UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

AN EXAMINATION INTO INSTRUCTORS’ PARTICIPATION IN CURRICULA DECISION-MAKING ON CONFLICT AND CRIME PREVENTION IN GHANA: A CASE OF NATIONAL POLICE TRAINING SCHOOL, ACCRA

ISAAC ABU

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BY

ISAAC ABU

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES OF THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR AWARD OF MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE IN PEACE AND DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

AUGUST 2013
DECLARATION

Candidate’s Declaration

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

Candidate’s Name: Isaac Abu
Signature:………………………………     Date:………………………..

Supervisor’s Declaration

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

Supervisor’s Name: Dr. Yaw Sarkodie Agyemang
Signature:………………………………     Date:………………………..
ABSTRACT

The study sought to examine police training instructor’s participation in curricula decision making in the training of police recruits on conflict and crime management in Ghana. A descriptive research design was used where questionnaires were used to elicit information from personnel at the National Police Training School (NPTS). Due to the smaller number of training instructors at the NPTS census was used. The study also uses qualitative information from some of the senior police officers. The data collected through the questionnaire were analysed by the use of the computer programme: Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS), version 16. The findings of the of study indicate that first, the Ghana Police Service apart from depending on the provisions of article 75 of the 1992 Republican Constitution of Ghana to select members to form curricula decision making team, the police agency uses the rank of police personnel as major qualification for police officers.

The study found out that non-involvement of police training instructors in the curricula decision making processes negatively affects the police administration, police training instructors and the recruits. These militate against effective training of recruits.

The main recommendations of the study include the need for the Ghana Police Service to make the curricula decision-making processes, experience and educational qualification as the basis for selecting instructors and the need to organise in-service training for instructors to sharpen their skills and knowledge on curricula design.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my profound gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Yaw Sarkodie Agyemang for painstakingly reading my manuscript and making various corrections and suggestions and also Prof. J. V Mensah, Director of IDS and also various persons and officials who candidly played very significant roles and supported me in various ways since I cannot acknowledge all by name.

However, I feel highly indebted to scholars and individuals whose books, articles, papers and other materials I have cited, quoted with their prior permission.

Finally, I would like to thank all the professors, lecturers and all the workers of the Institute for Development Studies of the Faculty of Social Sciences in organising this programme successfully.

As the research was being conducted, my lovely, supportive and sacrificial mother for many years, died in her hometown of Battor at the North Tongu District in the Volta Region of Ghana after a long illness. Her death served as a further inspiration to complete this research and dedicate it to a wonderful woman, whose shining virtue, affableness and gentle disposition tremendously enriched my life and attitudes.

Naturally, a research of such nature needs both human and material resource to accomplish. It is in this vain that I extend my sincere and gratitude to all and sundry who in various ways contributed to the completion of this work most especially Mr. Akoto Debrah of Gaguafo Senior High School in the Central Region.
DEDICATION

To Mr. Ernest Abu Dayon - a wonderful brother who paid almost all my school fees first semester, my late parents, Ex. Sgt. Abu, Theresa Dope Ahameh, the late Richard Abu Ahameh.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Content                                                  Page
DECLARATION                                              ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS                                        iii
DEDICATION                                               iv
ABSTRACT                                                v
TABLE OF CONTENTS                                        vii
LIST OF TABLES                                           x
LIST OF FIGURES                                          xii
LIST OF ACRONYMS                                         xiii

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background to the study                                   1
Statement of problem                                       4
Purpose of the study                                       5
Research questions                                        6
Significance                                              7
Delimitation                                             8
Limitation                                                8
Organisation of study                                     8
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction 10
Theoretical framework 10
The concept of curriculum 12
Curriculum decision-making process 13
Participants in curricular decision-making process 15
Administration and curricula decision-making structures in the Ghana Police Service 16
Factors that influence participation of teachers and instructors in curricular decision-making processes 20
Theoretical perspective on decision-making 22
Linblom’s theory of mudding 22
The classical decision-making theory 23
Model on decision-making existing in educational institution 23
Perceptions towards instructor participation in school decision-making process 31
Instructors’ participation in school decision-making and job satisfaction 36
Summary of literature review 44

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Introduction 46
Research design 46
Study institution 47
Population 48
Sample and sampling technique 49
Research instrument 49
Data collection procedure 51
Data processing and analysis 52

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction 54
Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents 55
Decision-making structure in Ghana Police Service 60
Criteria for selecting police officers who design curriculum for training recruits in conflict and crime prevention 71
Perceptions of Police Training Instructors about the processes of making curricula decisions for training recruits 80
Ways to improve Police Training Instructors’ participation in curriculum decision-making on crime and conflict prevention 83

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction 88
Summary 88
Conclusions 91
Recommendations 93

REFERENCES 95

APPENDICES 104

A- Questionnaire to Police Training Instructors 104

B- Interview guide for Senior Police Officers 111
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Gender of respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Age of respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Respondents rank in the Ghana Police Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Educational level of respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Length of service of respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Knowledge of instructors about curricula decision-making processes in Ghana Police Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Rank of officers who take part in curricula decision-making processes in Ghana Police Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Category of training instructors in the Police Training School and their current ranks in Ghana Police Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Impact of the lack instructor’s involvement in curriculum decision making on the training of recruits in conflict management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Requirements for selecting Police Officers into curricula decision making team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Factors training instructors think need to be considered when selecting Police Officers into curricula decision-making team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Factors responsible for training instructors non-participation in curricula decision-making processes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
13 Perceptions of Police Training Instructors about the processes of making curricula decisions for training recruits 81

14 Suggested strategies to improve instructor participation in the design of syllabus for the Training of Police recruits 84
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors’ knowledge on curricular decision-making processes</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACP</td>
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<td>ASP</td>
<td>Assistant Superintendent of Police</td>
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<td>CI</td>
<td>Constitutional Instrument</td>
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<td>CO</td>
<td>Commanding Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>Commissioned Officer</td>
</tr>
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<td>COP</td>
<td>Commissioner of Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSO</td>
<td>Chief Staff Officer</td>
</tr>
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<td>C/SUPT</td>
<td>Chief Superintendent of Police</td>
</tr>
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<td>DCOP</td>
<td>Deputy Commissioner of Police</td>
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<td>DIGP</td>
<td>Deputy Inspector General of Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSP</td>
<td>Deputy Superintendent of Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ex. Sgt.</td>
<td>Former Sergeant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPS</td>
<td>Ghana Police Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPTS</td>
<td>Ghana Police Training School</td>
</tr>
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<td>HEMAB</td>
<td>Headquarters Management Advisory Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>HIV</td>
<td>Human Immune Virus</td>
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<td>IDS</td>
<td>Institute for Development Studies</td>
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<td>Inspector General of Police</td>
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<td>JHS</td>
<td>Junior High School</td>
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<td>JSS</td>
<td>Junior Secondary School</td>
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MSLC - Middle School Leaving Certificate
NCO - Non-Commissioned Officer
NPTS - National Police Training School
OC - Officer Command
PA - Police Administration
Prof. - Professor
PTS - Police Training School
SDM - School Decision-Making
SSCE - Senior Secondary Certificate Examination
STDs - Sexually Transmitted Diseases
SUPT - Superintendent of Police
UCC - University of Cape Coast
WASSCE - West Africa Senior Secondary Certificate Examination
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

Decision-making is a process that leads to or ends with the final product called a decision (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). For this reason in many institutions the world over, decision-making follows certain structures and procedures. This is the case because decisions could either contribute to the success or failure of businesses or institutions. A good decision could bring about growth while a bad one could contribute to the decline of an institution. It follows, therefore, those decisions taken by those in authority impact directly on the performance of an institution (Shew, 1978).

In many institutions, decisions taken by management have led to conflict and under-performance by their subordinates. Conflicts do not always come from bad decisions (Bem, 1997), but also it can come from disagreement over decisions that turn out to be good. It can also come from failure to make decisions in a timely manner, or not at all.

Established in 1930 for training recruits, under cadet officers (Direct Entrants), refresher and promotion courses for other ranks, the Ghana Police Training School in Accra or the National Police Training School, like all other educational institutions has a structure that is in charge of its curricula decision making. It is important to note that the training school’s decision making structure is like the organisational structure of the Ghana Police Service (please refer to appendix 1 for the detailed Police Service Organisational Structure). While in the
school, trainees learn subjects that include the following; practical police duties, police service instructions, professional police ethics and police basic officer skills. Other subjects are criminal law, criminal procedure, criminal investigation, law of evidence, acts and decrees, and criminology. English and report writing, human rights and domestic violence are also some of the subjects recruits study. The Liberal subjects include French, social psychology, map reading, STDs/HIV/AIDS and first aid. These subjects are taught by class instructors.

The recruits are also taken through physical training, arms and foot drill, ‘tae-Kwan-do’, judo and weapon training. The drill instructors provide training in these subject areas. The training programme lasts for six months and all subjects taught are examinable at the end of every month.

The administrative structure in the school which also forms the basis for selecting officers to form the decision making body of the Police Service does not offer police training instructors enough opportunity to be part of the decision making team. This is because instructors are not part of the top hierarchy in the police administration. The foundation of the Police Service is its legal framework. However, it is also shaped by the way the organisation is structured and administered, the way it works on day to day basis, and the way it is trained and resourced.

Today’s Police Service is a product of the Colonial Police Force and continues to exhibit many of the same characteristics because not much has changed in the type of policing bequeathed to us by our British Colonial Administration. One of these features is the bureaucratic nature of its decision
making processes. This characteristic often makes it difficult for those at the lower echelon of power to partake fully in decision making. Hence it is difficult for junior rank officers who are instructors at the Police Training School to bring their knowledge and experiences to bear on the design of the Training School’s syllabus (Rosati, 1981). It is a fact that instructors’ contribution in training is not adequate, hence the need to involve them in decision-making.

Ghana has taken major steps towards wholesale reformation of the Police Service. Clear examples are the reports of Young Commitee (1951), Boye Committee (1971), Ryan Committee (1997), Archer Commission which was established (1996) and the Okudzeto commission (2001). Despite these efforts, the instructors at the Police Training School have yet not been offered the needed opportunity to be part of the core decision making team. The simple reason for this is that most of the instructors are not members of the top hierarchy in the police administration. For example even though the Archer Commission came out with a wider ranging set of suggested reform, it failed to emphasize the type of police training and the contribution of training instructors in the training programme.

The fundamental duty of every police institution is to prevent crime and conflict (Spechler, 1986). Conflict and crime control involves a lot of human resource capacity. This is because crime or conflict can occur at any point in time in our society. Aside this, human beings who are the main agents of conflict and crime usually exhibit complex characteristics which often make it difficult for the
police to detect flash points from which conflict and crime may occur (Snyder, 1985).

To help deal with crime and conflict efficiently, the police service all over the world recruit new staff at specific times. That of the Ghana Police Service is done in the month of October every year. The newly recruited officers are then taken through series of training to equip them with requisite knowledge, strength and experience to combat crime and conflict in society. Again, officers on the job are also given periodic in-service training organized by the police administration.

All these point to the fact that the role of the police training instructor is key to the success of the police administration in the maintenance of peace in every society. This is because it is the instructor who trains all the newly recruited officers. For this reason, police training instructors need to be part of the decision making team so that they can bring their knowledge and experience to bear on how curriculum for training police officers is made. This position is backed by Pratt’s (1980) argument that instructors who are the actual implementers of the curriculum should always be part of the team that designs the curriculum.

**Statement of problem**

There seems to be some unwillingness on the part of some commanding officers in the Ghana Police Training Schools to share their administrative functions with their subordinate instructors, leading to personnel apathy. To some writers including (Walker, 1977, Steiner, 1977 & Hermann, 1988) such staff apathy in training affairs has aggravated indiscipline, immorality, unprofessional
police practices, poor performance and institutional conflict which many institutions of learning, including Ghana Police Training Schools are experiencing in recent times.

It is generally believed that the Ghana Police Service is characterized by certain lapses. These lapses usually result in unprofessional police practices, institutional unrest, immorality, indiscipline and perhaps poor academic performance in our Police Training Schools. These may partly be attributed to the failure of police training instructors to partake in decision making and the design of the training curriculum for police recruits. There is the need to examine the negative impacts of police training instructors’ non involvement in curriculum decision on the training of police recruits in conflict management.

**Purpose of the study**

The study, basically, focused on the examination of instructor’s participation in curricula decision making processes and the design of syllabus for training recruit on crime and conflict management in the Ghana Police Service. Specifically, it was designed to find out.

1. The curricula decision making structures that exist in the Police Training School in Ghana.
2. The impacts of the lack of involvement of Police Training instructors in curriculum decision making for the training of recruits on conflict management skills.
3. The criteria for selecting police officers who make curricula decisions and design syllabus for training recruits on crime and conflict prevention in Ghana.

4. Factors that influence low participation of police training instructors in curricula decision making and the design of syllabus for training recruits on crime and conflict prevention.

