chronologically in order to arrive at valid and accurate conclusions. Fourth, variables and procedures would be described for others to replicate the study in the near future. Fifth, considering the research questions the purpose of the study and the population, it was appropriate to use this design, which would help to achieve the purpose and to draw meaningful conclusions from the study. Last but not the least this design also facilitated the comparison of results in qualitative terms.

The study was also exploratory and explanatory in that organisational practices constantly undergo changes and modified to meet global competitiveness, hence, further exploratory questions of both 'what' and 'why' questions were asked to ascertain the reason for the change or stability. The 'what' questions unraveled what pertained to the HRD practices in these two institutions whereas the 'why' questions explained these phenomena. The 'what', 'how' and 'why' questions were posed to respondents that allowed the researcher to explore, describe and explain.

Population

A research population refers to the entire set of individuals of interest to the researcher (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006). The population of the study consisted of the academic and non-academic staff of the University of Cape Coast (public university) and Valley View University (private university). The non-academic staff included only the senior members and senior staffs of the two Universities.

University of Cape Coast (UCC) was chosen due to its immense contribution to national development through the production of qualified and skilled human resource to the country. Also, available literature reveals that the two oldest universities (University of Ghana and Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology) have been used over and over by several researchers in similar human resource studies; hence the researcher found it more expedient to use UCC which is equally a relatively older university.

Valley View University on the other hand was chosen because it is the oldest private university that had stood the test of time and has been given a

charter as an autonomous, fully fledged private university in Ghana, (www.vvu.edu.gh.)

Profiles of the Universities under Study

University of Cape Coast

The University of Cape Coast (UCC) was established on December 15th, 1962 as a University College and placed under the tutelage of the University of Ghana. On October 1, 1971, the University attained the status of a full and independent University with the authority to confer its own degrees, diplomas and certificates by an Act of Parliament, the University of Cape Coast Act 1971 (Act 390) and subsequently the University of Cape Coast Law, 1992 (PNDC Law 278).

UCC was established out of a dire need for highly qualified and skilled manpower that would, in turn, train and develop the nation's human capital. Thus, UCC had a pivotal role of training graduate teachers for second cycle institutions, teacher training colleges and technical institutions; a mission the two Universities existing at the time were ill-equipped to fulfill (Dwako & Kwarteng, 2003). The University was also given the mandate "to serve the needs of the whole country" and "to play a unique role in national development by identifying national needs and addressing them (p. 45)."

From an initial intake of 155 students in 1962, the University could boast of a student population of about 17,000 regular students, 4,000 sandwich (summer) students and 20,000 distance learners as at the end of the 2009/10 academic year. While remaining loyal to its original mandate of training high caliber graduate teachers, UCC had successfully diversified its programme

offerings to include: business administration, tourism, commerce, agriculture, actuarial science, optometry, medical sciences, nursing, labour studies, governance and democracy, music and theatre studies, computer science and information technology just to mention but a few. By the end of the 2009/10 academic year UCC had a total of three faculties and five schools with their respective departments totaling fifty nine (Vice-Chancellors Annual Report to the 41st Congregation, 2010).

With judicious planning and careful execution, UCC has grown from a small University College to a giant institution of excellence and choice in Africa and the world. The institution has produced over 30,000 highly trained graduates in several fields with products found in all socio-economic and political sectors in and outside Ghana (www.ucc.edu.gh). At the time that this study was being conducted UCC had an academic staff of 467, while its non-teaching staff (administrative and supporting staff) numbered 3434. The 3434 staff comprised 2331 junior staff, 1000 senior staff and 103 senior members (Human Resource Division, June 2010).

Valley View University (VVU)

Valley View University was established in 1979 by the West African Union Mission of Seventh-day Adventists (now Ghana Union Conference). The University began as the Adventist Missionary College and was located in Bekwai-Ashanti. It was transferred to Adentan near Accra in 1983 where it operated in rented facilities until it was relocated to its present site near Oyibi (19 miles down Accra-Dodowa Road). In 1989 it was renamed Valley View College.

In 1995, the university was affiliated to Griggs University in Silver Spring, Maryland, USA and subsequently allowed the university to offer a four year bachelor's degrees in Theology and Religious Studies. The university had since grown from strength to strength and was adjudged as one of the best universities across the continent in the year 2000. The National Accreditation Board (NAB, Ghana) granted it national accreditation in 1995 that allowed the university to offer degree programmes.

VVU had the singular distinction of being the first private university in Ghana to be granted a Charter in May 28, 2006 and the only private university with autonomy (www.vvu.edu.gh). Comparatively, VVU was a relatively small institution with a total student enrolment of 3250 as at October 2010 (Vice President, Admissions and Records). From the human resource directorate by October 2010, the university had 61 academic staff and 43 non-academic staff (8 senior members and 35 senior staff).

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

The accessible population of UCC was 467 academic staff, 103 senior members (administrative) and 1000 senior staff. From these sub-populations the simple random sampling technique was used to select 210 from the academic staff; 80 from senior members (administrative) and 278 senior staff as suggested by Krejcie and Morgan as cited in Sarantakos (1998). The disproportionate simple random sampling was used because conceptually, simple random sampling is the simplest of the probability sampling techniques. It requires a complete sampling frame, which may not be available or feasible to construct for large populations.

Thus, the simple random sampling is free of classification error, and it requires minimum advance knowledge of the population other than the frame. Its simplicity also makes it relatively easy to interpret data collected (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006).

Valley View University on the other hand had 61 academic staff, 8 senior members and 35 senior staff. This population warranted no sampling but a census selection of all the different categories of staff because the size was small as compared to the UCC. The census technique was actually used due to the relatively small population of VVU. More so, this technique was also used because it has been identified by many social scientists that data obtained from it is very reliable and accurate, and curtails the margin of error in data that is normally obtained from sampling (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006).

In the UCC, since respondents were sampled through the disproportionate simple random sampling the human resource development director and the training and development officers were purposively chosen as part of the sample. Also, in the case of senior members (administrative) all the deans and faculty officers of the various faculties and schools were purposively included. The purposive sampling technique was adopted for the study due to the positions occupied by those categories of personnel vis-à-vis the focus of the study. Thus, those respondents were indispensable and that necessitated their inclusion in the sample.

Questionnaires

The choice of questionnaires was informed by the nature, scope and focus of the study. Basically, the choice of questionnaire was necessitated by the research design (descriptive survey) which sought to explore, describe and explain. The study thus, gathered data about the beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours of people. Subsequently, questionnaires have been identified very helpful in gathering information that is unique to individuals, such as attitudes or knowledge. More so, by the focus of the study, it was important to protect the privacy of participants especially when gathering sensitive information. Questionnaires are therefore identified very helpful in maintaining participants' privacy because participants' responses can be anonymous or confidential. Lastly, disseminating of questionnaires is relatively inexpensive hence the choice of the questionnaires (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006). However, costs will increase if one needs to do a lot of follow-up to get a sufficient response rate as was experienced in this study.

The questionnaires for the study were self designed through information that was gathered from literature and some of the responses that were gathered from the open-ended questions during the pilot testing. The questionnaires used for the study underwent a lot of changes before main data for the study were finally collected. The questionnaires that were used during the pilot testing had two sections that were open ended questions which required respondents to share their views on the issues raised. These sections were problems that respondents

envisaged to hamper HRD programmes in their respective institutions and possible recommendations for improving these identified problems.

However, closed-ended and multiple choice response questions were used in the final questionnaires that were administered. The decision to adopt these kinds of questions was precipitated by the observation made during the pilot testing. The pilot testing indicated that respondents were not comfortable with the open ended questions hence as many as 95% of respondents left all the open ended questions un-answered. Although some variables being investigated required statement of fact and opinions from respondents the researcher was compelled to make all of them close-ended. The questionnaires consisted of a variety of items. One group of questions provided alternative responses from which the respondents were required to choose from. The other set of questions required respondents to indicate whether they agree or disagree to statements made on a Likert-type scale.

The questionnaires were designed to obtain information on a wide range of HRD issues and also to obtain information that enabled assessment and comparison to be made. In all there were 43 items and 44 items on the questionnaires for the HR directors and the academic and non-academic staff respectively which were categorised into six sections. Section 'A' was made up of only two items which sought some background information about respondents. The remaining sections B, C, D, E and F elicited responses that answered each of the research questions that guided the study (see Appendices H & I).

Questionnaires were all delivered by the researcher to respondents by hand. This approach gave the researcher the opportunity to explain the purpose of the study, the meaning of some items that were not clear to them as well as to appeal for their co-operation.

A summary of the questionnaires retrieved from both institutions are shown in Tables 1 and 2. The return rate was 69.89% for the UCC and 90.38% for VVU. This was found very representative as Alreck and Settle (1985) argue that a sample size 10% of a population is enough to obtain adequate confidence. They postulate that the greater the dispersion or variance in the population, the larger the sample must be to provide estimation precision and vice-versa.

Table 1: Summary of the Questionnaires Retrieved in the UCC

Category of staff	Questionnaires		
	Distributed	Retrieved	Return Rate %
Senior staff	278	217	78.06
Lecturers	210	120	57.14
Senior members (adm.)	80	60	75.00
Total	**568**	**397**	**69.89**

Source: Field Data (2011)

Table 2: Summary of the Questionnaires Retrieved in VVU

Category of staff	Questionnaires		
	Distributed	Retrieved	Return Rate %
Senior staff	35	35	100.00
Lecturers	61	51	83.61
Senior members (adm.)	8	8	100.00
Total	**104**	**94**	**90.38**

Source: Field Data (2011)

Structured Interview schedules

A structured interview technique involves the preparation of structured questions which are administered to identified sample of respondents. This instrument was employed to clarify issues that were not satisfactorily answered through the questionnaires and 'why and how' certain responses were also given. Specifically the interviews were structured for the directors of training in the two universities as well as the directors of the counselling centres of the two universities. Answers provided by these respondents were also documented and used as additional information.

Prior arrangements were made with them due to their busy schedules. Although the appointments and meeting dates kept on changing, they finally honoured the appointments for the interviews to be conducted.