5. The perceptions of police training instructors on the processes of designing training syllabus for recruits.

6. Ways of improving the participation of police training instructors in curricula decision making in the Ghana Police Service.

Research questions

The following research questions guided the study.

1. What are the curricula decision-making structures that exist in the Police Training Schools in Ghana?

2. How does the lack of involvement of police training instructors in curricula decision making impact on the conflict management skills of trainees?

3. What are the criteria used in selecting police officers who make curricula decisions and design syllabus for training recruits on crime and conflict prevention in Ghana?
4. What factors lead to low participation of police training instructors in curricula decision making and design of the syllabus for training recruits on crime and conflict prevention in Ghana.

5. What are the perceptions of police training instructors about the curricula decision-making processes on crime and conflict prevention in Ghana?

6. What ways can be used to improve police training instructors’ participation in curricula decision-making processes on crime and conflict prevention in Ghana?

**Significance**

The study will go a long way in adding to the body of knowledge in police training by coming out with the thoughts, knowledge and experiences possessed by some of the police training instructors. Such knowledge and experiences can be depended on to design training programmes for new recruits. It will further assist the Police Administration to understand the essentials of instructor participation in school-based decision making as recommended by some writers as an effective tool for school governance. The study will urge officer commands and commanding officers who already apply open administration in their training schools to keep it up and serve as an eye opener to those who decide to go all alone to adopt participatory management style in their schools. This will promote harmony in churning out efficient and industrious Police Officers.
Delimitation

A study into the extent of instructor participation in curricula decision-making and the design of training syllabus is quite broad and extensive an area that cannot be easily accomplished in a single research work. This study however, focused on instructor participation in decision-making in Accra Police Training School, which can be found in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. The study did not concern itself with the extent to which the design of the police training curriculum can be influenced by training instructors. This pitfall may affect the generalization of the findings of the study.

Limitation

The limitation of the study was mainly a function of the instruments used to collect data. Since some of the items on the questionnaire required respondents to give their opinion about the processes of crime and conflict prevention in the police administration, the police officers involved could fake their responses so as to give their profession a good image. The effect of this could significantly affect authenticity of the findings.

Organisation of the study

The study is organized into five chapters. The first chapter is the introduction which covers background to the study which looks briefly at what decision-making is its operational definition of terms, and objectives. Other
aspects of the chapter cover significance of study, study area/institutions, limitations and how study is structured.

The second chapter deals with the review of related literature on the topic under study while the third chapter describes the research methodology; the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, research instrument, and pre-test study administration of instrument and data analysis plan. In the fourth chapter, the findings, result and discussion of the study are presented. The final chapter deals with the summary of the research findings, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related and relevant to the study. The review takes note of the theoretical framework within which the focus of the study is found, concept of curriculum, curricular decision making processes and participants in curricular decision making. Other areas that the review covers are administrative and curricula decision-making structures of the Ghana Police Service, factors that influence low participation of instructors in curricular decision making processes, theoretical perspective on decision-making and instructors’ participation in curricular decision-making and job satisfaction.

Theoretical framework

The study is designed within the framework of examining police instructor participation in decision making in the Police Training School. Before describing the theoretical framework in detail, it is prudent to explain the phenomenon of “curricular decision making” within which the theoretical framework itself is located.

The phenomenon of ‘Curricular Decision-Making’ refers to the process of planning, designing and implementation of the learning activities for a given group of learners. It also involves the processes of assessing and evaluating the learning outcomes (Taba, 1962). Etymologically, the term curriculum comes from
the Greek word “currere” which means “race course. Gatawa (1990), therefore, defines curriculum as “the totality of the experiences of [learners] for which the school is responsible” (p. 8). Summers (2007), and Crowther (1998) on their part, define ‘decision-making’ as the process of making a choice or judgment over available opportunities or issues after a careful discussion and reflections on the merits of what needs to be done. Curricular decision-making may thus be explained as the process of making judgment over the experiences, knowledge and skills that learners are expected to acquire. This process also involves considering the aims and resource capabilities of the society or institution in charge of training the learners and the characteristics of the learners themselves. Hence it could be said that before any decision concerning the operations or activities of the Ghana Police Training School is taken officials will have to consider the availability of resources, security needs of the Ghanaian society and the characteristics of the individual trainees. According to Ausubel (1959), instructors are the agents who interact more with learners so they know the peculiar characteristics of learners and even know what is more workable within an educational system. This goes to explain why Anderson (1987) stated that military or police instructors who train security personnel should always be made part of the decision-making team-to decide on ways of combating crime or conflict in society.

Decision-making occurs throughout all stages of the development of apparatus and personnel for combating crime or conflict in society, (Nazli & North, 1975). It is done to draw conclusions on issues and to make judgment over
ways of addressing problems confronting society (Rummel, 1979). There are many theoretical perspectives on decision-making. For example Linbloni’s Theory of Muddling and The classical Decision-Making Theory. These two theories are what Harding (1987) calls the descriptive approach and prescriptive approach respectively. The descriptive models present how executives or administrators make decisions while the prescriptive models show how administrators ought to make decisions. Therefore there is the need for the administrators of the Ghana Police Service to combine the perspectives to know the best way forward whenever the need arises for them to make any decision. Harding (1987), Arrow (1951) and Steinbruner (1974) all contend that every decision on the security of a nation should be made by experts who are well abreast with the processes of providing security and have had practical experiences on how to control conflict. What is missing in their exhortation is the fact that they all failed to give the criteria for selecting such security experts. Thus one is left to wonder who should be part of the decision making team in a conflict prone society.

**The concept of curriculum**

The term “curriculum” has no single definition, instead, there are, many varied competing definitions and because educationists and users of the term have not arrived at a decision or agreement on one definition there has always been semantic dispute over what “curriculum” actually stands for. Many scholars and learners therefore, define “curriculum based on their ideological and philosophical
orientations”. Tanner & Tanner (1995) define the term curriculum, “as a plan or programme of all experiences which the learner encounters under the direction of a school” (p. 158). Gatawa also defines the term as “the totality of the experiences of children for which the schools are responsible” (p. 8). These two definitions imply that the curriculum is a series of planned courses to be taken by students or learners. Training school can be considered as specifying the general aims and objectives of the police training school. By extension, it can also be said that the curriculum also specifies the content, learning experiences and how they will be taught and evaluated.

**Curriculum decision-making process**

Like curriculum, the term curricular decision-making processes occur in different forms and people’s definitions of it are always influenced by different factors (Eingleberth, 1960). The processes involved in curricular decision making are always believed to be in consonance with the aims of a particular institution where the curriculum is to be used. Taba (1962) writes that in all educational institutions, curricular decision making involves the processes of identifying areas or themes worthy of learning, assembling human resources to plan how to design the curriculum, making decisions about the significance of the curricular programmes to the learners and planning how to obtain the resources that will be used in carrying out the program. Goodlad (1956), is however, of the view that curriculum decision-making goes beyond the ordinary exercise of planning what to teach, how to teach and when to teach it. He therefore identifies six key areas
which to him are the most crucial stages that every complete curriculum decision-making process should pass through. According to Goodlad (1956), every curriculum planning involves setting of objectives; diagnosis of learning needs, selection of experiences, organisation of curricular content, deciding on who and how to impart knowledge, experiences and skills and working out modalities for evaluating future learning outcomes. All these show that curricular decision making entails a lot. It is in line with this that Adabo (2009) states that effective planning in curriculum decision-making requires enthusiasm, commitment, mastery of educational matters and a sense of good judgment.

It is clear from the discussion so far that the term curriculum decision making will not lend itself to a single definition. Harris, (1963) sees curriculum decision-making as a systematic process of planning what learners should need, how they are to be taught, and how to assess learning outcomes. Adentwi, (2005) also adds that every curriculum decision is based on the general aims of education for the country in which the curriculum is to be implemented. It is against this backdrop that Wheeler, (1980) considers the identification of the society’s educational goals or aims as the first step in curriculum decision-making. It therefore, follows that curriculum decision in the Ghana Police Training School requires a lot of systematic activities such as identifying the security needs of Ghana and aims of education in Ghana, identifying learning needs of recruits, planning for resources, and learning outcomes (Wiredu-Kusi, 1990).
Participants in curricular decision-making process

The curricular of all educational institutions affect the lives of all stakeholders in one way or the other. Taba (1962), identified five principal stakeholders in education as teachers, learners, parents, government and the society. All these groups of individuals according to him must be part of the curricular decision making process. Sekyere (2001), who shares in the position of Taba (1962), further states that just as the knowledge of members of the National Educational Directorate is important in the design of the school curriculum so are the suggestions of the students, parents and teachers key to making effective and prudent decisions about what learners learn.

In the school system decisions about what learners learn are often taken by experts in education. For example, those who head curriculum units and the senior staff of the Education Ministry take such decisions (Yeboah, 2003). This then shows that in some countries particularly Ghana, curricular decisions are often left in the hands of those who occupy high positions in education. Contrary to this practice, is that practiced by the American society. According to Quirk (2006), educational planning and curriculum design in the United States of America is a shared responsibility among parents, teachers, government representatives, learners and members of the various communities.

All the forgone discussion point to the fact that teachers, or instructors, parents, the government and learners are often involved in curriculum planning
and design. Hence one expects to see the views of instructors and recruits factored into the curricular decision making at the various Training Schools in Ghana.

**Administration and curricular decision-making structures in the Ghana Police Service**

The Ghana Police Service is the body tasked with the sole responsibility of controlling crime and conflict in Ghana. According to Preko (2000), the Police Service performs two principal functions - operational functions and administrative functions. The operational functions include patrol duties, sending task force to conflict areas, arresting suspected criminals, sending suspects from jail to court among others. The administrative duties include planning for logistics, deploying officers to special duties, writing statement from complainant to mention a few. Narziru-Hamid (2001), adds a third function of the police administration by stating that it is responsible for training and educating new recruits.

Narziru-Hamid (2001), adds that in the performance of its core duties, the Police Service takes decisions after carefully examining the realities on the ground. In the words of Sinipi (2003), such decisions are always taken by police officers who occupy the top echelon of the Police Administration. Sinipi’s assertion indicates that decision-making in the Police Service is strictly a function of the senior police administrators. This means training instructors who are not part of the senior administrative structure are always left out when it comes to decision making. This clearly contradicts Tamakloe’s (1998) suggestion that
every decision concerning learners should be taken based on the knowledge, experience and input of the instructors concerned.

Writing on the administrative structure of the Ghana Police Service, Prekoh (2000) posits that the Police Service is made up of three main structures or levels of development. These according to him are the Inspector-General of Police, Deputy Inspector-General of Police and Chief Staff Officer. According to Wiredu (2003) the final decision in the Police Administration is always taken by the Inspector-General of Police. Though Prekoh (2000) and Wiredu - Kusi (2003) all try to define who has the final say in decision-making within the police service; they fail to identify those who are in charge of decision making at the unit and district levels.

Below is the organisational structure of the Ghana Police Service as described by the Human Resource Development unit’s report of 2008.
Figure 1: Instructors’ knowledge on curricular decision-making processes

Source: Ghana Police Service Official Website, 2008
The organisational chart on page 21 shows that the Director General for the Human Resource Development unit in the Police Administration supervises the activities of the education unit, police college, training institutions, sports and recruitment and training units. According to Narziru-Hamid (2001), decision in every sector of the Police Service is usually taken by the “top officials”. It thus follows that the police training instructors who are not part of the high ranking officials will not be permitted to participate fully in decision making concerning the preparation of officers for combating crime and conflict. This actually supports Adabo’s (2009), assertion that in Ghana the teacher is only considered as an implementer of plans and decisions made by individuals whose knowledge and experiences have no bearing on curricular processes.

Factors that influence participation of teachers and instructors in curricular decision-making processes

Quite a good number of reasons account for teachers or instructors’ failure to participation. Philson, Adams and Koomson (1982), intimate that lack of information and excessive bureaucracy in the practice of education easily deny the teacher chance to contribute to curriculum decision-making. This view is further made explicit by Yankson’s (1991) explanation that curriculum implementers or teachers are most often kept in the dark over decision that concerns them because such decisions are taken through “winding processes”. The practice of sending back and forth a simple policy document from the ministry of education through the regional directorate to the district directorate of
education usually takes much time. The result of this is the denial of the teacher access to partake in curricular decision making (Sekyere, 2001).

Another factor that militates against the instructor from partaking in curricular decision making is lack of will (Boison, 2001). According to Philson et al (1982), apathy on the part of some instructors makes them not interested to take part in curricular decision making. This form of apathy, in the opinion of Berkoh (1990), is the result of practices and conventions within the educational system. In Ghana and in most developing countries, the common practice is that decisions are taken at the central level or by the government. The teachers and other stakeholders are only expected to accept and implement (Yeboah, 2003). This practice often reduces the desire of instructors to take part in decision making. Taba (1962), writes that due to lack of time and over burden, instructors find it difficult to take part in curricular decision making. She explains that handling large classes with its attendant duties of marking and conducting follow-up exercises take much of the teachers’ time. This leaves little room for the teacher to take up other responsibilities such as taking part in the planning and design of curriculum.

Literature reviewed on participants in curriculum decision-making processes indicates that the instructor is one of the key members who should design the curriculum for a given school, however, due to factors such as lack of information, excessive bureaucracy, lack of will, lack of time and overburden which is the result of handling of large classes usually do not allow instructors to take active part in curricular decision making.
Theoretical perspective on decision-making

Researchers according to Harding (2004) have made efforts to understand decision-making and have postulated some theories. There have been two main approaches; the descriptive approach as exemplified by Linblom’s Theory of Mudding and the prescriptive approach exemplified by Classical Decision Making Model. The descriptive model presents how executives or administrators make decisions while the prescriptive model attempts to present how executives or administrators ought to make decisions.

Linblom’s theory of mudding

This is descriptive and non-rational approach to decision making. This model according to Harding (1987) sees the decision maker as an administrative “man” rather than a rational economic man who makes the most logical decision he can, limited by his inadequate information and his ability to utilize information. Rather than the best ideal decisions, managers and school administrators more realistically settle for a decision that will adequately serve their purpose or appear reasonable based on their past experiences and knowledge. In general terms, at best they only follow a cause of action that ‘satisfies’ that is they look for a ‘satisfactory decision’ or a cause of action that is ‘satisfactory’ or ‘good enough’ rather than maximize or reach the optimal decision.
The classical decision-making theory

The Classical Decision – Making, according to Harding (2004), is one which calls for a rational, deliberate and systematic approach in the decision making process. This is based on the assumption that people are economically rational and attempt to maximize output in an orderly and sequential manner. Each step in this school is considered indispensable and one must proceed through the specific order. Different writers give different number of steps in this model but basically it involves five steps according to Harding as follows;

- Identification and definition of the problem;
- Analysing the problem;
- Criteria selection;
- Solution generation;
- Solution evaluation and selection;

The steps suggested by Harding imply that before curricula decisions are made efforts must be made to unravel all the challenges that the implementers and the learners are likely to encounter. In this case, knowledge of instructors is key to the making of any prudent decision because they can present the actual challenges that may result out of the programme.

Model of decision-making existing in educational institution

Decision-making structure according to Smylie (1996) could be defined as the method an organisation adopts in arriving at decisions. Effective participation in decision making has also been found to be important for successful
implementation of large scale educational innovations by teachers (Darling-Hammond, 1997). It is assumed that lasting school improvement will occur when teachers become more involved in professional decision making at the school site (Bratbrooke & Lindbroom, 1969). When teachers are involved in curricular decision-making process and the design of syllabus for the training of students or recruits they individually experience the influence of their participation in decision-making within the school organisation. If teachers do not feel such a personal influence, the degree of participation and the desire to participate will simply dwindle (Rice & Schneider, 1995).

Meriam (1920), shares in the position that instructors should be made part of the team that designs school syllabus and adds that it may be useful to increase teacher participation in those areas where teachers desire greater participation than it often occurs. Teachers appear to desire greater influence in those areas directly related to teaching situations. According to Marks and Louis, (1997, p.265), ‘Empowerment should focus on decision that affect the middle level policies regarding school functioning, those that are broader than a single classroom, but still clearly related to the improvement of learning environment’. Hence as a condition for the implementation of a large scale innovation, it seems important that teachers experience participation in decision-making with regards to the introduction and implementation of educational innovations. Furthermore, it is important to recognize the indirect nature of the leadership between participation in decision-making and the implementation of educational innovations by teachers as suggested by the research of Marks and Louis. Their
findings suggest that the professional learning and development of teachers are of particular importance to their role as intermediaries in the curriculum implementation process. Based on these findings, it can be expected that participation in decision making influences implementation of innovations such as the School Decision Making (SDM) through professional development activities.

Bediako (1990), identifies five types of structures that a group can adopt in making decisions. First, he talks of decision by ‘‘authority’’ which refers to the case where someone in authority makes decision for the group.” Decision by Minority’’ which is the second decision making structure according to Bediako also describes the situation where a single person or a small group people take decision for a large group. ‘‘Decision by majority’’ is the third type of decision making structure described by Bediako and this refers to the approach where the members of the group freely express their views on a given issue with the majority feelings taken as the decision. ‘‘Decision by Unanimity’’, another type of decision making structure which he argues to be the ideal type, occurs where every group member truly agrees on the decision to be taken. Finally, Bediako refers to ‘‘consensus decision making’’ as one in which there is a lot of discussions, so that group members who do not favour the majority alternative nevertheless understand it clearly and are prepared to support it. Comparatively, it can be said that Ghana Police Service uses decision by authority as described by Bediako because within the Police Service all decisions are taken by senior police officers in higher authority.
Historically, the system of administration found in the schools that were established earlier along the West Coast of Africa, that is, castle and mission schools, were predominantly autocratic. Adentwi (2005) carved that term ‘‘single order school pattern’’ to refer to the structure of small schools of the past. In such schools, the headmaster or the principal was the ‘‘key’’ figure. In this case, the head of the institution usually decided for the school without adequate consultation of his subordinates teachers.

Morrison (1931), remarks that the organisational chart of schools had the headmaster or principal and at times his or her deputy at the apex with all other members of staff at the base, even though they may have the same qualifications and ranks. The principal as the boss, sees himself as having unlimited powers. His or her power is only limited by state laws, boards of governors, rulers and administrative regulations. Powers therefore came to be vested in the administrative officers who are put in charge of managerial duties in schools. Yet the school administrator is often allowed to do little or nothing when it comes to designing syllabus for learners.

Decision by minority which refers to the situation where a single person or a small group of people take(s) a decision for a large group has been strongly challenged by Peters (1976). He admits that it is no longer practicable or advisable for school administrators to exercise authority in the traditional way. He continues to say that the administrators are now working in a complex environment. So if they want to be successful, they must be prepared to share their honoured administrator’s prerogative of decision making. Effective school
administration calls for increased staff involvement in day-to-day running of the school or college. Quillen and Hanna (1961), argue that the unwillingness of the administrators under this type of leadership style in the educational institutions including teacher training college to relinquish part of their absolute authority to teachers is perhaps due to the fact that they are still held accountable for whatever goes on in their schools. Burton (1962), questions the rationale of holding heads of educational institutions responsible for decisions arrived at collectively. He clearly disagrees with the idea that school administrators should be held accountable if they no longer have the final say in the affairs of the school. He argues that if decisions are arrived at collectively, then the entire staff should be held accountable. However, in practice it is almost impossible to hold such a body accountable.

Decision by majority which refers to the approach where the members of a group freely expresses their views on a given issue, with the majority feelings taken as the decision has been strongly supported by Montague (as cited by Wiredu-Kusi 1990) who observed that co-operation is the key to survival. He therefore suggested that efforts towards school improvement should take place on co-operative basis involving all relevant public personalities in the decision to be taken.

Decision by unanimity occurs when every group member truly agrees on the decision to be taken. In support of this type of decision-making structure, Asiedu-Akrofi (1978) sees the school as a democratic society where individual as well as group views are respected. It may be suggested then that schools like any
other industrial organisations work better and achieve their set goals provided that all relevant public personalities are involved in their decision making process.

Wiredu-Kusi (1990) refers to the democratic administration in school as the use of free discussions and decisions on the part of all concerned in determining the ends or purpose to be attained and the means or plans by which the ends are to be attained. This is what is referred to as consensus decision making structure. It allows a lot of discussions so that group members who do not favour the majority can have alternative to weigh their merits so that they can prepare for the outcome of the final decision. For institutional harmony to be achieved leading to the attainment of institutional goals, heads of institutions including principals of teacher training colleges need to adopt the five decision-making structure, since they are inevitable in the educational system and practice and have relevance for the purpose of this study in so far as they promote or prevent teacher participation in school-based decisions.

In the assessment of Taba (1962), principles and conventions in education allow school principals to delegate powers to teachers in the discharge of discipline, monitoring of student activities and deciding on appropriate teaching methods. This enables instructors to become more committed to the work they do. He further noticed that principals use or apply participatory decision-making structure when they deem it appropriate mainly in areas where the school size was found to be large. A similar study was conducted by Arnold (as cited in Wiredu-Kusi, 1990) to find out the factors which were associated with the efforts of principals to increase or decrease teacher participation in decision making. He
found out that most principals did not use collective decision making structure in the areas of personnel practices. However, in institutions directly related to classroom activities, majority of principals use collective or joint participation or gave teachers complete autonomy in making the decisions. The result of several studies on the effects of different dimensions of transformational leadership show how transformational leadership influences participation in decision making professional development activities, and feeling of uncertainty (Herek & Huth, 1987). Results of a similar study into the innovation capacities of schools by the American Association of School Administrators (1960), also show greater bottom-up influence and greater participation in decision-making during formal team meetings in high innovations as opposed to low innovation schools. In the low innovations schools, one can speak of little decisions.

Bennet (1987) found out that the mode of decision making at a school depends on the style of leadership at the central office outside the school. He investigated the way principals perceive certain conditions and practices at central office level. One hundred and twenty primary and secondary school principals in the United States of America were asked to describe the decision-making mode best characterized the way instructional decisions were made in their schools, a continuum which ranged from “boss centered” to “subordinates centered”. It was found that a positive relationship existed between the principal’s allocation of decisional power and the principal’s perception of the leadership at the Central Office. Even though Bennet was concerned with a broader concept, his views are essential to the purpose of the study. If the power to make day-to-day educational
decision is concentrated at the Central Office, staff participation in certain decisions involving managerial and operational matters is reduced to the minimum level and does not affect the principal’s authority.

A summary among some San Francisco Schools principals by Johnson (1975) confirmed the existence of collective decision making structures in schools. It was observed that school principals did not need to fear that expanded teacher influence would undermine their work. It was further explained that teachers showed interest in collective work structures in school because it helped them to develop professionally.

In a similar study, the result of decision making games played by volunteers from Houston University were examined by Janis & Mann (1977). It was found out that when disagreement among members is likely and acceptance was necessary, decision making method that allowed group interaction generated acceptance than when such method was absent. The subject used for the study felt that collective thinking resulted in high quality decisions. Janis & Mann (1977), confirmed earlier pieces of research evidence that increased staff participation generated greater acceptance of decision with the understanding that the decision is sound. Even though these findings of Janis & Mann (1977) did not give definite answer as to which structure of decision making an organisation should choose, they suggested that if the primary goal was to arrive at the most ‘correct’ decision then the involvement of several persons whether through a consensus or a participatory decision making approach would generate better result than the individual decision-making model. It is in the light of the above that Axelrod
(1973), argued that leadership behaviour which conformed to group involvement in decision making was likely to be more effective than one which rejected it.

Allison (1969) argued along similar lines. They stated that disagreement could be better understood and resolved through collective decision making. They added that if leaders resorted to discussing problems individually with staff members, the understanding of the range of alternatives was not likely to be realized. Niblett (1955), emphasized the involvement of teachers in the process of educational decisions. He said that if they are regarded as passive recipient of the latest gospel, it is no wonder they shrug their shoulders and carry on in the same way as before.

It is clear from the above review that a wide a range of authors agree that collective decision making leads to higher quality and greater acceptance of decisions than decisions reached by individual administrators without the participation of those affected by the decisions. Principals of teacher training colleges should therefore try to adopt a participatory decision-making structure in their colleges to promote group decisions and denounce apathy by teachers.

Perceptions towards instructor participation in school decision-making process

Emotions in teaching certainly make lessons fascinating and are critical for supporting students. But in today’s turbulence policy environment, teachers often experience intense feelings of vulnerability, self-doubt and uncertainty with regard to their professional integrity as teachers (Wood, 1999). In the present
research, these feelings are further explored as a condition for the implementation of innovations including teacher empowerment in decision making in schools. Such feelings of uncertainty with regard to ones professional competence are expected to negatively affect the degree to which they are prepared to exert themselves on behalf of such implementation (Van den Berg & Ros, 1999). Van de Barg and Ros suggest that a higher degree of uncertainty will negatively affect the degree to which teachers are prepared to undertake various professional development activities such as decision-making in schools.

Bridges (1977), maintains that an administrative problem of particular concern to teachers involves the hierarchical levels on which personnel are classified. They continue by saying that some administrators fear that teachers’ participation could lead a drift away from policies intended to be achieved and as a result of this fear they tend to be authoritarian. To them, the obvious consequence is that, losing faith in broad participation in the making of decisions he resorts to the more comfortable autocratic procedure which he previously abandoned. Bridges says that with reversal of action, the teachers see the principal becoming more dictatorial and their own importance in the college diminishing. They in turn, may counter by seeking to expand their decision making prerogative and limit those of the principal through collective negotiations.