Pilot-Testing of Instrument

The questionnaires were pilot-tested at the University of Ghana (UG) and Central University College, all in the Greater Accra Region using 10 members of staff from the human resource directorate, 10 faculty deans, 15 lecturers and 15 senior staff from both institutions. The return rate was 68% representing 34 out of 50 questionnaires distributed. UG and Central University College were selected because they had similar characteristics with the institutions under study. All the respondents were randomly selected with the exception of the directors of training who were purposively chosen due to their relevance to the study. One week interval was originally allowed for the respondents to answer the questions, but in

the end it took three weeks to retrieve 34 out of 50 copies of the questionnaire distributed.

The rationale for this pilot testing was to revise the questionnaires that would be used in the study to make it more specific and effective in soliciting the needed responses. This helped in identifying possible problems, which was likely to be encountered in the study, as well as develop a reliable pattern for coding the responses and draw up a procedure for data collection. To ensure reliability of the questions and measure internal consistency, the Cronbach's alpha co-efficient was computed using data from the pilot testing.

There were two sets of the questionnaires, one set for the HR directors and another set for the academic and non-academic staff. The questionnaires for the human resource professionals gave a Cronbach's alpha reliability and internal coefficient of .91 while that of the academic and non-academic staff gave .61. These were found acceptable as Kline (1999) provides that depending on the kind of study and its' focus an internal consistency of .5 is acceptable for a research instrument.

Sources of Data and Data Collection Methods

Both primary and secondary data were used in the study. Primary data was collected through field survey in the chosen institutions using structured questionnaire and one-on-one interview. Secondary data were also collected through the review of existing literature mainly management books, articles, journals, thesis and dissertations (both published and unpublished) internet, official records (university handbook, introductory materials etc) and news paper

reports. Secondary data has been identified to be economical and having the potential to give high quality of information with the possibility of retesting (Sarantakos, 1998).

This mode of data collection involved triangulation since almost all the instruments used had their strengths and weaknesses. The flaws of one technique were expected to be compensated by the strengths of another technique. Consequently, triangulation meant to ensure that the strengths and weaknesses of these methods complemented and supplemented for each other.

Data Analysis Procedure

The study was a descriptive survey in which both quantitative and qualitative analyses were used. All quantitative data analysis were done using SPSS programme version 16.0. Responses to the questionnaire were edited, coded and scored before it was fed into the computer for analysis. To make issues clearer, frequencies and percentages, means and standard deviations, mean of means as well the Mann Whitney U statistic were used for the analysis. The Mann Whitney U test was used to answer questions about differences and similarities between the two Universities under study. Thus, according to Gravetter & Wallnau, (2004) the "Mann Whitney U test is designed to use data from two separate samples to evaluate the difference between two treatments (or two populations)" (p. 636)

Specifically, means and standard deviations were used to answer research question one; the Mann Whitney U test was used to answer research question two; a combination of frequencies, percentages and Mann Whitney U test were used to

answer research question three; Mann Whitney U test was also used to answer research questions four; and finally percentages, frequencies, means, standard deviations and the mean of means were used to answer research question five.

The interviews conducted were specifically to seek for clarity and further explanation and insight into some issues that needed additional probe. Interviews were documented through hand writing and grouped according to the issues raised from questionnaire. Information was used in the interpretation and discussion to augment findings from questionnaire where necessary.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the responses obtained from the various data collection and the results of analysis of the data. The responses cover issues pertaining to: human resource development policies from which emanates the institutions HRD programmes; driving forces that inform the two Universities HRD programmes; the types of staff training techniques that the two Universities adopt in its training and development programmes; challenges that confront the two Universities in its HRD programmes; and possible strategies in addressing some of the challenges that confront smooth administration of HRD programmes.

The responses generated from the questionnaires are all presented in tabular form whereas responses from the interviews conducted are discussed in text to augment findings that emanated from the analysis of questionnaires. To facilitate easy comparison about similarities and differences, responses are grouped according to the research questions and also responses obtained from the UCC under each activity are compared with the responses obtained from VVU.

Background Information

Respondents were requested to indicate the number of years they had served in their respective universities and their academic / professional qualifications. Tables 3 and 4 present a summary of the responses from the study.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents of UCC and VVU based on their Number of Years Served

Yrs. Served	Category of staff					
	UCC			VVU		
	SS	lecturers	administrative (SM)	SS	lecturers	administrative (SM)
1-5	56(25.8%)	19(15.8%)	4(6.7%)	17(48.6%)	19(37.3%)	-
6-10	64(29.5%)	34(28.3%)	9(15.0%)	12(34.3%)	22(43.1%)	4(50.0%)
11-15	26(12.0%)	24(20.0%)	15(25.0%)	6(17.1%)	10(19.6%)	3(37.5%)
16-20	29(13.4%)	16(13.3%)	11(18.3%)	-	-	1(12.5%)
21-25	23(10.6%)	16(13.3%)	8(13.3%)	-	-	-
26-30	13(6.0%)	8(6.7%)	8(13.3%)	-	-	-
31 and above	6(2.8%)	3(2.5%)	5(8.3%)	-	-	-
Total	**217(100%)**	**120(99.9%)**	**60(99.9%)**	**35100%)**	**51(100%)**	**8(100%)**

Source: Field Data (2011)

Key: SS = Senior Staff   SM = Senior Members

From Table 3, it could be deduced that majority of respondents from all the categories of staff of both Universities had served for more than five years. This period is long enough for one to get acquainted with an institution's culture and practices. Thus, both universities could boast of on-the-job experience by virtue of long service, the UCC, however, was in a better position to tap and enjoy this service better than VVU due to its longevity in existence. However, it must be noted that relying solely on the mechanism of long service without T & D would result in non performance with regard to meeting international standards and market demand. VVU on the hand must consequently ensure a regular and greater collaboration with other traditional universities as well as consuming industries for such inevitable experiences.

Although the study did not require the real ages of respondents, the number of years served gives a clue of the age range of respondents. This analysis revealed that the majority of the respondents in the UCC were near the retirement age. Subsequently, the UCC should have in place a succession plan to recruit young personnel, train and develop its young staff and ensure that they are retained to fill in the gap when the older ones are gone. This would ensure a continuity process where the younger generation would always tap and learn the rich experiences of the older generation. Thus, an organisation that lacks the requisite expertise has very little chances of survival, either in the short term or long term. Thereby, it makes it imperative and crucial that training and development of staff is strengthened in both universities.

Table 4: Academic / Professional Qualification of Respondents in the UCC and VVU

Qualification	Category of staff					
	UCC			VVU		
	SS	lecturers	administrative (SM)	SS	lecturers	administrative (SM)
Non degree	136(62.7%)	-	-	3(8.6%)	-	-
Degree	73(33.6%)	-	-	32(91.4%)	-	-
Masters	8(3.7%)	68(56.7%)	58(96.7%)	-	47(92.2%)	8(100%)
Ph.D	-	37(30.8%)	2(3.3%)	-	3(5.9%)	-
Professors	-	15(12.5%)	-	-	1(1.9%)	-
Total	**217(100%)**	**120(100%)**	**60(100%)**	**35(100%)**	**51(100%)**	**8(100%)**

Source: Field Data (2011)

Key: SS = Senior Staff   SM = Senior Members

From Table 4 it could be deduced that the issue of minimum qualification required to work in a university had greatly improved among the senior staffs, administrative senior members and lecturers in the UCC and VVU. For instance, the UCC could boast of some senior staff with masters' degree as well as administrative senior members with Ph.D degrees. Though these categories of staff were not many, this development is highly commendable. Sixty-eight (56.7%) of lecturers from the UCC and a corresponding percentage of 47(92.2%) from VVU had their masters' degree that happens to be the minimum entry qualification to teaching in tertiary institutions. VVU equally had a significant percentage of 32(91.4%) of senior staff with first degrees. Thus, from the results in Table 4, both universities could boast of the minimum requirement needed to work in a university among all the categories of staff. This is in sharp contrast to what Adenyi (1991) observed two decades ago that suggested that there was acute manpower needs in almost all fields in African universities or tertiary institutions and that minimum requirements for employment were hardly attained.

From the length of service of respondents as shown in Table 3 and their respective qualifications indicated in Table 4, respondents could be described as experienced and well vest in their respective institutional framework of action, culture, practices and other structures. Respondents were therefore not novices but in a better position to provide credible and authentic responses to issues raised in the questionnaire about their institutions HRD programmes.

Policy Framework for HRD Programmes

The first research question sought to explore the policy framework within which HRD programmes of UCC and VVU are carried out. Respondents were asked to state the policy framework around which their institutions HRD programmes revolves. Table 5 shows a summary of the results from both Universities.

Table 5: Responses on Policy Framework of UCC and VVU within which their HRD Programmes are Carried Out

Policy	UCC			VVU		
	M	SD	No idea	M	SD	No idea
Recruitment and staff development policy	1.64	1.78	207(52.1%)	1.74	1.47	40(42.6%)
Social research policy	1.39	1.56	208(52.4%)	1.84	1.66	38(40.4%)
Staff welfare policy	1.28	1.42	208(52.4%)	2.00	1.75	38(40.4%)
Christian research policy	1.00	0.92	208(52.4%)	1.98	1.77	40(42.6%)

Source: Field Data (2011)

A summary of the results obtained from the two Universities as tabulated in Table 5 indicates that both institutions had documented HRD policy framework from which emanates their HRD initiatives. Both institutions had a Recruitment and staff development policy (M=1.64 for UCC and M=1.74 for VVU) that focuses on producing the right numbers of skilled and experienced staff through T & D. They both also had a social research policy (M=1.39 for UCC; and M=1.84 for VVU) that is geared towards promotion of research aimed at solving socio-economic and political problems in and around the sub-region. This policy

confirms an earlier study by Turk and Roohalt (2005) that Universities are involved in conducting research aimed at finding solutions to socio-economic problems of their communities. Finally the two Universities could all boast of a staff welfare policy (M=1.28 for UCC and M=2.00 for VVU) that ensures the implementation of incentives in retaining its staff.

The only difference between the two Universities in terms of their policy framework on HRD was the Christian research policy (M=1.98 for VVU; M=1.00 for UCC) that is meant to promote research aimed at finding solutions to the challenges facing Christianity in the sub-region as being pursued by VVU. VVU believes that academic excellence without moral/spiritual excellence is tantamount to parochial training that does not position a person to be of service to God and humanity. This also, agrees with a previous study by Walton (2005) which found that private universities are more interested in promoting activities which facilitate the achievement of their corporate objectives. The existence of HRD policy with its content clearly spelt out in both institutions intended to provide opportunities for each organisational member and the organisation itself to develop to their fullest potential and creates a congenial environment in which employees can find exciting and challenging work (Gilley et al, 2002).