Taba (1962), argue that the school administrator has responsibility to see to it that those decisions which are made contribute to the accomplishment of the overall purpose of the organisation or the school. He may feel that teachers or any other single group of persons or people associated with the school are not in the
position to see this total purpose. He may think that their participation in decision-making reflects the bias that results from the limited perspective with which they view the problem.

Nustrand (1997), maintains that without holding brief to the fact that the administrators judgments and wisdom are necessarily better than the judgments and wisdom of teachers, the administrator occupying positions that require him to look at problems in terms of the interests of all groups affected; the school, pupils, the teachers and other school employees, the board of education, the state and the local profession. This is what makes participation of teachers in decision making process in schools somehow difficult. If administrators have been wary of teacher participation in the past and even present, it is largely because they have not yet found a satisfactory means by which teachers could perceive the total problem without spending so much of their time on it that their effectiveness in the classroom may not be jeopardized.

Keef (1976), studied the role of teachers in school decision making from class teachers, principals and board members perception of teachers’ involvement in school decision-making. Teachers perceive that they should be given the opportunity to get involved in all types of decisions while administrators perceive that teachers should be involved in fully only instructional decisions. The Board of Governors would like teachers to be involved in neither operational nor managerial decisions. A similar study was conducted by Merrit (1987) to examine the difference in perceptions of parents, instructors and clerical staff of their concept of shared governance in selected urban schools of Southern Mississippi.
A 50 item shared governance questionnaire was used to collect data from 570 instructors, clerical staff and parents. From the analysis of the data, the following conclusions were arrived at:

- There were significant difference in the perception of shared governance among instructors, police training principals, the clerical staff and parents.
- There was no significant difference in perceptions when instructors and principals were grouped into primary or secondary schools.
- There was a significant difference in perceptions of principals when categorized by gender and age. The central feature of the two studies above is that people related to the educational enterprise and the general public differ in their attitude and perceptions of instructor participation in schools decision making.

Witherspoon (as cited in Wiredu-Kusi, 1990) studied the attitudes and perceptions of principals and instructor towards the implementation of school-based shared decision-making in an urban school setting at Purdue. He reported that the attitude of principals and instructors regarding the process of shared governance and their perceptions of areas for instructor involvement did not differ significantly. He further observed that teachers indicated significantly less agreement than principals as to how to share decision-making process was functioning in their schools. Principals were however found to be more in favour of the following:

- Instructors having input in decisions;
- Instructors having input in getting goals and priorities;
• The principals supporting the process;

• Instructors being provided with enough information to make decisions.

To Wiredu Kusi (1990), despite the slight difference in the conclusion drawn from the study above, it confirms that instructors and principals do not have the same perceptions concerning instructor participation in school decision making and there their attitude differed with regard to the involvement of instructors in school decision making process.

A study conducted in New Jersey by Burke (1987), examined instructors’ perceptions of their involvement in decision-making within a particular school district. One hundred and two instructors were randomly sampled to respond to the questionnaire showing their desire and actual levels of participation in 15 decision making areas. Analysis of data indicated that participation level of both desired and actual was greatest for technical decisions and least for executive-managerial decisions.

Eskine (1990) tried to find out whether teachers would be willing to get involved in the decision – making process and assume responsibility for decision if they were given the opportunity to do so. The result of the study showed that teachers had a strong desire to have a say in the affairs of the school and willing to accept responsibility for their decisions.

Deducing from the research work by the above named researchers, it is clear that teachers and principals have positive perceptions of instructor’s involvement in school based decisions and must be practiced in the teacher training colleges to promote effective teaching and learning.
Instructor’s participation in school decision-making and job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the essential areas in organisational behaviour. The term has been defined in various ways by different authors who hold the view that job satisfaction refers to an individual’s general attitude towards the job he performs. To Pruitt (1971), job satisfaction is defined as the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job experience.

Holy & Miskel (1991) expressed the view that job satisfaction may be the relationship between motivational concepts and occupational performance of an individual in an organisation. The definitions of job satisfaction imply that the concepts refer to favourable feelings with which employees view their work. Job satisfaction therefore emanates from the perception of employees on how well the jobs they do give them those things that are as vital to both themselves and the organisation.

Three important dimensions are identified in job satisfaction (Okumbe, 1998). The first dimension is the emotional response to a job situation. This means that job satisfaction can only be inferred and not seen. The second dimension of job satisfaction is that it is usually determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations. The third dimension is that job satisfaction represents several related attitudes. These attitudes are on essential characteristics of the job such as the work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, recognition and participation in decision-making process. Peretomode (1992) is of the view that motivation is at the very heart of the practice of management. However, it is difficult to define and apply motivation in organisations and
institutions. Okumbe (1998) indicates that thorough knowledge and application of motivation such as instructor participation in decision-making is very essential in any strong educational management. This to him has been widely proved to be applicable in most educational setting.

Bame (1991), defines job satisfaction as a multi-dimensional phenomenon. It comprises a whole array of factors which operate together to determine a worker’s attitudes towards his job and consequently some aspect of his general work behaviour. The term is used to analyse outcomes already achieved by an employee. According to Bame when instructors are recognized as mature in the decision-making process they feel satisfied hence they wilfully bring their experiences to bear on the decisions to be made.

Maslow (1943), argues along similar lines that participation in the management of organisations motives and objectives make employees stay on the job and give off their best. According to him, extrinsic motivators were not enduring so he advocated for enrichment programmes such as genuine participation of staff in decision-making. According to Maslow, participatory decision making approach helps teachers to become popular because it gives members the chance to voice their opinion concerning matters that affect their work, help promote esprit de corps, boost morale and increase productivity. He continues to say that in the school situation, when instructors are to participate in decision-making, it fosters friendly informal discussion and they become committed to the decisions they helped to formulate. This encourages them to work harder to help achieve institutional goals.
According to Taba (1962), the modern school system is an intricate work of varied activities and service carried on by personnel who assume a variety of responsibilities for the teaching-learning process. Instructors are aware that the organisational achievement is more than the sum of their individual efforts. Their satisfaction must be derived from the knowledge that their individual collective efforts have contributed both to the formulation and to the achievement of the schools. Instructors who gain these satisfactions feel identified with the organisation’s purpose and its methods of achieving these purposes. Involving top and lower management in decision-making in organisations has helped the Japanese excel in industry and technology. Their management practice is based on many principles including collective decision (Mordezi, 1999). It is in line with this that Konduah (2005), suggests that administrative decisions should be taken in concert with the actual implementers of such decisions.

Wipert, Burger and Doktor (1976), pointed out that employee participation in decision-making is among the “range of key success factors” for productive improvement. He continues to say that participatory management is one of the widely recognized motivational techniques in current use. The effects of this technique, he argues, increase employees satisfaction, commitment and confidence in the organisation. Steiner (1977) also adds that increased participation in decision-making is associated with greater job satisfaction, work achievement and personal integration in the organisation or institution. Getzels (as cited in Bame, 1991) observes that when the perceptions of the expectations of participants in an administrative interaction overlap, the participants feel satisfied
with the work accomplished no matter what the actual behaviour or accomplishment: but when the perception of the expectations does not overlap, the participants feel dissatisfied. He further indicates that the fulfilment of the personal needs of teachers’ especially male teachers in a school organisation generates job satisfaction among them and vice versa. To him, when teachers are involved in those decisions that affect them, they are likely to be more satisfied with their job situation and their principal.

Handerson (1976), conducted a research aimed at finding out whether primary school teachers who perceived they had high participation in school decision-making as a group showed higher job satisfaction than those who perceived they had low participation.

The results of the study were that teachers who perceived they had high participation in school decision-making were more satisfied with their job. He concluded on the basis of the findings that there was a positive relationship between participation in school decision-making and job satisfaction. Handerson further asserts from the findings of this study that primary school teachers who participated in school decision-making process exhibited more positive relationship towards their principal. In a similar study at Standard University, Palches (as cited in Wiredu-Kusi, 1990) conducted an investigation into the claim of human relations group of administrators that a relationship existed between participation in decision-making and teacher job satisfaction. The findings of Handerson (1976) and Palches (as cited in Wiredu-Kusi, 1990) confirm the real situation in the Ghana Training Schools that when instructors are actively
involved in the decision-making process, those who enjoy satisfaction as a result of their active involvement in decision-making process and other administrative routines remain in the college and those who feel they have been relegated to the background by their principal either go on transfer or further their education. A study conducted by Hampson (1987), at the Michigan University, also, confirmed the above view and emphasized the connection between decision-making style and a more positive instructor attitude. The finding of the study shows that an instructor would be more committed to his work when he is actively involved in the decision-making process. He further explains that the instructor feels recognized by his principal which is also a motivating factor for job satisfaction.

Wiredu-Kusi (1990) in a related study of teacher participation in decision-making in some selected senior secondary schools in the Cape Coast metropolitan assembly found out that most teachers in the metropolis supported the stand that teacher - involvement in the decision-making process is the key to developing worthwhile attitude in teachers in the educational system. From the study it is clear that the participation of teachers in school decision-making leads to greater job satisfaction, commitment to decisions and more qualitative decision. Non-participation on the other hand leads to frustration, low morale and apathy. He again observed that teachers’ involvement in certain aspects of school decision-making process was not encouraging. Apathy on the part of teachers and constraints from administrators were causes. Recent studies have shown fairly conclusively that teachers are motivated more by intrinsic than extrinsic rewards.
Holsti (1970), conducted a survey which found that teachers perceive their needs and measure their job satisfaction by factors such as participation in decision-making, use of valued skills, freedom and independence, challenge, expression of creativity and opportunity for learning. They concluded that high internal motivation, work satisfaction and high-quality performance depend on three critical psychological states; personnel involvement in decision, responsibility for economics of the decision, and knowledge of results of decision.

In a survey conducted by Leng (1980), a majority of school administrators and teachers cited three policies that effectively improved morale and motivate their staff shared governance, in-service education and systematic supportive evaluation. Shared governance or participatory management enhances teachers’ professional status and their ownership in the planning and operation of the school. Thus shared governance gives teachers a vested interest in school performance and also promotes harmony and trust among teachers and administrators. The results of such cooperation can be exemplified in Salt Lake City, where a shared governance policy enacted in 1994 enabled teachers and administrators jointly to develop a district wide accountability plan, an evaluation/remediation process, a salary progression programme and a curriculum reform which emphasized basic skills. Formal or informal in-service education promotes sharing of ideas and interdependence among teachers.

Informal education includes resource sharing or conversations among teachers about professional concern; formal education can include workshops and seminars. Either kind of in-service tends to improve instructional techniques and
enhances professional self awareness. To them an evaluation system if well designed provides teachers with the necessary feedback to assess their own professional growth. A poorly designed evaluation system can be disastrous, pitting teachers against administrators and engendering anxiety, mistrust and resentment. They therefore suggest that administrators or principals should encourage teachers to take part in the design and implementation of a particular research-based evaluation system customized to individual district needs. The main purpose of evaluation should be to provide information to help teachers to improve upon their teaching performance.

Accordingly, a good evaluation system should reflect respect for worth and dignity by encouraging teachers to set personnel and organisational objectives. An evaluation system should also foster imagination and creativity, recognize work well done and involve self-appraisal and appraisal of others for job satisfaction and increased productivity.

From the review of literature, it stands out clear that school heads who promoted participatory management in their colleges, were more successful as administrators than those who used “one man show” model of administration. The success of such heads, was attributed to the fact that the mode of decision-making used among other things increased commitment and a higher level of cooperation. Contrary to the view that subordinates involvement in decision-making would undermine the commanding officer, head or principal’s work, it has been strongly suggested that instructors in the Ghana Police Training Schools, who are potential school administrators will equally show keen interest in such structures
provided they are put in place to work. It is believed that collective decision-making leads ultimately to higher quality decisions, greater acceptance and effective implementation, of such decision.

Secondly, perceptions of individuals or groups of individuals who matter in the organisation’s development such as the police or teacher training colleges differ. Some commanding officers and principals feel strongly that instructors or tutors must be involved only in instructional decisions. Others are of the opinion that tutors should be involved in all decisional situations of the college. Whether subordinates are involved in the decision-making process or not depends on the leadership style that exists in the school.

The review of literature also shows that the best relationship can exist between educational administrator, commanding officers or principal and their staff if they perceive their involvement in the school’s decision-making process. Many forms of decision-making modes exist in our educational institutions but their existence does not imply that all teachers or instructors would be desirous to be involved in school related matters. There is therefore the need for educational administrators to determine the extent to which their staff members would be involved in the school’s decisions-making process by giving them the opportunity to do so.

It is strongly believed that the ability of the commanding officer to effectively utilize his staff in the college’s decision-making process will go a long way to affect their behaviour positively towards him, their attitude to work, job satisfaction, commitment and confidence in the organisation and above all
productive improvement in the educational institutions including the Ghana Police Training Schools.

**Summary of literature review**

The review of literature was done to provide the researcher with guidance to arrive at a theoretical and empirical framework for the study. Theoretical review of literature looked at the phenomenon of curricular decision-making, mode of decision-making in educational institutions, and administrative and decision-making structures of the Ghana Police Service. The empirical review focused on global studies to find out how decisions are made in educational institutions. The main purposes of the study were to find out the role of teachers or instructors in decision making and people’s perceptions about instructor participation in decision-making. The empirical review also looked at how instructors’ participation in school decision-making influences job satisfaction.

Generally, the literature revealed that in Ghana both teachers within the Ghana Education Services and police instructors of the Police Training School are not involved in decision making. With respect to the composition of the decision-making team, it was revealed that the top hierarchy of the Police Administration, the Inspector General of Police, Deputy Inspector General of Police and Chief Staff Officer are the three core group of individuals who take final decisions in the Police Administration. Similarly, decisions in the Ghana Education Service are often taken by the Director General of Education, Regional and District
Directors of Education. However, decisions by these two bodies are subject to approval by the Interior Minister and the Minister of Education respectively.

The literature also established that decision making at the unit levels in the Police Service is usually done by commanding officers. There were, however two major gaps that the literature reviewed did not cover. Firstly, all the writers and researchers failed to come out with the reasons or factors responsible for instructors’ inability to fully participate in decision-making process. Also the literature reviewed could not establish the various ways through which teachers and police training instructors could be encouraged to participate fully in curricular decision making on crime and conflict prevention. The research therefore sought to address these two gaps so as to make decision-making processes in the Police Administration very effective.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter deals with the methodology adopted for the study. It covers study institution, population, sample and sampling technique, research design, the research instrument, data collection procedure and data processing and analysis.

Research design

In carrying out this study, the descriptive design was adopted. Sarantakos (2005) stated that, descriptive sample survey design involves the collection of data in order to answer questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study. According to Silver (2004), advantages of the descriptive sample survey design are that; it is objective and allows the researcher to gather information about individuals’ opinions, knowledge and attitudes through questionnaires, as well as generalization of the results obtained. A descriptive survey takes into account the insider’s perspective by trying to understand a studied phenomenon in the light of the perceptions and explanations of the persons involved and in their natural setting. It also enables the researcher and participants to interactively negotiate to produce collaborative data that keeps on reflecting and unfolding realities represented (Babi, 1990). It is the hope of the researcher to obtain first hand data from the respondents so as to formulate rational and sound conclusions and recommendations for the study.
**Study institution**

The Ghana Police Service has six (6) Training Schools but this study will concentrate on the one in Accra because it is the oldest and biggest Police Training School in Ghana. The proximity of the National Police Training School to the researcher was also another factor for its choice as the study institution. The Ghana Police Training School is also referred to as the National Police Training School. This was formerly called National Police Training Depot established in 1930 for training recruits, under cadet officers (Direct Entrants), refresher and promotion courses for other ranks.

For one to be eligible for admission into the training school, one should be a Ghanaian by birth, be of good character with no criminal record, be not less than 18 years and not more than 25 years, be medically fit by Ghana Police Service standard, be of minimum height 5’8’’feet (176.78cm) for males and 5’4’’feet (164.95cm) for females., and be a holder of SSCE/WASSCE with passes in five subjects including English and Mathematics. There are limited vacancies for JSS (JHS)/MSLC for the Protective Unit (PU). The enlistment process is done in such a way that qualified candidates are short listed from a pool of applicants who report at the various enlistment centres as may from time to time be published. Candidates who meet the above requirements go through written examination after which those who pass are selected for medical examination and later called to commence training. Prospective candidates are always advised to bring along the following;

- Original and photocopies of certificates
- Four current passport size photographs
- Original and photocopies of Birth Certificate.

Subjects taught in the Training School include Practical Police Duties, Police Service Instructions, Professional Police Ethics, Police Basic Officer Skills, Criminal Law, Criminal Procedure, Criminal Investigation, Law of Evidence, Acts and Decrees, Criminology, English and Report Writing, Human Rights and Domestic Violence. The Liberal subjects include French, Social Psychology, Map Reading, STDs/HIV/AIDS and First Aid. The recruits are also taken through physical training, arms and foot drill, tae-Kwan-do, judo and weapon training. Musketry is taught and recruits are made to shoot at shooting range. There is no exact subject taught in conflict prevention, but it runs through the various subjects, since conflict prevention is one of the major objectives in the service (Ghana Police Council 2007).

The training programme has duration of six months. All the subjects mentioned above are taught and recruits are examined at the end of every month. Passing out parade is organized at the end of the six month after recruits are tested in all aspects of the training. After the passing out parade, commendation service is organized for the newly recruits constables.

**Population**

The target population covered only the Commanding Officer and instructors of the National Police Training School in the Greater Accra region since the Commanding Officer is also an instructor. They were 80 (72.1%) in
number. The target population is the same as the accessible population even though the total number of staff at the Police Training School in Accra is 113. The rest 33 (27.9%) were civil employees, messengers and cleaners at the station.

According to Gay (1992), the researcher always starts by defining a population of interest which typically includes too many members to study. A population is therefore, the totality of persons, events, organisation units, case records or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned.

**Sample and sampling technique**

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, a total sample size of 80 respondents – hundred percent of the total number of population, was used. Purposive sampling technique was used to select all the respondents. The reason for the use of purposive sampling technique was that the population at the National Police Training School was made up of instructors and non instructors. Hence the need to purposively select the training instructors from the rest of the population.

**Research instrument**

The research instrument that was employed for the study were questionnaire and interview guide. Creswell (2002), stated that the questionnaire is advantageous because it is cost effective and time saving, but it cannot probe deeply into respondents’ beliefs, attitudes and inner experience while interview guides allow the researcher to obtain first hand information from respondents. The
The questionnaire contained sixteen items and it had seven sections. Below is the breakdown of the various components of the questionnaire:

- **Section A (items 1 - 7):** Demographic data of respondents.
- **Section B (items 8 -10):** Curricula Decision making structures in the Ghana Police Service.
- **Section C (item 12):** Impact of the non-involvement of police training instructors in curriculum decision-making on the training of recruits in conflict management
- **Section D (items 13-14):** Criteria for selecting police officers who make decisions on crime and conflict prevention in Ghana.
- **Section E (items 15):** Factors that influence low participation of police training instructors in Curricula decision making on crime and conflict prevention at the Police Training School in Ghana.
- **Section F (items 16):** Perceptions of police training instructors about the processes of crime and conflict management in Ghana.
- **Section G (items 17):** Ways to improve instructor participation in decision making on crime and conflict management.

The interview guide contained twenty items. Below is the break-down of the items on the interview guides.

- **Section A (1-5):** Curriculum decision – making structure that exist in the Police Training School in Ghana.
- **Section B (6-9):** Criteria for selecting police officers who make curricula decision.
Section C (10-11): Factors that influence low participation of training instructors in the design of the syllabus for training recruits on conflict and crime management.

Section D (12-15): Perceptions of police training instructors about the processes of making curriculum decisions in the police service.

Section E (16-20): Negative impacts of instructors’ non involvement in curriculum decision making on the training of recruits.

**Data collection procedure**

The researcher administered the questionnaire personally to respondents during normal working hours. This was to promote greater participation and a high return rate of the questionnaires from respondents.

An introductory letter was obtained from the Institute for Development Studies. The letter spelt out the purpose of the research and the need for respondents’ participation. It further assured participants of the confidentiality of their responses as well as the procedure for responding to the questions. A maximum of two days were given to respondents to complete the questionnaire. The return rate was 100 percent which was very encouraging. The interview was also conducted personally by the researcher and the interaction between the researcher and the respondents was recorded using a tape recorder.
Data processing and analysis

When the questionnaires were returned, a track was kept to establish total submission of the required number detailed to each shift. Wholesome responses were set aside while the inadequately and erroneous responses were identified and a follow-up was made on the respondents for corrections and completeness.

Having been satisfied with the returned data, a coding frame was constructed to translate the responses into numbers. A validation exercise was made to determine the validity of the resulting coded responses through further manual checking and correction. The data was examined in order to understand its parts and relationship and to discover its trends. The responses from respondents through the interview guide were transcribed and analysed to deduce meaning from them.

The questionnaire was serially numbered for easy identification. The data collected were edited, not necessarily altering responses to suit the researcher but to ensure that responses were suitable. Finally the questionnaires were coded for easy analyses. All responses for each item in the questionnaire were analysed with Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS 12.0).

In conclusion, the study mainly used descriptive design to collect data to answer question the study posed. The population for the study comprised instructors at National Police Training School and Commanding Officers of the Ghana Police Service. The study used both qualitative and quantitative data in seeking answers to the research questions. Out of the target population, a sample size of 80 respondents was selected through the use of purposive sampling
technique. The two instruments used in collecting data for the study were interview guide and questionnaire. The former was used to collect data from Police Training Instructors while the latter was used to collect data from Commanding Officers at the National Police Training School. Finally, the Statistical Product and Service Solution (12.0) was used to analyse the quantitative data gathered from the Police Training Instructors while the responses gathered from the interview were analysed manually and narrative notes were used to present the observations made.
CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study. Issues covered were on curricula decision-making structures in the Ghana Police Service, impact of instructors’ non participation in curriculum decision making on the training of recruits in conflict management, criteria for selecting Police Officers who design the curriculum for training recruits into the Ghana Police Service, factors that influence low participation of police training instructors in the design of the curriculum, perception of police training instructors about the design of curriculum for the training of recruits and ways to improve police training instructors’ participation in curriculum decision making.

The study made use of both quantitative and qualitative data. Hence in analyzing and interpreting the responses on the questionnaire, the researcher made use of frequencies and percentages while that of the response from the interview was done by reading, interpreting and drawing conclusions from what the interviewees said. The result and discussion in this chapter therefore are based on the data from the questionnaire and the interview. Before turning to the main findings, it is important to present the demographic characteristics of the Police training officers who took part in the study.
Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

As noted in chapter three, Police officers at Ghana Police Training School in Accra were involved in the study. Their personal characteristics are presented in Tables 1-8.

Table 1: Gender of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>73.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012

As evident in Table 1, there were more male police training instructors (73.7%) than females (26.3%) at the National Police Training School. The relatively large number of male instructors in the school supports the general assumption that due to the vigorous and tedious nature of the activities in the police service, females are mostly not attracted to it.

Table 2: Age of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age in years</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 24yeras</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-30years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-37years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38-44 or above</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>66.3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012
From Table 2, it is obvious only small percentages (3.8%) of the instructors at the National Police Training School are below the age of 24 (twenty-four). Even this percentage of the respondents is made up of women as indicated in Table 2. The table further shows that while (6.3%) of the respondents were males who fall between the ages of 24-30 years, (12.5%) of them who fell within this age group were females. Also, (6.3%) of the males were aged between 31-37 years while (17.5%) of the females fell under that age range. Finally, the (53.7%) of the respondents who fell under the ages of 38-44 years or above, were all males.

Two main issues come to the fore from the result presented in table 2. The first is, comparatively, the female instructors at the National Police Training School are younger in age than males. According to Ephraim (2011) workers who fall within the ages of 22-36 years can be described as young and youthful personnel. This means about 36.3% of the workers at the Police Training School can be described as young and energetic personnel. It might, therefore be expected that such young employees’ youthful exuberance would be brought to bear on the day to day running of the police training school.

Results in Table 3 indicate that most of the staffs at the Police Training School are not among high rank officers of the Ghana Police Service. From the Table 3 (3.7%) of the police officers at the Training School are at the rank of ASP while 27 (33.7%) of them are at the rank of police constable. Also, 15 (18.8%) of them are police corporals while 21 (26.3%) are at the rank of sergeants. Another
rank of officers said to be part of the teaching at the training school is the police inspector.

**Table 3: Respondents rank in the Ghana Police Service**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASP/DSP/SUPT/C/SUPT.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constable</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporal</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sergeant</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspector</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSP</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012

They form 12(15%) of the entire population at the National Police Training School. Finally, 2(2.5%) of the police officers at the training school were found to be at the rank of DSP.

In this study, workers’ academic qualification is defined as the non-professional educational qualification possessed by workers. In table 4, the data, show that some of the police officers (25.0%) at the National Police Training school had certificates which were either SSSCE/WASSCE certificate. Also, 11 (13.8%) of officers at the Training School were holders of a diploma in education or an HND.
Table 4: Educational levels of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Qualification</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SSSCE/WASSCE</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HND/Diploma</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Degree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Graduate Degree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012

The data further indicated that 30 (30.0%) of the respondents had a first degree certificate while 6(7.5%) of them possessed a post graduate or masters degree certificate. The two commission officers interviewed also stated that they both possessed a post graduate or masters degree certificate in conflict and crime management. All these findings point to the fact that the National Police Training School had officers and training instructors who are literate. However, the researchers’ verbal interactions with the officers and instructors showed that most of the instructors have not had training in how to teach. That is, many of the instructors did not study education. Hence it could be said they lack pedagogical and anagogical skills and knowledge to impart knowledge to recruits. Another issue that comes out of the result presented in Table 4, is that, the National Police Training School accepts SSCE/WASSCE certificate as the basic qualification for training instructors.
Table 5: Length of service of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Service</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 3 years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-8 years</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-14 years</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012

On the length of service of the respondents, as presented in Table 5, the data revealed that 22 (27.5%) of the officers and instructor at the police training school have worked with Ghana Police Service for less than 3 years. Additionally, 26(32.5%) of them have served for 4-5 years. This shows that 48(60%), more than half of police officers have not served for a longer time. On the contrary, table 5, again, shows that whiles 23(28.8%) have served in the police service for 6-9 years, only 9(11.2%) have been in the service for 15-20 years. The two commission officers interviewed intimated that they had worked or served in the police service for more than 20 years. They again pointed out that their ranks as commission officers was the result of their long stay in the police administration because according to them there are some lower rank officers at the police training school who have attained higher education but due to the fact that they have not worked or served in the Police Service for a longer time, they have not been promoted to the rank of commission officers.