From Table 5, it was also evident from the results that, some respondents regardless of the years served and the key positions that some held had no idea of the HRD policy framework within which their institutions HRD programmes revolve. In an interview, a non academic head at the UCC illuminated that there were different documents from which emanates some of these policies. Some of

these documents include: Conditions of Service for Senior Members; Administrative Manual for all staff members; Revised Unified Scheme of Service for Junior Staff of the Public Universities in Ghana; as well as the United Conditions of Service for Unionized Staff of the Public Universities. As some of the names suggest, part of these documents are national in nature that governs all public universities in Ghana whereas others are internally structured and drawn by the university. From this analysis, it is obvious that the UCC had its HRD policies scattered in different documents making it difficult for easy accessibility and consumption by staff members. Contrary to the scenario in the UCC, VVU revealed that they had all HRD policies consolidated in one document known as the Staff Handbook. The situation in VVU beyond any form of dispute should allow for staff familiarity with these HRD policies however, the results as indicated in Table 5 disagree with this notion. The interviewee from VVU further illuminated that a copy of the 'faculty and staff handbook' is given to each staff member upon his / her appointment. The results from Table 4 however suggest that an average of 53.2% and 41.5% of staff from the UCC and VVU respectively were ignorant of what their institution's HRD policies were.

Hitherto, the researcher could not find any literature that explicitly stipulate anything on best practice with regards to accessibility and staff familiarisation of institutions' HRD policy; however, it is only prudent that members within an organisation familiarise themselves with documents of this nature that invariably affects their personal and career development and eventually has a spill over on the organisational development.

Driving Forces of HRD

Having shared their views on the policy framework governing HRD programmes in their universities, respondents were asked about what they considered to be the major driving forces of HRD programmes in their universities**.** The sudden agitation of HRD as an indispensable facet of every successful organisation stems from certain variables. Gilley & Eggland; Kimmerling; Mirvis; and Pynes as cited in Drayton (1999) in different studies were consistent in their prediction that economic, political and sociological factors will have a major influence on human resource development in the next decade. Influences such as technology, changing workforce demographics, increased regulations and governmental legislation, as well as the globalisation of organisations were factors that were constantly cited would be impacting the work of human resource development in the future and these are what the study has referred to as 'Driving Forces'.

A summary of some of these driving forces that were identified in earlier studies were adopted in this study. Table 6 presents a summary of the statistical analysis from the study.

Table 6: Summary Statistics on Driving Forces that Necessitate HRD Programmes

Driving force	1nstitution				
	UCC	VVU			
	MR	MR	*U*	*Z*	p-value
Continuous pressure for increased quality, innovation and productivity.	268	154	10047	-8.04	.000*
Apparent need to improve the skill-mix of employees	241	265	16834	-1.68	.094
Need to change corporate culture	247	240	18137	-.48	.630
Achieve better return on investment	218	362	7738	-9.68	.000*
Improve industrial relations	241	267	16652	-1.87	.061
Satisfy the needs, wishes and demands of employees	249	232	17367	-1.21	.228
Sum of driving forces	**238**	**280**	**15427**	**-2.68**	**.007***

Source: Field Data (2011)

*p < .05 (Significant difference)   n(UCC) = 397;   n(VVU) = 94

Key: MR = Mean Rank

The data obtained indicate that there was statistically significant difference in the total sum of the driving forces that necessitate and inform HRD initiatives in the UCC and VVU (*U* = 15427, *p* = .007). However, Table 6 shows that as many as 4 out of the 6 drivers exhibited similarities between the two universities. This revelation presupposes that the difference that reflected in the total sum of

the drivers emanates from the kind of premium placed on the individual driving forces by the two institutions as shown in the mean rank of the results in Table 6.

There were statistically significant differences between the two institutions in respect of the continuous pressure for increased quality, innovation and productivity (U = 10047, $p < .001$). It could further be seen from Table 5 that the UCC exhibited a significantly higher mean rank than VVU. This large difference could be attributed to the fact that 'public universities' like UCC in recent times are increasing pursuit of performance management due to pressures emanating from changes in government policies; high public expectations and the need to meet international standards of operation (Mittal, as cited in Oduro & Oduro, 2004). Moreover, The Association of African Universities (1997) elucidated that:

> One major problem that confronts university managers, graduate employers, students and their families was how the quality of university education in Africa has declined significantly. This is true regardless of how quality is defined, e.g. student performance on standardized tests, academic staff credentials, student exposure to current knowledge and information, relevance of learning to labour market requirements among others (p. 16).

The situation is compounded with the mushrooming of private universities in Africa and for that matter Ghana, which does not only pose competitive threat to public universities but has more importantly necessitated the transformation of their mode of operation (Oduro & Oduro, 2004). All these undoubtedly have put immense pressure on public universities to improve on quality, create innovations

and increase productivity towards meeting market demands as their private counterparts. The means produced was a reflection that the UCC's HRD programmes were much more informed by this driving force than VVU.

Another driving force that showed significant difference reflected in the achievement of better return on investment (U = 7738, $p < .001$). Judging from the mean ranks produced indicates that the choice of HRD programmes was much more informed by this principle in VVU than the UCC. This revelation could be illuminated with the concept that VVU just like any other private corporate entity works with the ultimate aim of making profit. Basically, one of the primary objectives of any private organisation is to get the highest profit. Consequently, the private sector produces where total revenues are far higher than total costs. The private sector equally ensures an increase in the market shares to get a sustainable competitive advantage. All these factors explain why VVU, even as an educational institution would still factor in 'achieving better return on investment' as a prominent variable to consider when embarking on any HRD programme.

However, judging from the mean ranks (*MR*) in hierarchical order as could be deduced from Table 6, the UCC reported 'the continuous pressure for increased quality, innovation, and productivity', 'satisfying the needs, wishes and demands of employees', 'the need to change corporate culture' as well as 'an apparent need to improve the skill-mix of the employees' as the major drivers of the institutions' HRD initiatives. VVU on the other hand reported 'achieve better return on investment', 'improve industrial relations', 'apparent need to improve

the skill-mix of the employees', and 'the need to change corporate culture' as the major drivers of the institutions' HRD initiatives.

Both universities reported absolutely different driving forces with regards to how they rank them in order of importance. Thus, this could be attributed to the economic realities like severe global and domestic competition; unprecedented product/service market changes; changing customer expectations and preferences coupled with the introduction of new technology to meet quality standards which have invariably led organisations to take a closer look at their training and development (Yadapadithaya and Stewart, 2003). Thus, the compulsive forces (external pressures) of a newly emerged market-oriented economy seemed to have influenced and necessitated a paradigm shift in the operations and governance both in the UCC and VVU.

These findings support McLagan, Suhadolnik and Pyne revelation as cited in Drayton (1999) that forces that would drive HRD initiatives in the near future were 'continuous pressure for increased quality, innovation and productivity' and 'apparent need to improve the skill mix of employees'. However the study has identified some additional drivers that were unique to the two universities. In conclusion, there seem to be consistency where most writers agree theoretically that almost the same set of driving forces precipitates HRD programmes but this study has unraveled that there are still some differences with regards to the order of importance which is largely based on the institutions mission, vision and objectives.

Types of Staff Training Techniques

One major factor that necessitates the evolution of HRD programmes in organisations is when management identifies any shortfall regarding to employees' knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes against what is required by the job, or demand of an organisational change. Thus, training is seen as an intervention to correct the deficiency in performance. It is therefore incumbent that clients' needs are given high priority in order to efficiently fill in the needs gap identified. Hence, it is pertinent and immaculate to ascertain the desirability and effectiveness of the kind of training techniques adopted by institutions during their T & D programmes.

It is for these reasons that research question three sought to identify the kind of training techniques mostly adopted by the UCC and VVU in its quest for training and development of its staff.

Instrument used for Job Evaluation

The question of what kind of training technique should be adopted for specific human resource development programmes is largely dependent on the kind of needs assessment performed by an organisation in identifying the organisational needs. These organisational needs could well be identified and articulated through job evaluation. Consequently, to start with, respondents were asked to share their opinion on the kind of instruments that were normally used by their respective institutions during job evaluation. A summary of the results from both universities is shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Perceptions of UCC Staff and VVU Staff about the kind of Instrument widely used for Job Evaluation

	UCC		VVU	
Instrument	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Performance records	113	28.5	52	55.3
Observation	29	7.3	6	6.4
Interview	51	12.8	5	5.3
Performance test	16	4.0	-	-
Questionnaire	188	47.4	31	33.0
Total	**397**	**100.0**	**94**	**100.0**

Source: Field Data (2011)

Table 7 indicates that both organisations used questionnaires and performance records for their job evaluation. Other instruments identified in Table 6 seemed less popular in both institutions. These agree with DeSimone and Harris (1998) and confirmed by Agnaia (1996) revelation that performance records and questionnaires are mostly used in job evaluation by organisations. DeSimone and Harris (1998) further outlined some other ways of performing needs analysis which may include analysing organisational goals and objectives to identify where training emphasis can and should be placed, using manpower inventory to determine where training is needed to fill gaps caused by retirement, turnover and age and customer complaints indexes among others.

Criteria used for Selecting Staff for Training and Development

The study also sought to find out the criteria that were widely used for selecting staff during T & D programmes. The result is summarised in Tables 8.

Table 8: Criteria used by UCC and VVU for the Selection of Staff for T & D

Criteria	UCC		VVU	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Training needs of the University	89	22.8	47	50.0
Training needs of staff	99	24.9	10	10.6
Qualification of staff	47	11.8	12	12.8
Length of employment of staff	91	22.9	15	16.0
Rank of staff	71	17.9	10	10.6
Total	**397**	**100.0**	**94**	**100.0**

Source: Field Data (2011)

The results from Table 8 suggest that VVU considered 'training needs of the university' as the most prominent criterion during the selection of staff for T & D. The remaining criteria identified from the study were used sparingly as and when it became necessary during the selection of staff for any T & D programme (a non academic head confirms). A critical analysis of the results from the UCC though show almost equal variances, it however, suggest that 'Training needs of staff' seemed to be the most dominant criterion considered during the selection of staff for T & D.