An inference to be drawn from the result above is that most of the officers and instructors at the Police Training School are inexperienced. According to
Cashman (2000), experience in the operations of security service in combating crime and conflict usually depends on the length of service and exposure in events or circumstances that demand application of one’s knowledge in fighting crime or conflict.

**Decision –making structure in Ghana Police Service**

The first objective for the study centered on the curricula decision-making structures in the Ghana Police Service. The areas explored under this theme were perceptions of Police training instructors about the decision making structures in the Police Service, rank of officers who take part in the curricula decision making processes and category of training instructors in the school. Items 7-9 on the questionnaire were used to gather data on the above theme. Responses of respondents are presented in tables 6-8. Items 1-5 on the interview guide were also used to gather data on the various decision making structures at the police training school.

Table 6 presents the extent of respondent agreement or disagreement to statements which described how the Police Administration allow police training instructors to participate in curricula decision making processes. A look at the first item on Table 6 indicates that the police training instructors generally do not know of any formalized structure that has the mandate to make curricula decisions for the training of new recruits in conflict and crime prevention.
Table 6: Knowledge of instructors about curricula decision-making processes in Ghana Police Service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SA (F)%</th>
<th>A(F)%</th>
<th>SD(F)%</th>
<th>D(F)%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ghana Police Service has laid down structure for curricula decision making.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(13)</td>
<td>(47)</td>
<td>(20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors are unaware about how contents for training police recruits are selected or designed.</td>
<td>(50)</td>
<td>(30)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors are always informed about changes effected in training syllabus.</td>
<td>(28)</td>
<td>(9)</td>
<td>(26)</td>
<td>(17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors are aware of the purposes of specific contents in the training syllabus.</td>
<td>(19)</td>
<td>(59)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors are involved mainly in the allocation of training recruits.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(37)</td>
<td>(42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection of training programmes and teaching &amp; learning resources are based on the recommendations of training instructors</td>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>(12)</td>
<td>(18)</td>
<td>(45)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012
This is because apart from 13(16.3%) of the respondents who agreed to the statement that “police training instructors have knowledge about the curricula decision making structures in the Ghana Police Service”, majority – 67(83.7%) of them disagreed with it. Contrary to the position shared by majority of respondents to the items on the questionnaire was the view expressed by the two commission officers interviewed. In their view there was a formal body which meets to take curricular decisions at the Training School. According to the commission officers, the name of the team was Curriculum Development and Education Unit. Their knowledge about the existence of this body was attributed to the fact that they were part of the said team. This finding points to the fact that instructors at the Ghana Police Training Schools do not know the institution or officers who design teaching and learning syllabus for them. It thus, goes to support Adabo’s (2009) assertion that most teachers or instructors in Ghana lack knowledge about the source from which teaching and learning materials they implement are made. It therefore shows that only instructors at top echelon of the Police Training School are aware of the various curricula decision making teams in the Police Administration and that the lower rank officers only implement decisions whose sources are unknown to most of them.

Added to the instructors’ lack of knowledge about curricula decision making structure was the fact that all the respondents (100%) appeared oblivious of how the Ghana Police Service select content taught to recruits at the training school. According to Tamakloe (1998) instructors or teachers
who are made to implement contents of school syllabi often delineate themselves from it because they are not involved in the processes that lead to its creation. Hence, it could be said that once the police training instructors are not involved in the processes of selecting and designing the contents of syllabus for training new recruits; they may not feel responsible for the outcome of what they teach the new recruits. However, data on respondents response to whether or not the instructors really know and understand the purposes and objectives of the syllabus they used showed that most of the training instructors actually knew the purposes for teaching such contents. This is because apart from 2(2.5%) of the instructors who disagreed with the statement; the rest - 78(97.5%) agreed with it. This finding attests to Cashman’s (2000) position that every instructor or learner always know the purposes for drilling or being drilled in certain aspects of the security service.

Furthermore, results from Table 6, also show that police training instructors were not involved in the allocation of time for training the new recruits. This is because apart from 1(1.3%) of the respondents who agreed with the statement that instructors are involved in the allocation of time for training recruits; 99(98.7%) of them disagreed with the statement. Again, it is clear from the results presented in Table 6, that the training instructors were not involved in the design of training programmes and selection of teaching learning resources. Responses of the interviewees however contradicted most of what was obtained through the use of the questionnaire. The interviewees had knowledge about the existence of the curricula development and Education Unit
which was the body in charge of making curricula decisions in the Ghana Police Service. According to them the curricula decision making was headed by the Director of Education who was a schedule officer in the Police Administration. The responses of the interviewees also indicated that the Police Administration involves experts from educational institutions such as the University of Cape Coast, Ghana Institute of Management and Professional Administration (GIMPA) and University of Ghana. The respondents further indicated that the curricula decision making was headed by the Commissioner Officer of Police currently in the person of Kofi Boakye. These details were however unknown to majority of the training instructors at the school.

Two simple but important deductions can be drawn from the results presented in Table 6 Firstly, it could be said that the police training instructors were not generally involved in the various processes of designing the syllabus for training new recruits on conflict and crime prevention. Secondly, the instructors did not know the specific source from which the syllabus they used came though it has been stated in the introductory section of the training syllabus that the Ghana Police Service designs the syllabus in concert with the Ministry of Education and Ghana Education Service. These two situations, could lead to instructor apathy in the police training school.
Table 7: Rank of officers who take part in curricula decision-making processes in Ghana Police Service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.G.P</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.O.P</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.C.O.P</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H.E.M.A.B</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.C.P</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012

Table 7 represents respondents’ views on the rank of officers who make decision in Ghana Police Service. Results from Table 7 show that instructors at the police training school think decision making is done by the top hierarchy of the police administration. According to them, as presented in Table 7, curricula decisions were always made by the I.G.P, C.O.P, D.C.O.P, members of the H.E.M.A.B. and A.C.P. It thus, implies that police officers who are below the ranks of those outlined in Table 7 cannot be part of any curricula decision making process. Data in Table 7 support the assertion made by the interviewees that only officers at the rank of commissioned officers or above could be made part of the curricula decision making team. Hence all training instructors who were below the rank of commissioned officers were not allowed to participate in curricula decision making processes.
Table 8: Category of training instructors in the Police Training School and their current ranks in Ghana Police Service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of instructors</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drill instructors</td>
<td>ASP</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constable</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class instructors</td>
<td>ASP</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D.S.P/SUPT.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Corporal</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inspector</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constable</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012

Table 8 presents the classes of instructors at the National Police Training school and their current positions or rank in the Police Service. From the table class instructors constituted (72.5%) of the office at the Training School. One (1.3%) of the drill instructors was at the rank ASP while 21(26.2%) were constables. Also, class instructors at the Training School formed 72.5% of the instructors in the school. From Table 8, 2(2.5%) of the class instructors in the school were at the rank of D.S.P and SUPT and 2(2.5%) were also at the rank of ASP. The class instructors were again, made up of 15 (18.7%) police corporals and 12(15%) police inspectors. Finally, 27(33.8%) of the class instructors were at the rank of an inspector.
Results in Table 8 clearly indicate that majority of the instructors at the National Police Training School, were not having higher ranks in the Police Service. Compared to the list of officers presented in Table 6, it could be said that only 5(6.3%) of the instructors at the training school qualified to be part of curricula decision making team. These percentages of instructors were all class instructors. Finally, it could be said that by the convention of the Police Administration, most (93.7%) of the instructors were not qualified to partake in curricula decision making processes because they were mostly constables, Lance corporals, corporals, sergeants, inspectors and chief inspectors. Officers in these ranks did not qualify to be part of the decision making team in the Police Administration.

The second focus of the study sought to find out some of the impact of police training instructors’ non-involvement in curriculum design on both the instructors and police recruits. Items 17 on the questionnaire were used to elicit responses from respondents. Result of responses from respondents is shown in Table 9.

From Table 9, it could be said that majority of the respondents of the questionnaire were of the view that non-involvement of training instructors in the design of the syllabus makes the work of instructors difficult. This is evident by 60(75%) of respondents who agreed with the claim “instructors find it difficult to implement what curriculum planners design for them”, as opposed to 20(25%) of the respondents who disagreed with this claim.
Table 9: Impact of the lack of instructors’ involvement in curriculum decision making on the training of recruits in conflict management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Agree F (%)</th>
<th>Disagree F (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructors find it difficult to implement what curriculum planners design for them.</td>
<td>60(75%)</td>
<td>20(25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The curriculum does not allow instructors to bring their experiences to bear on the training of recruits</td>
<td>57(66.3%)</td>
<td>27(53.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors are likely to feel that the syllabus is inferior to them because they do not directly engage in its design.</td>
<td>65(81.3%)</td>
<td>15(18.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors may need special training before they can effectively train recruits on new ideas that emanate from curriculum decisions made.</td>
<td>59(73.8%)</td>
<td>21(26.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because instructors are not involved directly in planning, their training needs may not be fully met.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because of instructors lack of involvement in curriculum planning they are unable to train recruits well</td>
<td>40(50%)</td>
<td>40(50%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012

Responses gathered through the interview also showed that training instructors are likely to face difficulties in imparting knowledge to recruits on issues that are new to them. Hence it could be said that instructors’ work of
training recruits is made difficult when curriculum planners fail to include them in the design of the syllabus for training recruits on conflict management.

On the statement “The syllabus does not allow instructors to bring their experiences to bear on the training of recruits”, only 7(8.7%) of the respondents agreed while 75(91.3%) disagreed with it. This position is in agreement with the responses from interviewees that training instructors are not forced to restrict themselves solely to demands of the syllabus for training recruits on conflict management.

Table 9, further indicates that the non-involvement of instructors negatively affect the attitude toward the training syllabus. This is because 57(66.3%) of the respondents to items on the questionnaire agreed with the statement that “instructors are likely to feel that the syllabus is inferior to them because they are not directly in its design”. However, 27(33.7%) of them disagreed with it. Data gathered through the interview also showed that police officers are divided over whether or not the non-involvement of training instructors in the design of the training syllabus affect negatively the attitude of instructors. This is because while 3 of the interviewees indicated that instructors may not to be part of such a syllabus the other 3 interviewees disagreed with this position.

Result from Table 9, shows that 65(81.3%) of the respondents think that non-involvement of instructors in the design of training syllabus create a burden of retraining officers to equip them with skills and knowledge on new ideas that emanate from curriculum decisions. However, 15(18.7%) of the respondents
disagreed with this position. Results from the interview also showed that the
respondents were generally of the view that because instructors may lack
knowledge in handling new ideas from the syllabus they need to be trained from
time to time. This finding actually supports Tamakloe (1998) assertion that
whenever authorities fail to engage instructors in the design of the syllabus it
creates an extra cost to retrain instructors.

Inability on the part of the Police Administration to provide training
logistics for instructors was another negative impact that respondents identified as
being the result of instructors non-involvement in curriculum decision making
processes. This was supported by the fact that 59(73.8%) of the respondents
agreed with the statement that “Because instructors are not involved directly in
planning, their training needs may not be fully met. However, 21(26.2%) of the
respondents disagreed. Responses from the interviewees went contrary to that
shown by majority of the respondents to the questionnaire. In the view of the
interviewees, instructors may not have problems concerning provision of training
logistics. The reason assigned to this claim was that instructors report their needs
to supervisors who in turn report to planning committee.

On the issue that non-involvement of training instructors in curriculum
planning hinder effective training of recruits; 40(50%) of the respondents agreed
while 40(50%) disagreed with this statement. Contrary to the split position held
by respondents to the questionnaire, all 6 interviewees said that instructors are
able to effectively impart knowledge and skills to respondents despite their non-
involvement in curriculum decision making process.

70
Result from the interview also showed three things that police officers think can be done to improve upon the training programmes of recruits. These were the need to include instructors in curriculum decision making instructors bringing their experiences to bear on what to teach and the need to incorporate the issues on current social, economic and political conflicts in the training of recruits.

Data gathered through the interview further showed that recruits are given training on management skills. These conflict management skills are negotiation, mediation, arbitration, facilitation, litigation avoidance and integration skills. According to the interviewees they were given training on the same skills of conflict management when they were first recruit.

Finally, responses of interviewees showed that instructors’ experiences help recruits in three major ways. It helps recruits to gain encouragement and confidence which allows recruits to gain skills and knowledge; and recruits to engage in litigation processes.

Criteria for selecting police officers who design the curriculum for training recruits in conflict and crime prevention

In all organisations there are criteria for selecting individuals for the performance of specific functions. The second objective of the study, therefore, sought to find out from respondents what served as the bases for the selection of officers into the police team that were tasked to plan and design the syllabus or curriculum for training recruits in the Ghana Police Service. Questions 15 and 16
on the questionnaire were used to source information from instructors on what serve as the bases for selecting police officers into the team that design the training school syllabus. Responses of respondents are presented in Tables 10-14. Items 6-9 on the interview guide were also used to solicit the commissioned officers views on the criteria for selecting curricula decision makers in the Police Administration.

**Table 10: Requirements for selecting Police Officers into curricula decision making team**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank in the police service</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal experience of an officer</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012

Responses of respondents as presented in Table 10 brought out three main areas as the bases for the requirement of police officers’ selection into curricula decision making team in the Ghana Police Service. These areas were the level of education, rank in the Police Service and personal experiences of an officer. From Table 10, 27(33.8%) of the instructors said that the selection of police officers into any decision making team in the Police Administration depended on the level of education. Also, the rank of police officers served as the major basis for their selection into any decision making team in the Police Administration. This claim
is evident by the fact that 45(56.2%) of the instructors pointed out the selection of police officers depends on their rank. Finally, 8(10%) of the respondents identified officers personal experiences as a major basis for their selection in the decision making team in the Ghana Police Service. Responses from the commission officers further confirmed the views shared by the various training instructors because the commissioners identified the level of education, rank and personal experiences. In addition, professional training in education is used as the bases for selecting individuals to be included in decision making teams.

Per the convention in the Police Administration, apart from an officer rising to the high ranks through the number of years served, high offices and ranks in the Police Administration are generally occupied by officers who have attained a higher level of education, at least a minimum of a university degree. This means any police officer who has not attained higher education cannot rise to occupy certain high officers like the C.O.P and I.G.P. As was evident in the responses of the interviewees, all of the two commission officers had post graduate degree. Based on the information provided in Table 10, it can be said that most of the instructors at the National Police Training School did not qualify to be part of the curricula decision making team. The reason for this claim is that the respondents identified an officer’s rank as major basis for selecting him or her into any decision making team. Earlier data provided in Table 10 showed that only three (6.3%) of the instructors were at the ranks of D.C.O.P and C.O.P. This means the rest were having ranks below what could qualify them to partake in curricula decision making processes.
A simple deduction from the results and analyses made so far showed that because of the use of ranks as the yardstick for selecting officers into decision making teams, most training instructors are always denied the opportunity for bringing their experiences to bear on what recruits learn at the police training school. This finding explains why Adabo (2009) commented that certain principles and conventions in Ghanaian education institutions always hinder the teacher or instructor from partaking in curricula decision making processes. Discussions with the interviewees further showed on how curricula decision making teams are formed in the Police Administration. From their point of view, curricula decision making teams were formed under the commissioner of planning and man-power. The commissioner selects members from the planning department, education department, police training college and other educational institutions to form the curricula-decision making team. On the mode of selection, it was discovered that apart from those selected from outside the police administration, all qualified police officers had to apply to be part of the decision making team. Successful applicants were then taken through some series of training exercise before being made part of the team. However, there were those who were automatic members of the curricula decision making team. That is the commissioners of planning, commanding officers at the Police Training School and Inspector General of Police (IGP) automatically qualified to be part of the decision making team. The main reason for the automatic qualification as revealed by the responses of respondents was their rank in the police service. Data from the discussions with the interviewees also indicated that qualification into
curricula decision making team was predetermined and defined by the 1992 constitutional instrument (CI) 75 and that no police officer had control over it. This means before the basis for selection could be changed, there need to be a constitutional amendment. This partly explains why many of the training instructors are unable to take part in the curricula decision making processes.

Table 11: Factors training instructors think need to be considered when selecting Police Officers into curricula decision making team

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The purpose of training programme to be considered</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge and experiences of officers in education</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge and experiences of officers in handling conflict and crime in society.</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The type of curricula programme to be designed</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012

Respondents were again required to state what they think the Police Administration should consider before selecting officers into curriculum decision making team for the Ghana Police Training school. Respondents’ responses are presented in Table 11. The suggestions of police training instructors centered
mainly on four issues: purpose of training programme, knowledge and experiences of police officers and the type of curriculum or syllabus to be designed. From Table 10, it is obvious that 25 (31.3%) of the instructors at the National Police Training school wanted the selection of officers to be based on the purpose for which the given training programmes are designed as a factor which should be considered before selecting police officers in curricular decision making teams.

The result in Table 11 further shows that training instructors at the Police Training School consider the criteria which the police administration uses in selecting officers for the design of the training school syllabus not helpful because such criteria always exempt them from participating in curricula decision making processes. Another thing which comes out of the instructors’ suggestions is that, they want the planning and design of the syllabus for the training school to be based on the practical experiences of officers in the Police Service. According to Henderson (1997), teachers or instructors often feel happy and committed when they are made to implement contents and programmes that reflect their experiences and needs of their country. Hence there is little need for the police administration to duel much on the ranks of officers in selecting curriculum planners for the Police Training School in Ghana.

Many factors account for police training instructors’ failure to participate in curricula decision making processes in the Ghana Police Services. Common among these factors are lack of interest, use of ranks as criterion for selecting officers and lack of transparency in the selection process. The focus of research
question three was to find out the various factors that prevent police training instructors from partaking in the planning and designing of syllabus for training recruits on conflict and crime prevention. Research question 13 on the questionnaire was used to source respondents views on what prevent them from taking part in curricula decision making. Table 12 presents respondents’ responses.

Table 12: Factors responsible for training instructors’ non-participation in curricula decision making processes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The use of officers’ rank as a criterion for selection</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>48.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of educational qualification</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autocracy on the part of the top hierarchy of the Ghana Police Service</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of interest in curricula decision making processes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate financial support for officers who participate in curricula decision making</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress and pressure on instructors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of transparency in the selection process</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012
From Table 12, the use of officers rank as a criterion for selection, lack of educational qualification, autocracy on the part of the top hierarchy in the Ghana Police Service, lack of interest in curricula decision making processes, too much stress or pressure on instructors and lack of transparency in the selection process were identified by instructors at the National Police Training School as the primary causes for their non-participation in curricula decision making processes. However, results from the discussions with the interviewees attributed instructors’ non-participation in curricula decision making processes to only a single factor-the use of rank of officers as the basis or selection.

Responses from instructors showed that they were of view that the use of ranks to select decision makers always denies them the opportunity to take part in planning and designing the syllabus for the training school. This is evident by fact that 39 (48.7%) of the instructors stated in categorical terms that their failure to be part of the decision making team was based on the fact that their ranks in the police administration do not qualify them. Also while 10 (12.5%) of the respondents attributed their inability to partake in curricula decision making process to lack of educational qualification; 8 (10%) of them said it was due to autocracy on the part of the top hierarchy in the administration. These findings rally confirm Hilton (1971) assertion that the criteria for selecting security officers to take decisions often disallow those who have the ability, knowledge and experience to be part of such decision making bodies. In this case what mainly prevents police training instructors is the use of ranks.
Furthermore, the results in Table 12 reveals that instructor at the National Police Training School considered lack of interest on the part of some instructors and inadequate financial support as two main causes for their non-participation in the planning and design of the syllabus for training new recruits. From Table 12, while 4 (5%) stated that their non-participation was caused by lack of interest on their part; 13 (16.3%) of them attributed their failure to partake in decision making processes to inadequate financial support. Also, although it is generally known that the police is very hectic and stressful; only a few (1.3%) of the instructors attributed their non-participation to excessive stress and pressure from the work they do. This means but for other factors such as the use of ranks as criterion for selection, lack of interest, among others, many police training instructors would have preferred being part of the curricula decision-making team. Finally, result in Table 12 shows that 5 (6.2%) of the instructors at the National Police Training School attributed their failure to partake in curricula decision making processes to the lack of transparency in the selection of officers.

Three main inferences can be drawn from the result presented in Table 12. Firstly, instructors at the training school do not generally think that the rank of officers should be used as the bases for selecting police officers who design the syllabus for the Police Training School. Secondly, instructors at the training school think there is the need for more transparency in the selection of officers into decision making teams. Finally, some of the training instructors have developed dislike for curricular decision making processes because of autocracy.
on the part of officer in higher authority and lack of financial support for officers who take decisions.

**Perception of Police Training Instructors about the processes of making curricula decisions for training recruits**

Human beings in all institutions have their perceptions about what goes on at where they are. These perceptions go a longer way to define their attitude towards the institutions they belong to. The focus of research questions four was therefore to find out the perceptions of police training instructors about curricula decision making processes in the Police Administration. Question 14 on the questionnaire was used to elicit response from workers about their perceptions. The result of respondents responses are presented in Table 13.

Respondents perceptions as revealed by the data collected centered on five main areas. These were inaccuracy in the selection system, need for modifications in the syllabus, lack of transparency and the nature of the contents in the syllabus. The fifth centered on whether contents in the training syllabus reflected the learning needs of learners. From Table 12, it can be said that 31 (38.8%) of the instructors perceived the current methods of selecting officers into curricula decision making team in the Police Administration to be quite inappropriate. Aside this, 15 (18.7%) held the view that the Police Administration had to make modification in the curricula decisions that are already in operation.
Table 13: Perception of Police Training Instructors about the processes of making curricula decisions for training recruits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception/ statement</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The current methods of selecting officers is inappropriate</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curricula decisions already in operation need modification</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is lack of transparency in the process of selection</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The exemption of low rank officers from decision making team does not ensure efficiency</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contents in the syllabus generally reflect the learning needs of recruits</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012

These two lapses in the processes of curricula planning and designing of syllabus for the training of new police recruits; as perceived by instructors at the National Training School, clearly show that as far as curricula decision making is concerned, instructors who are the implementers of those decisions think there is the need for changes in the methods of decision making. According to Goodlad (1956), a surest way to effectively organize the curriculum for learning in any educational institution is to involve the implementers of the curricula in all decisions that lead to its creation. Another negative perception which was held by instructors was that there was lack of transparency in the process of selecting members to form curricula decision making team. This is evident by the 12 (15%)
of the instructors who stated that there was lack of transparency in the process of selecting police officers to take curricula decisions for the training of new recruits in conflict and crime prevention.

Furthermore, 10 (12.6%) of the respondents perceived the practice in which the Police Administration exempt junior staff or officers from taking part in decision to be a major catalyst of inefficiency in the Police Service. These sentiments shared by the instructors however contradicted the views of the interviewees. In the opinion of the interviews, instructors were fully motivated to partake in the decision making team. The reason for this position was that the police administration pays attractive allowances to workers and makes the decision making processes open to all. One view of the interviewees however was in agreement with that shared by the training instructors. That is the claim that the rank of police officers deprived training instructors from being part of the decision making team. According to the interviewees, the use of the rank has two negative effects on the curricula decision making process. Firstly, it does not allow experienced police officers with lower ranks to take part in curricula decision making processes. Secondly, the practice in which retired officers are not allowed to be part of the decision making team also does not allow such individuals to bring their experiences to bear on the decision making processes.

Data gathered shows that it takes a longer time-20 years of service or above before one can rise to the rank of a Commissioned officer. Before attaining this rank, an officer might have almost reached the retirement age. Hence irrespective of his or her experience he or she may not be able to take part in the decision
making process. However, 12 (15%) of the instructors considered some of the contents outlined in the syllabus to be a true reflection of what the new recruits need to learn or undergo through.

Two deductions can be drawn from the results presented in table 12. Firstly, police training instructors at the Training School generally perceived the processes and procedures for designing the curriculum or syllabus for training recruits in crime and conflict management to be inappropriate. This perception is the result of the continuous exemption of instructors from decision making processes. Secondly, although training instructors at the police training school perceived some of the contents outlined in the syllabus for training new recruits to be necessary for the preparation of trainees, they considered the entire process of designing the syllabus as something that needed to be reviewed to reflect current needs of the police service.

Ways to improve Police Training Instructors’ participation in curriculum decision making on crime and conflict prevention

The fourth objective for the study sought to find ways through which police training instructors could be encouraged to fully participate in curriculum decision making process. According Adabo (2009) and Tamakloe (1998) teachers or instructors tend to accept responsibility for what they implement when their views are recognized. Hence the need to find out from the police training instructors the best ways to encourage instructor participation in decision making.
Question 15 on the questionnaire was used to elicit response from respondents. Respondent’s responses are therefore presented in Table 14.