This is at variance with what a non-academic head at the T & D unit in the UCC through an interview disclosed that 'length of employment' was normally the first to be considered. The interviewee from the UCC however, cautioned that these criteria are not hard and fact rules that are to be followed in a marshalled manner. Application for any form of T & D programme ideally goes through a

series of assessment depending on the category of staff involved and each stage of the assessment calls for different criteria and approach. For instance, applications from senior members for study leave would have to go through the pro-vice chancellor's office for approval. The explanation from VVU was not different from what emanated from the UCC. The interviewee equally alluded to the fact that there is no criterion that is absolute but rather the criteria are guiding principles that are subject to variations depending on the situation at stake.

The on-going analysis seemed to stipulate that both universities did not really have any specific guidelines that governed the selection of staff for T & D programmes. The situation gives rise to the use of discretionary measures from authorities concerned and the danger here is that training awards may be biased in favour of seniors, managers' natives and favourites in general without regard to organisational needs. This corroborates a study by Marouf and Ur Rehman (2004) analysis of HRD practices and policies in Kuwait that administration of training awards was biased in favour of seniors, managers and natives without regard to organisational needs. The findings also confirm Agnaia's (1996) observation that administrative functions were practised without regard to acceptable standards and that decisions related to management were mostly dependent on personal relations, family ties, tribalism, among others rather than established procedures.

Training Techniques Used for HRD Programmes

Finally, respondents were requested to indicate the kind of training techniques (both on-the-job and off-the-job techniques) that were commonly used in T & D programmes. Table 9 gives a summary analysis of the study.

Table 9: Summary Statistics on Training Techniques used for HRD Programmes in UCC and VVU

Training technique	Institution				
	UCC	VVU			
	MR	MR	U	Z	p-value
One-on-one instruction	235	292	14313	-3.80	.000*
Coaching	248	236	17694	-.89	.376
Job rotation	241	266	16816	-1.64	.101
Mentoring	259	191	13536	-4.53	.000*
Lectures/Talks	227	327	11033	-6.70	.000*
College courses(short)	227	327	11005	-6.72	.000*
College courses(long)	264	170	11525	-6.23	.000*
Sum of training techniques	**235**	**293**	**14258**	**-3.60**	**.000***

Source: Field Data (2011)

*p < .05 (Significant difference)   n(UCC) = 397   n(VVU) = 94

Key: MR = Mean Rank

Table 9 indicates that with the exception of 'coaching' ($U = 17694$, $p = .376$) and 'job rotation' ($U = 16816$, $p = .101$) that did not show any significant differences, all the other training techniques showed statistically significant differences including the total sum ($U = 14258$, $p < .001$). Table 12 shows a significant smaller difference in the mean rank of the total sum of the training techniques. This implies that almost the same type of training techniques were adopted by both universities; the differences exhibited only reflect the medium within which these training techniques were used by the two institutions (see

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Appendix G for Tables on how the training techniques were used for different categories of workers).

It became evident that the UCC often used 'one-on-one instruction', 'coaching' and the 'mentoring' approach as the preferred on-the-job training technique for its academic staff. For the off-the-job technique the findings revealed that the UCC had aligned itself with the 'lecture method' as well as the 'long courses' where beneficiaries are mostly granted study leave with pay. Similarly the academic staff of VVU also had 'one-on-one instruction' and the 'coaching' method as the mostly adopted on-the-job training technique as well as 'short courses' and the 'lecture approach' as options for the classroom technique.

UCC relied heavily on one-on-one instruction, coaching and mentoring as the in-house training technique for developing its non-academic staff. Short courses were invariably the only classroom technique adopted for its non-academic staff. VVU indicated that job rotation, mentoring, coaching and one-on-one instruction were the most popular in-house training technique used in developing its non-academic staff. Short courses and the lecture approach were also the most preferred classroom techniques for the non-academic staff.

On the whole one significant difference that emanated from these findings was that VVU was more inclined to almost all the in-house or on-the-job techniques than the off-the-job techniques. This confirms a study by Sloman as cited in Buckley and Caple (1996) in the United Kingdom that training delivered on the job by most private organisations accounted for at least half of the total training undertaken. This suggests that the advantages of using on-the-job training

were of paramount importance to VVU in the wake of it being a private corporate entity with the ultimate aim of producing where their total revenues are far higher than total costs. Some merits of this training technique as expounded by Buckley and Caple include little loss of time during training; output of staff not adversely affected; maintenance and retention services while acquiring new knowledge and skills; as well as the use of actual situations during training. This is in line with Harris (2000) observation that with the on-the-job training, employees learn various aspects of their job while at the same time, performing actual tasks.

A common feature that emerged from the responses attained was that both universities blended all the techniques in order to cater for individual differences. The argument was that human beings are not endowed with the same learning capabilities; hence there cannot be one distinct technique that would suit all and sundry. This notion agrees with a previous study by Noble (2007) who reported that organisations in the same industry have similar training and staff development strategies.

Challenges Facing HRD Practices

Like every other human activities, there is no doubt that the practice of HRD in the two universities are associated with some challenges. Research question 4, therefore explored how the respondents perceived challenges faced by the two universities in their HRD policy implementation practices**.** Table 10 shows a summary statistics of the responses from the study.

Table 10: Summary Statistics of Challenges Confronting HRD in UCC and VVU

Challenges	Institution				
	UCC	VVU			
	MR	MR	*U*	*Z*	p-value
How to create a system of a more valid, reliable and operationally viable measures to evaluate HRD programmes.	249	232	17388	-1.08	.279
How to make learning a fundamental value of the University.	220	354	8469	-8.64	.000*
Absence of transfer of learning.	260	187	13090	-5.00	.000*
Lack of major resources and adequate time to HRD	251	225	16703	-1.85	.064
How to gain the willing cooperation and support of other line managers.	254	212	15502	-2.86	.004*
How to link the organisational, operational and individual training needs.	241	266	16775	-1.23	.084
Lack of a clear written policy on Training and Development	238	278	15625	-2.62	.009
Lack of a systematic and comprehensive training needs analysis.	248	235	17641	-.85	.398
Weak interaction between the university seeking the training and the institution providing the training.	244	254	17937	-.66	.51
Sum of challenges	**241**	**263**	**16943**	**-1.36**	**.173**

Source: Field Data (2011)   * *p* < .05 (Significant difference)   n(UCC) = 397;   n(VVU) = 94

Key: MR = Mean Rank

Table 10 shows that there was statistically no difference in the total sum of the challenges that confront HRD in the two Universities ($U = 16943$, $p = .173$). However statistically significant differences were reported on three critical issues: how to make learning a fundamental value of the university; absence of transfer of learning from the training to the workplace; and how to gain the support and willing cooperation of other line managers.

Although the statistics show that the issue of making learning a fundamental value of the university was a major challenge confronting both institutions, the mean ranks depict that it was much of a problem in VVU than the UCC. Some possible factors that could lead into this challenge may include; lack of commitment from management that may result in institutional bottlenecks in policies, inadequate resources and funds as well as the selection process being discriminatory to others. It could also be lazyness or unwillingness on the part of staff due to lack of incentives and other motivational factors. An interview with a non academic head at VVU divulged that this challenge could be attributed to the difficulty in accessing study leave that stem from inadequate funds and resources that invariably leaves the university with only a few opportunities. VVU just like other private universities in Ghana does not receive any form of Government support and intervention. This subsequently, makes it quite difficult for VVU in meeting the increasing demand for T & D from staff; thereby making learning a fundamental value of the university a difficult task to achieve. The situation in the UCC seemed much better and a bit flexible with regards to accessing study leave for further training and development.

The issue of lack of commitment by management to HRD programmes that is likely to result in ill-equipped HRD unit, institutional bottlenecks in policies as well as the selection process being discriminatory to others were all debunked by both universities that they do not account for the challenge of 'making learning a fundamental value of the university'. The UCC for instance indicated management commitment through the adoption of a new policy in making Ph.D a requirement for its academic staff. Management had consequently made conscious efforts of securing scholarships for academic staff that were affected to undertake training programmes in different fields of learning. VVU had not yet adopted the policy of Ph.D for its academic staff yet management was very much committed to HRD issues.

Absence of transfer of learning from the training to the workplace also showed statistically significant difference between the UCC and VVU, ($U = 1309$, $p < .001$); which the mean ranks indicate it is a dominant problem in the UCC than VVU. Underpinning this challenge is the issue of the unavailability of facilities and other teaching and learning aids that would ensure effective transfer of learning from the training field to the workplace. This is a major setback with a rippling effect of frustrating beneficiaries thus, it is more frustrating when one cannot practice and deliver what has been learnt due to lack of facilities or infrastructures.

The foregoing result corroborates the work of Tannenbaum, (1997) who found that the work environment whether physical, social, or psychological conditions that individuals experience can either encourage or discourage the

acquisition and transfer of new skills and ideas. Other key determinants of transfer of learning according to Reid and Barrington (1997) include: the support and encouragement of the immediate supervisor and co-workers, the availability of equipment to allow the use of newly acquired skills and ideas, and timely identification and minimisation of situational constraints (e.g., unclear task assignments, unrealistic time pressures) From the discussion it follows that the primary responsibility of organisations and the focus of every corporate HRD policies and practices should be to create and foster a climate that promotes the successful acquisition and transfer of new skills and ideas. This is the only way that institutions' HRD programmes would achieve its intended objectives.

The other challenge that showed significant difference was how to gain the support and willing cooperation of other line managers ($U = 15502$, $p = .04$). The study identified as shown in Table 10 that this was a major challenge in the UCC but largely minimised in VVU. The study further enlightened through an interview that VVU had been able to achieve this feat because management was very committed to the institutions principles and standards and would not relent in implementing these structures to the latter. This gives little room for infiltration of some cultural practices like trying to maintain good relationship with friends, colleagues, families among other influencing decisions. It is expedient however to acknowledge that as a human institution some of these traits cannot be eliminated entirely. This findings run contrary to Agnaia (1996) observation that administrative functions were practiced without regard to acceptable standards

and decisions related to management were mostly dependent on personal relations, family ties, tribalism among others rather than established procedures.

Oduro and Oduro (2004) on the other hand observed that authorities of the UCC were in a state of dilemma as to whether to be committed to cultural expectations or management governed by organisational ethics. They illuminated that for the purpose of maintaining good relations with colleagues, relatives and other family ties, some heads tended to compromise their performance management principles. Thus, it becomes very difficult to get the support and collaboration of all stakeholders in ensuring that stipulated management principles were strictly adhered to and respected by all without compromises. This is a major challenge to most institutions including the UCC as the study has identified. VVU by virtue of its profit-making concept undertakes much more intense and rigorous monitoring; hence compromising some of these organisational standards and management principles was largely minimised.

How Staff Use the Career Counselling Facility

Respondents were also asked to indicate how often they patronised and made judicious use of the counselling centre whenever they were embarking on any form of T & D programme. Table 11 presents a summary of the results.

Table 11: How often staff of UCC and VVU use the Career Counselling Centre

	UCC		VVU	
Issues	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
No such facility exist	156	39.3	11	11.7
Never	169	42.6	70	74.5
Occasionally	72	18.1	13	13.8
Frequently	-	-	-	-
Total	**397**	**100.0**	**94**	**100.0**

Source: Field Data (2011)

The results from Table 11 suggest that there was a cumulative frequency of 81.9% from the UCC and 86.2% from VVU who had never used the career counselling centre and that not a single person from both institutions indicated frequently patronized the services of the career counselling centre. Quite a significant percentage of this category of staff was even ignorant of the fact that such a facility even exists.

An interview conducted at the Guidance and Counselling units in both universities revealed the same responses that indicate that there was no career counselling component for staff. It was evident that the counselling centre of the UCC offers services ideally for the entire university community, but rarely would you find lecturers patronising such services because there were virtually no programmes that would attract lecturers. All programmes associated with T & D were under the jurisdiction of the T & D unit. A check at the T & D unit recorded no career counselling facility exists for staff that embarks on T & D as insinuated

by the counselling centre. This explained why the majority said no such facility exists. It was also evident from the interview that the few respondents who asserted they occasionally patronised the services of the centre, did that on their own but not because there exists a facility that was purposely meant to counsel staff members on such issues as further studies. The implication was that most T & D programmes in both universities over the years evolved without any form of career counselling.

The indispensability of counselling in every T & D programme cannot be overemphasised and interviewees from both universities admitted that career counselling for university staff should be a major component of their services. Guidance and Counselling invariably facilitates and helps the process of choosing the right candidate for specific T & D programmes; minimises the occurrence of participants abandoning programmes midstream or causing undue delay in the completion rate that adversely causes financial loss to the respective institutions. The repercussion of the absence of a career counselling facility could be very disastrous to the achievement of the overall organisational objective. For as Hamblin (as cited in Yadapadithaya and Stewart, 2003) pointed out:

> Trainees can react favourably to a course; they can enjoy it but learn nothing. They can also learn something, but cannot, or will not, or are not allowed to, apply it. They apply it, but it does no good within their own area of competence. It does some good in their function, but does not further the objectives of the organisation (p. 118).

It must be noted here that Hamblin's observation indicates that compromising standards and not choosing the right candidate for T & D programme could virtually result in a waste.

Evaluation of the Universities T & D programmes

Evaluation is said to follow almost all activities of human beings and invariably identified as an indispensable approach for an efficient and effective HRD programme. Respondents were therefore asked to indicate how often their HRD programmes were evaluated. Table 12 gives a summary of the responses.

Table 12: Rate at which Training Programmes of UCC and VVU are Evaluated

	UCC		VVU	
Perception	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
No idea	137	34.5	9	9.6
Never	81	20.9	6	6.4
Occasionally	130	32.7	39	41.5
Frequently	49	12.3	40	42.6
Total	**397**	**100.0**	**94**	**100.0**

Source: Field Data (2011)

Table 12 shows that a cumulative frequency of 45% of the UCC respondents believed some form of evaluation whether occasionally or frequently were conducted. The modus operandi at VVU was different as a very high cumulative frequency of 82.1% of respondents intimated their HRD programmes were evaluated. This trend suggests that an evaluation of the HRD activities was accorded more attention in VVU than the UCC.

The revelation from the UCC agrees with a study by Al-Athari and Zairi (2002) which revealed that evaluation of training interventions was done occasionally. It can be seen from the statistics provided that, the responses from VVU disagree with Al-Athari and Zairi's assertion since the former regularly conduct evaluation of its training interventions.

This is consistent with the notion that VVU as a private institution always would want to safeguard its image and reputation since it is the public's acceptance that keeps them in business unlike their counterparts in the public sector. This validates Turk and Roolaht (2005) observation that there were no major differences between public and private universities as far as performance appraisal and compensation systems were concerned; however, private universities placed more value on the appraisal function and student feedback on lecturers' performance than their counterparts in the public Universities.

Strategies for Improving Some Challenges of HRD Programmes

Undoubtedly, every HRD programme is an attempt to improve work performance, rather than a pre-requisite for job performance that has already been judged successful. But how do organisations achieve this feat when their HRD programmes are bedeviled with numerous challenges just like any human endeavour? To improve, refine and equally ensure HRD programmes are maximally effective, research question 5 sought to explore some perceived strategies that could be adopted by both universities in addressing some identified challenges that militate against successful HRD policy implementation practices**.** Table 13 shows a summary statistics of the responses from the study.

Table 13: Possible Strategies for Improving Identified Challenges Facing HRD in UCC and VVU

Strategy	UCC		VVU	
	M	SD	M	SD
Ensuring that there is a systematic and comprehensive training needs analysis.	3.55	0.53	3.62	0.49
Ensuring interaction between the institutions providing training and those seeking the training.	3.49	0.59	3.69	0.53
Less interference from other management staff.	3.17	0.74	1.97	0.88
Putting in place adequate measures to evaluate the effectiveness of HRD programmes.	3.14	0.59	3.30	0.46
Bonding staff with guarantors.	3.09	0.73	3.49	0.68
Increasing funding for the HRD department.	2.70	0.74	3.49	0.68
Ensuring that more rigorous measures are instituted and taken against defaulters who benefit from the University's sponsored programmes	2.37	0.94	1.83	0.87
Ensuring that there is a clear written policy on HRD.	2.36	0.94	2.02	1.27
Mean of Means	**8**	**0.29**	**8**	**0.29**

Source: Field Data (2011)

A cursory view of the results presented in Table 13 show that, respondents from both universities reported some major possible strategies that could be used in addressing some of the perceived challenges in their respective institutions. These include: ensuring that there is a systematic and comprehensive training needs analysis; ensuring better interaction between the institutions providing the training and the institutions seeking the training; less interference from other management staff; putting in place adequate measures to evaluate the effectiveness of HRD programmes; and bonding staff with guarantors. Surprisingly, increasing funding for the HRD department happened to be a comparatively less strategy that respondents from the UCC intimated could be adopted in developing its' human resource.

One significant difference between the two universities was that while respondents from UCC revealed that management must ensure less or no interference so as to promote organisational ethics and principles, respondents of VVU on the other hand rather saw increasing funding and adequate time for HRD as a monumental strategy in improving upon the institutions HRD programmes.

Both institutions contended that taking rigorous measures against defaulters who benefit from the university's sponsored programmes would not change and solve any of the challenges that confront HRD. One issue that emanated from the concerns of some of the respondents was that once management has been able to institutionalise and make learning a fundamental value of the university, they must as well ensure that all other persons in authority discharge their duties free and fair devoid of any form of interference.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of Research Process

The purpose of this study was to explore the HRD practices of the University of Cape Coast (UCC) and Valley View University (VVU) in order to highlight some predominant issues. The study specifically sought to find answers to the following issues: the kind of policy frameworks of action that HRD programmes of the two Universities are carried out; the major driving forces of HRD programmes in the two Universities; the types of staff training techniques employed by the two Universities in its T & D programmes; some perceived major HRD challenges currently faced by the two Universities; and possible strategies for addressing HRD challenges faced by the two Universities.

The descriptive survey approach which made use of questionnaires and interview guides was used to collect information describing HRD practices in the two institutions. The simple random technique was used to select a total sample of 491 respondents that comprised senior staff members, academic staff and administrative senior members from both institutions whilst the training and development officer of the UCC was purposively chosen. The Mann Whitney U

statistic; means and standard deviations; mean of means; as well as frequencies and percentages were used in analysing data to answer the respective research questions that determined the differences and similarities between the two universities.

Summary of Findings

Research Question 1: Within what policy frameworks of action are the HRD programmes of the two Universities carried out?

The results of the study revealed that both the UCC and VVU had similar HRD policies of recruitment and staff development policy that is aimed at producing the right number of skilled and experienced staff as well as a staff welfare policy that ensures the implementation of incentives in retaining them. These account for the low attrition rate for the last few years in both universities. Both universities equally had social research policies that promote research aimed at solving the socio-economic and political problems in the sub-region. The only difference reflected in a Christian research policy that VVU had as an additional policy of promoting research aimed at solving problems confronting Christianity in the sub-region. VVU believes that academic excellence without moral excellence is tantamount to parochial training that does not position a person to be of service to God and humanity.

It was also observed that the UCC had its HRD policies scattered in different documents making it difficult for the consumption of staff members. Some of these documents included: Conditions of Service for Senior Members; Administrative Manual for all staff members; Revised Unified Scheme of Service

for Junior Staff of the Public Universities in Ghana; as well as the United Conditions of Service for Unionised Staff of the Public Universities. VVU on the other hand had all their HRD policies consolidated in one document known as the Staff Handbook.

It became evident that accessibility and familiarisation of the HRD policy documents was a huge problem to both Universities but more severe in the UCC due to the scattered nature of the policy. An average of 52.4% of the UCC staff indicated they had never had access to this document with 37.9% corresponding to VVU. In both institutions the senior staff members and lecturers were the mostly affected.

Research Question 2: What are the major driving forces of HRD programmes in the two Universities?

Statistically significant differences were reported in respect of 'continuous pressure for increased quality, innovation and productivity' and 'achievement of better return on investment' as well as the total sum of the driving forces ($U = 15427$, $p = .007$), however, the remaining drivers exhibited similarities. This findings is in variance with literature where there seem to be consistency with most writers agreeing theoretically that almost the same set of driving forces precipitates HRD programmes. However, this study has unraveled that there are still some differences in these drivers which emanates from the kind of premium placed on the individual driving forces by the two universities due to differences in their institutions mission, vision and objectives.

Research Question 3: What types of staff training techniques are employed by the two Universities in its Training and Development programmes?

The study revealed statistically significant difference in the total sum of the training techniques with the exception of 'coaching'. It was further revealed that the differences exhibited reflect the medium within which these training techniques were used by the two institutions.

VVU was more inclined to almost all the in-house techniques than the off-the-job techniques. Both the UCC and VVU reported that the most often used on-the-job training technique for its academic staff was 'one-on-one instruction' and 'coaching 'whereas the UCC had the 'mentoring' approach as an additional technique. For the off-the-job technique UCC was more committed to the 'lecture method' and the 'long courses' where beneficiaries are mostly granted study leave with pay. VVU used the 'short courses' and the 'lecture approach' as options for the off-the-job technique.

Both the UCC and VVU relied heavily on job rotation, coaching and mentoring as the most frequently used in-house training technique for developing its non-academic staff whereas short courses was the most frequently used off-the-job technique adopted for its non-academic staff. VVU had the lecture approach as an additional off-the-job technique for its non-academic staff.

Questionnaires and performance records were the most widely used job evaluation instrument by both Universities for job evaluation. With regards to criteria used in selecting staff for T & D programmes the study showed that VVU considers 'Training needs of the University' as the most prominent criterion. The

remaining criteria (training needs of staff, length of employment, qualification of staff and rank of staff) were used sparingly as and when it became necessary during the selection of staff for any T & D programme. All the criteria produced for the UCC showed almost equal variances however, 'Training needs of staff' seemed to be the most dominant criterion considered followed by 'Length of employment of staff (22.9%)' and 'Training needs of the University (22.8%)'.

A new policy in making Ph.D a requirement for its academic staff had been adopted by the UCC; consequently management of the UCC had made conscious efforts of securing scholarships for its academic staff to undertake training programmes in different fields of learning. VVU had not yet adopted the policy of Ph.D for its academic staff.

Research Question 4: What are the perceived major HRD challenges currently faced by the two Universities?

There were statistically no differences in the total sum of the challenges that confront the institutions HRD. However statistically significant differences were reported on three critical issues: how to make learning a fundamental value of the University; absence of transfer of learning from the training to the workplace; and how to gain the support and willing cooperation of other line managers.

The problem of how to make learning a fundamental value of the university manifested more in VVU than the UCC due to the lack of resources to HRD that reflects in difficulty in accessing study leave. There was also the issue of the absence of transfer of learning from the place of training to the workplace

which manifested as a major deficiency of the institutions T & D system in the UCC more than VVU. The UCC was also greatly confronted by the issue of how to gain the support and willing cooperation of other line managers but this is largely minimised in VVU due to the institutions' strict adherence to management principles.

Additionally, there were other common challenges that confronted both institutions which included weak interaction between the university seeking the training and the institution providing the training; how to create a system of a more valid, reliable and operationally viable measures to evaluate HRD programmes; and lack of a systematic and comprehensive training needs analysis.

One major challenge that was peculiar to VVU but a minor to the UCC was the issue of lack of major resources and adequate time to HRD. The use of discretionary measures sometimes by authorities during the selection process for T & D programmes allow the process to be mostly dependent on personal relations, family ties, tribalism, among others rather than established and laid down procedures. The study therefore identified that until this menace was curbed no matter the adequacy of resources, HRD programmes would still not meet its intended objectives especially in the UCC.

The study correspondingly disclosed that both universities did have a counselling centre in place but had no career counselling component for its staff which meant that most T & D programmes in both universities over the years had evolved without any form of career counselling. More evaluation of HRD programmes was also done at VVU than the UCC.

Research Question 5: What are the perceived strategies for addressing HRD challenges faced by the two universities?

Both universities reported similar strategies that could be used in addressing some of the perceived challenges that militate against HRD programmes in their respective institutions. These included: ensuring that there is a systematic and comprehensive training needs analysis; ensuring better interaction between the institutions providing the training and the institutions seeking the training; less interference from other management staff; putting in place adequate measures to evaluate the effectiveness of HRD programmes; and bonding staff with guarantors. Increasing funding and adequate time for the HRD department however, emerged as a major strategy for VVU but a comparatively less strategy for the UCC.

Conclusions

1. Both universities had recorded low turnout in the past few years and this could be attributed to the establishment of HRD policies that ensured the production of the right number of skilled and experienced staff as well as implementing incentives in retaining them.

2. VVU comparatively is in a better position to implement relevant and suitable HRD programmes for its staff than the UCC because it evaluates its HRD programmes regularly to identify deficiencies and ensures less interference from other line managers which minimises the issue of compromising management standards for the culture of maintaining relationship.

3. With regards to the driving forces that informs HRD programmes in the two universities, it could be concluded that the new economic and business environment characterised by worldwide competition has influenced both universities in two profound ways.

   i. First both universities like any other progressive organisation are striving to achieve higher standards of productivity, quality, and effectiveness in order to survive in the new environment;

   ii. Second, both universities had adapted or changed their institutions strategies to take into account the new realities of intense global and domestic competition; thus both universities corporate cultures, many of which were formed in a regulated or monopolistic environment had been retooled for the challenges of a competitive environment.

   That is to say availability of resources, labour market structure, societal expectations as well as meeting international standards had influenced HRD policies and practices in both universities.

4. On-the-job training technique has been proven more economical and was adopted by both universities but more entrenched in VVU than the UCC. However, both universities relied on the combination of on-the-job training methods and off-the-job training methods for its T & D programmes. Hence, no different thing was being done by both universities with regards to T & D techniques; the difference was only seen in the mode and medium within which these techniques were used for the various categories of staff as shown in the preceding chapter.

5. Although both universities perform needs assessment, HRD interventions embarked on by the UCC achieved minimal success as compared to VVU. This was because the selection and participation mode was characterised by some form of favouritism instead of strict adherence to needs assessment principle and organisational standards. The issue of favouritism however was minimal in VVU.

6. It could also be concluded that both universities did not maximise the full potential of benefits that accrue from T & D programmes due to the lack of a career counselling facility that specifically counsels applicants to ensure the right people were selected for the respective T & D programmes.

7. HRD in the two universities had wrestled with profound crisis of deteriorating quality due to some perceived challenges that confronted the departments. Finally, it could be concluded that there was a sharp contrast between 'what ought to be' from the authorities' point of view in both institutions and 'what is in real practice'.

Recommendations

1. Management of the UCC must endeavour to consolidate all relevant HRD policies for both senior staff and senior members into a single document to allow for easy accessibility and consumption by all parties concern.

2. Both universities must take into consideration that their institutions commitment to T & D should be demonstrated not only in quantitative terms, but also more importantly in its quality. In this context, the study recommends that, Tannenbaum (1997) assertion should serve as a blueprint in the evolution of institutions T & D programmes: Tannenbaum states that: "Rather than the

amount of training, it is the quality and appropriateness of the training, the supportiveness of the work environment, and the use of appropriate training policies and practices that determine how well training contributes to continuous learning*"* (p. 447).

3. The quest of private universities in Ghana in the latter part of the twentieth century emerged out of dying need of the country to increase accessibility and produce quality personnel to augment the human resource base of the country. This was a mission the public universities were ill-equipped to perform at the time and undoubtedly, this mandate had been achieved to a large extent. However, to improve and ensure quality, management of private universities must consider increasing their budgetary allocation to HRD programmes to broaden opportunities for staff to upgrade and expand their professional outlook.

4. On-the-job training technique has proven more economical hence; both universities must take prudent measures to improve the quality of on-the-job training. Management of both institutions must therefore endeavour to embark on in-house training interventions like colloquiums, symposiums, seminars among others at least once every semester. These invariably are economical and would pay considerable benefits to the university at large than off-the-job programmes that in most situations require huge sums of money for their smooth implementation.

5. In addition, both universities must initiate collaborative programmes between their institutions and the respective consuming industries / organisations to create the platform for staff to acquire some practical experience and share ideas as well.

This to a large extent would bridge the gap that exists in 'what ought to be in theory' and 'what is in real practice'

6. In order to streamline the selection process and ensure a better succession plan for both universities, selection criteria must be tied strictly to assessment needs as well as organisational principles and standards.

7. Both universities must make conscious efforts to incorporate career counselling into their respective counselling facility for its staff. This would improve tremendously T & D programmes for its staff that would manifest in the achievement of the overall organisational goals and objectives.

8. Both universities, especially the UCC must endeavour to strengthen their evaluation system of HRD programmes to help management ascertain the benefits that accrue from such HRD programmes. However, for evaluation of HRD programmes to meet the desired aims and objectives, ensure effectiveness and efficiency; there is the need for both universities to determine performance standards for various positions.

9. Both universities must ensure that pragmatic measures are taken for the provision of modern equipments, tools and other requisite facilities necessary for the technological advancement that comes with continuous T & D. This invariably would facilitate proper transfer of learning.

10. In a nutshell, both the UCC and VVU had HRD practices that have proved very successful and therefore worth emulation by each other. Both universities must accordingly learn and adopt from each other HRD practices that have helped in achieving their respective organisational goals.

Suggestions for Future Research

Certain observations require further detailed study in order to authenticate their position. The study did not look at the suitability of programmes in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired from the T & D to the work place and the impact of T & D programmes on personal and organisational development. These undoubtedly, are significant to the success and achievement of organisational goals and objectives hence, it would be expedient for further comparative studies to be conducted between public and private universities in order to improve upon the HRD programmes that would be envisaged in the future.

The study also could not establish into detail the impact of the absence of a career counselling facility on T & D programme in both universities. Any further study may look at the effect of career counselling on T & D in the UCC or elsewhere.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire on Human Resource Development (HRD) Practices for

Training Officers / Human Resource Officers

Activities of the Universities

This questionnaire has been designed to solicit information on Human Resource Development practices in Universities for the purpose of writing a thesis as a requirement for the award of an M.Phil degree programme. All data required is purely for academic purposes only and you are assured all information would be treated with maximum confidentiality. Kindly respond to all questions as objectively as you can. Thank you.

Section A: General Questions

1. How long have you served in this University? ……………………

2. What is the level of your academic/professional qualification?

   a. Diploma b. Degree c. Masters d. Ph.D e. Professor f. Others (specify)……….

   Section B: Policies that inform HRD Programmes

3. The following are some issues from which emanate the university's HRD programmes. Kindly state your degree of agreement to each of the enumerated issues as you see it in your University.

Key: [4] strongly agree [3] agree [2] disagree [1] strongly disagree

Topic	SA	A	D	SD
a. Policy that ensures production of the right number of skilled and experienced staff.				
b. Policy that ensures that the university promote research aimed at solving socio-economic and political problems.				
c. Policy that ensures the implementation of incentives in retaining its staff.				
d. Policy that ensures that the university promote research aimed at solving the problems confronting Christianity in the sub-region.				

Section C: Major Driving Forces of HRD Programmes

4. Under listed are some of the driving forces that necessitate HRD programme initiatives in organisations. Please tick as appropriate as it reflects in your University. **Key: [3] frequently   [2] occasionally   [1] never**

Driving forces	3	2	1
a.Continuous pressure for increased quality, innovation and productivity.			
b. Apparent need to improve the skill-mix of employees (thus to enhance efficiency and effectiveness of employees)			
c. Need to change corporate culture			
d. Achieve better return on investment (ROI)			

e. Improve industrial relations			
f. Satisfy the needs, wishes and demands of employees.			

Section D: Training Criteria, Methods and Techniques

5. Which of the following instruments in your view is widely used by the University for its Job Evaluation? a. Questionnaire   b. Performance Test   c. Interviews
    d. Observation   e. Performance Records

6. Which of the following criteria do you think is mostly considered when selecting staff for Training and Development programmes?

   a. Rank   b. Length of employment   c. Qualification of staff

   d. Training needs of staff   e. Training needs of the University

7. Kindly indicate as appropriate how often any of the following training interventions is used by the University for its training and development programmes.

   Key: [3] frequently   [2] occasionally   [1] never

On-the-Job technique	3	2	1
a. One-on-one instruction			
b. Coaching			
c. Job Rotation			
d. Mentoring			
Classroom technique	3	2	1
e. Lectures/Talks			
f. College courses(short)			

g. College courses(long)			

Section E: Challenges of HRD in Ghana

8. How often do your employees use the career counselling facility?

   a. Frequently   b. Occasionally   c. Never   d. No such facility exist

9. How often do you think an evaluation of the university's development programmes is conducted?   a. frequently   b. occasionally   c. never

10. Please, indicate your level of agreement to each of the following challenges that you think your outfit is confronted with.

   Key: [SA] strongly agree [A] agree [D] disagree [SD] strongly disagree

Challenge	SA	A	D	SD
a. How to create a system of a more valid, reliable and operationally viable measures to evaluate HRD programmes.				
b. How to make learning fundamental value of the university				
c. Absence of transfer of learning				
d. Lack of major resources and adequate time to HRD				
e. How to gain the willing cooperation and support of other line managers				
f. How to link the organizational, operational and individual training needs				
g. Lack of clear written policy on Training & Development.				
h. Lack of a systematic and comprehensive training needs				

analysis				
i. Weak interaction between the University seeking the training and the institutions providing training.				

Section F: Recommendations for Improving HRD

11. The following are possible strategies for addressing some HRD challenges identified in **Question. 11.** Please tick as appropriate.

Key: [SA] strongly agree [A] agree [D] disagree [SD] strongly disagree

Strategy	SA	A	D	SD
a. Ensuring that there is a systematic and comprehensive training needs analysis.				
b. Ensuring that there is a clear written policy on HRD.				
c. Putting in place adequate measures to evaluate the effectiveness of HRD programmes.				
d. Less interference from other management staff.				
e. Increasing funding for the HRD department.				
f. Ensuring better interaction between the institutions providing the training and the institutions seeking the training.				
g. Ensuring that more rigorous measures are instituted and taken against defaulters of those who benefit from University's sponsored programmes.				
h. Bonding staff with guarantors.				

Appendix B

Questionnaire on Human Resource Development (HRD) Practices for Academic and Non-Academic Staff

Activities of the Universities

This questionnaire has been designed to solicit information on Human Resource Development practices in Universities for the purpose of writing a thesis as a requirement for the award of an M.Phil degree programme. All data required is purely for academic purposes only and you are assured all information would be treated with maximum confidentiality. Kindly respond to all questions as objectively as you can. Thank you.

Section A: General Questions

1. How long have you served in this University? ……………………

2. What is the level of your academic/professional qualification?

    b. Diploma b. Degree c. Masters d. Ph.D e. Professor f. Others (specify)……….

    Section B: Policies that inform HRD Programmes

3. i) Members of the University community are suppose to familiarise themselves with the university's HRD policies from which emanates their programmes. How often have you had access to this document?

    a. Frequently   b. Occasionally   c. Never   d. Not easily accessible

    ii) Kindly state your degree of agreement to each of the enumerated HRD issues that the University's strategic plan addresses. **Please skip this section if you have no idea of such policies.**

Key: [4] strongly agree   [3] agree   [2] disagree   [1] strongly disagree

Topic	SA	A	D	SD
a. Policy that ensures production of the right number of skilled and experienced staff.				
b. Policy that ensures that the university promote research aimed at solving socio-economic and political problems.				
c. Policy that ensures the implementation of incentives in retaining its staff.				
d. Policy that ensures that the university promote research aimed at solving the problems confronting Christianity in the sub-region.				

Section C: Major Driving Forces of HRD Programmes

4. Under listed are some of the driving forces that necessitate HRD programme initiatives in organisations. Please tick as appropriate as it reflects in your University. **Key: [3] frequently   [2] occasionally   [1] never**

Driving forces	3	2	1
a.Continuous pressure for increased quality, innovation and productivity.			
b. Apparent need to improve the skill-mix of employees (thus to enhance efficiency and effectiveness of employees)			
c. Need to change corporate culture			
d. Achieve better return on investment (ROI)			

e. Improve industrial relations			
f. Satisfy the needs, wishes and demands of employees.			

Section D: Training Criteria, Methods and Techniques

5. Which of the following instruments in your view is widely used by the University for its Job Evaluation? a. Questionnaire   b. Performance Test   c. Interviews
   d. Observation   e. Performance Records

6. Which of the following criteria do you think is mostly considered when selecting staff for Training and Development programmes?

   a. Rank   b. Length of employment   c. Qualification of staff

   d. Training needs of staff   e. Training needs of the University

7. Kindly indicate as appropriate how often any of the following training interventions is used by the University for its training and development programmes.

   Key: [3] frequently   [2] occasionally   [1] never

On-the-Job technique	3	2	1
a. One-on-one instruction			
b. Coaching			
c. Job Rotation			
d. Mentoring			
Classroom technique	**3**	**2**	**1**
e. Lectures/Talks			
f. College courses(short)			

g. College courses(long)			

Section E: Challenges of HRD in Ghana

8. How often do you use the career counselling facility?

    b. Frequently   b. Occasionally   c. Never   d. No such facility exist

9. How often do you think an evaluation of the university's T & D programmes is conducted?   a. frequently   b. occasionally   c. never

10. Please, indicate your level of agreement to each of the following challenges that you think your outfit is confronted with.

    Key: [SA] strongly agree [A] agree [D] disagree [SD] strongly disagree

Challenge	SA	A	D	SD
a. How to create a system of a more valid, reliable and operationally viable measures to evaluate HRD programmes.				
b. How to make learning fundamental value of the university				
c. Absence of transfer of learning				
d. Lack of major resources and adequate time to HRD				
e. How to gain the willing cooperation and support of other line managers				
f. How to link the organizational, operational and individual training needs				
g. Lack of clear written policy on Training & Development.				
h. Lack of a systematic and comprehensive training needs				

analysis				
i. Weak interaction between the University seeking the training and the institutions providing training.				

Section F: Recommendations for Improving HRD

11. The following are possible strategies for addressing some HRD challenges identified in **Question. 11.** Please tick as appropriate.

Key: [SA] strongly agree [A] agree [D] disagree [SD] strongly disagree

Strategy	SA	A	D	SD
a. Ensuring that there is a systematic and comprehensive training needs analysis.				
b. Ensuring that there is a clear written policy on HRD.				
c. Putting in place adequate measures to evaluate the effectiveness of HRD programmes.				
d. Less interference from other management staff.				
e. Increasing funding for the HRD department.				
f. Ensuring better interaction between the institutions providing the training and the institutions seeking the training.				
g. Ensuring that more rigorous measures are instituted and taken against defaulters of those who benefit from University's sponsored programmes.				
h. Bonding staff with guarantors.				

Appendix C

Interview with the Training and Development Director of the UCC

1. Does the UCC have its HRD policies consolidated in one single document?

    Answer: No. There are different documents from which emanates some of these policies. Some of these documents include: Conditions of Service for Senior Members; Administrative Manual for all staff members; Revised Unified Scheme of Service for Junior Staff of the Public Universities in Ghana; as well as the United Conditions of Service for Unionized Staff of the Public Universities. As some of the names suggest, part of these documents are national in nature that governs all public universities in Ghana whereas others are internally structured and drawn.

2. Results gathered through the questionnaires, indicated variety of criteria that the UCC uses in selecting staff for any form of T & D programme. The dominant amongst them in hierarchical order were 'Training needs of staff' followed by 'Length of employment of staff and 'Training needs of the University'

    Question: Which of these criteria identified by respondents is mostly considered by your outfit during the selection of staff for any form of T & D programme.

    Answer: These criteria are not hard and fact rules that are to be followed in a marshalled manner. Application for any form of T & D programme ideally goes through a series of assessment depending on the category of staff involved and each stage of the assessment calls for different criteria and approach. For instance, applications from senior members would have to go through the pro-vice

chancellor's office for scrutiny and approval. We do consider all of them but the 'length of employment of staff' normally dominates in ideal situations.

3. What does your outfit normally use in conducting assessment needs?

   Answer: Questionnaires through the heads of department.

4. Does your outfit have a career counseling component that aids in the selection of staff for any form of T & D programme more especially long distance courses where participants are granted study leave?

   Answer: No. everything that has to do with counselling is restricted to the Guidance and Counselling unit. In our unit what we do is that, we call for training needs of the various departments through the heads, then we have different committees that would have to sit on them at different levels to see the relevance and importance of such requests vis-à-vis conditions like what would help achieve both the long term and short term objectives of the university, availability of resources, length of employment, needs of the university among others. Though there is no career counselling schedule that staff who wants to embark on any form of T & D go through, there are structures in place that ensure that the right candidates are selected.

5. Most respondents through the questionnaires alluded that one major challenge that confronts HRD is lack of support from other line managers.

   Question: As a T & D director, do you also see this as a problem and can we attribute this to lack of commitment from management towards T & D programmes that result in multiple rippling effect like in inadequate funds and

other resources for T & D, discrimination in the selection process as a result of trying to maintain the culture of relationship, family ties etc?

Answer: No management is very ardent to T & D programmes. What normally happens is that most of our resources come from the government and this is woefully inadequate thereby leaving us with very few opportunities. Conscious efforts have been made by management in the past and still on-going to increase resources for T & D by looking at alternatives to the government subventions. For example the establishment of the Sam Jonah fund is purposely meant to train lecturers. Even though the minimum requirement for the recruitment of lecturers is still the masters degree, management had to source for various scholarships and sponsorship for lecturers to pursue Ph.D degrees across the various disciplines with the adoption of the Ph.D policy for lecturers.

Appendix D

Interview with the Training and Development Director of the VVU

1. Does VVU have all of its HRD policies consolidated in a single document?

   Answer: Yes, VVU has all of its HRD policies consolidated in the faculty and staff handbook.

2. Respondents indicated through the questionnaires that 'training needs of the university' dominates all the other criteria identified in the study during the selection of staff for any form of training and development programme.

   Question: Kindly, describe briefly the process through which an application goes through before being approved including the criteria for the selection process.

   Answer: Contrary to majority's perception out there that VVU just like any other private university in Ghana does not really pursue the agenda of T & D of its staff especially where it requires study leave with pay. VVU actually is committed to the welfare of its staff through continuous professional development and this is well articulated and enshrined in the staff handbook where members are granted leave with pay. However, VVU believes that the 'needs of the university' is paramount to all other criteria to ensure a continuous sustenance and maintenance of the institution. There is actually no compromise and alternative to this although other factors come into play during the selection process. After the HR department has collected and processed all request there is a committee that finally consider all applications based on the priorities of the institution and availability of funds and other resources before approval. VVU though is a private corporate entity does not work with the ultimate aim of making profit. However,

for the purpose of continuous survival of the institution VVU focuses on producing where total revenues are far higher than total costs which basically ensure an increase in market shares to get a sustainable competitive advantage. In effect there is a very strict monitoring and coherent bonding policy to ensure the university maximise to the fullest potential investment in its human resource.

3. How does your outfit normally conduct training needs analysis before any training and development programme is embarked on?

   Answer: The HR department request for training needs from the various departmental heads. Individual staff equally make request in some cases.

4. Respondents indicated that one major challenge that confront HRD programmes in VVU is 'how to make learning a fundamental value of the university'

   Question: What do you think has contributed to this? Can it be attributed to lack of commitment from management that could have numerous rippling effect like insufficient funds and resources, institutional bottlenecks in policies and the selection process being discriminatory to others?

   Answer: No, management is very committed to the training and development of its staff. However, as a private institution, we are confronted with numerous challenges that include insufficient funds and other major resources. As a private institution we do not receive any form of government subventions and hardly would you find other corporate organisations coming to our aid as our counterparts in the public domain do have. This undoubtedly, puts a lot of pressure on the little resources available hence; it makes it quite difficult to

achieve the height that both management and staff alike can say that learning has become a fundamental value of the university.

5. 'How to gain the willing corporation of other line managers' was not identified as a major challenge that confronts HRD in VVU. With your experience working with the HR department;

Question: Do you agree to this revelation from the respondents? If you do, how do you think management was able to achieve this feat which invariably helps in streamlining selection process.

Answer: Yes, I do agree to this assertion. Management had been very committed to the institutions' principles and standards which go to accentuate VVU's belief that academic excellence without moral excellence is tantamount to parochial training that does not position a person to be of service to God and humanity. It is therefore imperative that management sets example by practicing the virtues that they stand for and are trying to inculcate into students. This invariably has permeated and trickled down to all facets of the institution, hence gaining the willing corporation of other line managers on certain issues provided it is within the institutional framework of action is not difficult.

Interview with a Counsellor at the Counselling Unit of the UCC

1. Can you please tell me exactly what the counselling centre does?

   Answer: This unit offers counselling services to the university as a whole, thus staff, students and even outreach programmes. Specifically, the centre organises talk shows and seminars for students on topical issues that bother on their academic performance. For instance issues that pertain to relationship on campus; how some of these issues can be managed in order not to interfere with their academic performance, the HIV AIDs pandemic, time management, good study habits amongst others.

2. Does your outfit have a career counselling component purposely meant for staffs who want to embark on any form of T & D?

   Answer: No. rarely would you find lecturers patronising in our services because there are no career counselling programmes purposely designed for staff that wants to embark on any form of further studies. All programmes associated with T & D are under the jurisdiction of the T & D unit.

3. What are some of the challenges that confront the effective running of services in this unit?

   Answer: The centre is faced with three major challenges. One of these challenges is lack of space and accommodation. For instance there should be a well furnished counselling room at the centre for counselling but due to limited space, counsellors use their offices for counseling.

Second, there should be professionally trained counsellors with the requisite specific knowledge on issues to offer their services to clients at any point in time. For instance someone who is specially trained in Career Counselling, Family and Marriage Counselling, Substance and Drug Abuse Counselling and Employment Counselling amongst others. This is not the situation but rather the counsellors are general practitioners with their thesis geared towards the area they are practising. This obviously does not promote effective counselling, how can one person be a fountain of knowledge?

Third, management has over the years neglected the centre, not shown enough commitment, the needed attention and recognition that this unit deserves. This attitude invariably had reflected in the allocation of resources over the years which has left the unit ill-equipped. For instance, there should be enough funds and logistics to run errands, organise programmes on regular basis and follow up on clients when it becomes necessary.

If this unit is well structured and given the needed recognition, all issues that bother on counselling within the university must be referred and directed to the counselling unit for appropriate action. There is presently conflict in roles with the T & D unit that relates to 'who is to perform what'? For instance, career counselling service, orientation of students amongst others must all be provided by the counselling unit.

Interview with the Director of the Counselling unit of VVU

1. Can you please tell me exactly what the counselling centre does?

   Answer: This unit ideally offers counselling services to the university at large to facilitate and promote effective teaching and learning. Thus, the centre organises talk shows and seminars for students and staff on topical issues that bother on academic performance as well as the mechanics in ensuring efficiency and effectiveness in teaching and learning. For example issues like relationship on campus, both student-lecturer relationship; HIV AIDs pandemic, time management, good study habits amongst others.

2. Does your outfit have a career counselling component purposely meant for staffs who want to embark on any form of T & D?

   Answer: No. there is nothing of the sort. All programmes associated with T & D are relegated to the HRD unit.

3. How do you envisage the effect of the absence of a career counselling facility for staff in the success story of VVU?

   Answer: Guidance and counseling as the name implies is very important and plays a significant role in the achievement of organisational goals and objectives more especially during decision making. Career counseling for staff who wants to embark on further studies is very essential for institutional growth and can also be detrimental to the success of every organisation if ignored. Subsequently, if the HRD unit of VVU doesn't have it in place the career counseling component, then it is expedient for management to expertise action in institutionalising such a

system. Yes, VVU could boast of some success in its quest for investing in the human resource even without the career counseling facility in place, however, the success story can be improved tremendously if this facility is put in place.

4. What are some of the challenges that confront the effective running of services in this unit?

Answer: Basically, this unit is faced with a major challenge of lack of recognition from clients due to poor infrastructures and other major resources which would ensure effective publicity and aid in the general running of the outfit. There is also the issue of inadequate staff to ensure effectiveness in the discharge of duties. Effectiveness can best be achieved when there are professionals with specially trained skills in specific areas in counselling but we even lack the general practitioners not to talk about specialists.

Appendix G

A Crosstabulation of How Various Training Techniques are used for the

Academic and Non-Academic Staff of the UCC and VVU

| institution under study | staff | one-on-one instruction | | | |
		never	occassionally	frequently	Total
ucc	Academic	36	39	45	120
	non-academic	63	91	123	277
Total		99	130	168	397
vvu	Academic	11	9	31	51
	non-academic	6	4	33	43
Total		17	13	64	94

| institution under study | staff | Coaching | | | |
		never	occassionally	frequently	Total
ucc	Academic	11	36	73	120
	non-academic	39	63	175	277
Total		50	99	248	397
vvu	Academic	9	15	27	51
	non-academic	6	13	24	43
Total		15	28	51	94

institution under study	staff		job rotation			
			never	occassionally	frequently	Total
ucc		Academic	120	0	0	120
		non-academic	87	135	55	277
	Total		207	135	55	397
vvu	type of worker	Academic	51	0	0	51
		non-academic	0	7	36	43
	Total		51	7	36	94

institution under study	staff		Mentoring			
			never	occassionally	frequently	Total
ucc		Academic	4	49	67	120
		non-academic	53	75	149	277
	Total		57	124	216	397
vvu	type of worker	Academic	18	17	16	51
		non-academic	3	31	9	43
	Total		21	48	25	94

institution under study	staff	Lecture			
		never	occassionally	frequently	Total
ucc	Academic	22	70	28	120
	non-academic	153	105	19	277
	Total	175	175	47	397
vvu	type of Academic	7	15	29	51
	worker non-academic	6	31	6	43
	Total	13	46	35	94

institution under study	staff	college courses(short)			
		never	occassionally	frequently	Total
ucc	Academic	44	64	12	120
	non-academic	71	154	52	277
	Total	115	218	64	397
vvu	Academic	7	14	30	51
	non-academic	8	10	25	43
	Total	15	24	55	94

| institution under study | staff | college courses(long) | | | |
		never	occassionally	frequency	Total
ucc	Academic	12	50	58	120
	non-academic	116	134	27	277
	Total	128	184	85	397
vvu	Academic	34	17	0	51
	non-academic	29	9	5	43
	Total	63	26	5	94