**Table 14: Suggested strategies to improve instructor participation in the design of syllabus for the Training of Police recruits**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Police Administration must involve only experts in specific security matters in the design of training syllabus</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisions taken by officials must be based on the established laws and conventions of Ghana</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much emphasis should be based on practical measures of resolving crime and conflict</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision making processes must be open to all instructors in the police training school</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractive allowance should be paid promptly to officers who take part in curriculum planning or design</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seminars should be organized to train police training instructors on ways of designing syllabus or curriculum for recruits.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field survey, 2012
Table 14 presents the ways instructors at the National Police Training School think the Police Administration need to employ in order to encourage training instructors to participate in curricula decision making processes. The suggestions made by the workers basically centered on the need to involve only security experts in curriculum decision processes, making decisions based on establish conventions, placing emphasis on practical measures and making the decision making- process very open to all. From Table 14, seventeen (21.2%) of the instructors thought that the management of the Ghana Police Service must involve only experts in specific matters in the design of the syllabus for the training of recruits.

Aside this, 14 (17.5) of the respondents held the view that the Police Administration need to base all contents to be outlined for the training of recruits on the established conventions and laws of Ghana. This suggestion from the instructors goes to support Snyder’s (1985) opinion that security operation designs that were not couched out of the traditions and laws of the land where they are to be used cannot stand the test of time. This simply implies that if the police administration in Ghana does not base the training programmes for new recruits on the security needs of Ghana, the training exercises will never yield any better fruit.

In addition, while 19 (23.8%) of the instructors suggested that the training programmes should be based on practical crime and conflict resolution measures, 10 (12.5) of them wanted the programmes to be more open to all police training instructors. This finding clearly demonstrates that there is not much transparency
in the processes through which the Police Administration designs training syllabus for new police recruits in Ghana. According to Walker (1977), one of the primary concerns of every worker is to secure remunerations which can enable him or her to make ends meet. It was therefore not out of place when 12 (15%) of the training instructors suggested that the police administration must promptly pay attractive allowances to officers who take part in the design of the police training school syllabus. This will go a long way to boost the morale of the instructors to actively partake in the decision making process. Finally, 8(10%) of the instructors suggested the Ghana Police Service should organize seminars or in-service training on how to design training syllabus for the instructors at the various police training schools. In-service training as generally known helps to improve the knowledge, understanding and experiences of people. In the view of the commission officers who were interviewed, the curricula decision making processes could be made more efficient by lowering the ranking system so as to allow knowledgeable and experienced training instructors who are at lower ranks to partake in the decision making process. They also suggested that the police administration create the opportunity for retired officers to be made part of the curricula decision making team and finally called on the government to improve the training facilities to meet modern and international standard.

The results in Table 14 demonstrate that the administrative machinery of the Ghana Police Service as a security institution needs to adopt pragmatic interventions such as the use of security experts in planning for the agency’s training programmes, ensuring transparency in the processes of designing their
training syllabus, paying attractive allowances to instructors and organizing seminars for instructors. One simple inference to be drawn from the instructor’s suggestions is that the instructors at the police training school think the Ghana Police Service needs to adopt more pragmatic measures in the planning and designing of training syllabus for new recruits than it currently uses. The reason for this inference is that although some of the training instructors said certain aspects of current syllabus reflect the learning needs of recruits, most of them generally; think that the policy agency will have to make the process of designing the police training syllabus more transparent to the police training instructors.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The concluding chapter of this study consists of a summary of the findings and the discussions presented in chapter four. In addition, it highlights the critical lessons drawn from the study. The chapter ends with recommendations aimed at improving police training instructors’ participation in curricula decision making processes for the training of new recruits. The study examined police training instructors’ participation in curricula decision-making on conflict and crime prevention in Ghana. Questionnaires and interview guide were used to elicit responses from the 80 training instructors at the National Police School. The summarized findings, conclusions and recommendations are presented in the ensuing sections.

Summary

The study found out that most of the training instructors at the National Police Training School are either in the junior ranks or middle ranks. For instance, most of them are at the ranks of corporal, sergeant inspectors and superintendent of police. Majority of these junior rank officers were drill instructors. Only one of them was at the rank of A.S.P.

It was also discovered that the police administration depends on the high ranking police officers in all their decision making processes. Usually, decisions in the police service are taken by officers who occupy positions such as I.G.P.,
C.O.P., D.C.O.P, A.C.P, HEMAB or usually called schedule officers and members of the police council. It therefore follows that, by the convention of using higher rank police officers to take decisions, all curricula decisions of the Police Training School were taken by the high ranking officers in the police service. Hence, it could be said that because most of the instructors at the police training school are at the junior ranks, they could not take part in curricula decisions making processes. The study also found out that instructors at the National Police Training School do not know the specific institution or officers who are in charge of designing syllabus for training recruits on conflict and crime management. Only the commissioner of police and commanding officers at the National Police Training School were aware of the existence of the curricula decision making team in the police administration.

The lack of knowledge about the source of the training syllabus and the instructors’ inability to contribute to the planning and design of the police training syllabus often make the instructors delineate themselves from the impact that trainees undergo at the Police Training School.

The study revealed that the non-involvement of training instructors in curriculum decision making on conflict management negatively affects the work of instructors to impart knowledge and skills because they have to go through the strain of being retrained on how to implement new decisions that emanate from the syllabus. Secondly it makes instructors develop negative attitude toward the syllabus because they see it as a form of power imposition on them. Finally, the non-involvement of instructors also lead to the inability of the police
administration to know the training logistic needs of instructors that militates against effective teaching and learning at the Police Training School.

The study further showed that police recruits are trained on conflict management skills in areas such as conflict arbitration, conflict mediation,legation and negotiation process. Though these skills were taught to instructors when they were in the Police Training School, the experiences they have gained from the field has given them more knowledge and understanding about these processes and skills of conflict management. It is these practical experiences that help instructors to impart knowledge on conflict management and repose confidence in the police recruits.

In relation to what instructors and other police officers wish to do to help improve the training system in the Police Training School, the study revealed that police officers generally want the police administration to incorporate issues bordering on current social, economic and political affairs in the training of recruits on conflict management.

The study identified seven principal factors that were responsible for police training instructors’ non-participation in curricula decision making processes. These factors were the use of officers’ ranks as a basis for selection, lack of educational qualification, autocracy on the part of the police administration, lack of interest in curricula decision making processes, inadequate financial support, stress and pressure on training instructors and lack of transparency in the selection processes. These factors have led to the training
instructors’ inability to contribute meaningfully to the decision-making processes in the police training school.

In relation to perceptions held by police training instructors, the study found out instructors in the police training school were of the view that their exclusion from curricula decision making processes in the Training School does not auger well for the training of fresh police recruits. In their opinion therefore, a modification of the selection processes and transparency in the activities of the police administration would be very helpful as far as training of recruits is concerned.

Finally, it was found out that the instructors at the Police Training School wanted all curricula decisions taken by authorities to be based on the established laws of Ghana but not on the conventions in the Police Administration. It was also suggested by training instructors that the designers of the police training syllabus design programmes that reflect the current security needs of the nation (Ghana). Some of the officers also wanted the inclusion of retired police officers in the curricula decision making process. Lastly, it came out that the training instructors wanted the Ghana Police Service to organize in-service training for them so as to help them improve upon their knowledge in the design of the syllabus for training recruits on conflict and crime management.

Conclusions

The study concluded that in the Ghana Police Service, training instructors are not generally allowed to participate in curricula decision processes because of
the police administration’s practice of using only high ranking, lack of transparency in the selection of team members, excessive pressure and stress on instructors and autocracy on the part of the Police Administration. These factors actually made it difficult for the training instructors to bring their experiences to bear on the design of the syllabus for training new recruits.

In relation to the impact of instructors’ non-involvement in curriculum decision making the study concluded that the practice of exempting training instructors affects the instructors, recruits and the Police Administration in different ways. On the part of the instructors, they develop negative attitude toward the syllabus they are to implement because they consider it to be inferior. The police administration on the other hand is always faced with the challenge of retraining instructors on how to handle new ideas that emanate from the syllabus. Due to these negative effects, the instructors are unable to effectively train recruits on conflict management.

The study also concluded that the training instructors do not, generally accept the practice of using only higher rank officers in decision making process. A recommendation by the instructors that the Police Administration need to involve only experts in specific security matters in the design of the syllabus for training recruits clearly demonstrate that the instructors are of the opinion that not all high rank officers have expertise in the design of the training school syllabus. Another conclusion drawn from the study was that the curricula processes embarked on by the police administration should be made open to all training instructors and the various authorities in charge of designing the syllabus should
also be made public to the various training instructors so that they can pass useful information to them (the designers).

As far as the perceptions of instructors were concerned, it was concluded that many of the instructors have some negative reservations about the processes for designing the police training syllabus. To some, the syllabus is inferior because they do not know its source. Also, some of them thought they were not given the opportunity to contribute to the design of the syllabus. Hence, though the instructors were aware of the objectives of the training programmes, they thought the way the syllabus was designed, could not easily lead to the attainment of the training schools’ goals and objectives.

Finally, the study concluded that though the training instructors generally accept the effort of the Police Administration in designing training programmes for new police recruits, they wanted the Ghana Police Service to adopt pragmatic measures such as payment of attractive allowances to those who partake in the design of the training syllabus, organizing seminars for instructors, and ensuring transparency in the design of the training syllabus. These were what according to the views of the instructors could help to make the processes of designing training programmes for new recruits very efficient.

**Recommendations**

In view of the findings and conclusions outlined, the following recommendations were made:
• The Ghana Police Service must make the processes for designing its training schools’ syllabus transparent.

• The Ghana Police Service should also involve training instructors in the various processes for designing the syllabus for the training school.

• Instructors must inform the Police Administration about all the challenges they face in the course of carrying out their duties and must fully accept the syllabus for training recruits. Also, instructors must blend contents outlined in the syllabus with current social, political and economic issues when training recruits on conflict management.

• Measures should also be taken to reduce the problems of lack of financial support for officers who participate in curricula decision making.

• The Ghana Police Service must endeavour to review its current training syllabus to meet modern security needs of Ghanaians.

• The Ghana Police Service must not use the rank of officers as the basis for selecting officers to design syllabus for the training school.

• The Ghana Police Service must organize more in-service training for instructors at the various Police Training Schools so as to equip them with skills and knowledge on how to design syllabus for training recruits.
REFERENCES


APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR POLICE TRAINING INSTRUCTORS

Dear Sir/Madam,

The items in this questionnaire are being used purposely for research work on the topic “Police Training Instructor’s Participation in Curricula Decision-Making on Conflict and Crime Prevention in Ghana”. You will be contributing greatly towards the improvement of the teaching and learning of police recruits at the Police Training School and also help in making the decision making processes on crime and conflict prevention very effective. Please candidly answer the questions. Your name is not required and any information given will be treated as confidential.

Section A: Demographic data

Instruction: Please tick [ ] the appropriate box [   ] or column, or write in the blank spaces were possible.

1. Name of police training institution…………………………………………

2. Sex

Male [   ]

Female [   ]

3. Age: Below 24 years [   ]

24 – 30 years [   ]
31 – 37 years [  ]
38 – 44 years [  ]
45 – 51 years [  ]
52 – 58 years [  ]

4. Marital status: single [  ]
   Married [  ]

5. Rank in the police service

6. Highest educational qualification…………………………………………………………

7. How long have you been working with the Ghana Police Service?
Less than 3 years [  ]
3 – 8 years [  ]
9 – 14 years [  ]
15 – 20 years [  ]
21 – 26 years [  ]
27 years and above [  ]

Section B: Curricular: Decision-Making Structure in Ghana Police Service

Please tick [ √ ] the appropriate column to indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement to each of the statements under item 9. Each statement centres’ on what instructors are generally expected to know about the processes and structures for design of the syllabus for training recruits.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ghana Police Service has laid down structures for curricula decision making.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors are unaware of how contents for training recruits are selected or designed.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors are always informed about changes effected in the training syllabus.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors are aware of the purpose of specific contents in the training syllabus.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors are involved in the allocation of time for training recruits.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection of training programs and teaching learning resources are based on the recommendations of instructors.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. The lists below are ranks of officers in the Ghana Police Service. Which of these rank of officers in your own assessment forms part of decision-making team in the police services, Please tick to indicate your choice.

   i. I.G P  
   ii. C.O.P  
   iii. D.C.O.P  
   iv. A.S.P  
   v. H.E.M.A.B  
   vi. Sergeant  
   vii. Superintendent  
   viii. Corporal  
   ix. Lance corporal  
   x. Constable  

10. Please tick [ √ ] to indicate which category of training instructors you fall under.

   i. Drill instructors  
   ii. Class instructors  

11. State your current rank in the police service ………………………

Section C: Negative impacts of police training instructors’ non-involvement in curriculum decision-making on the training of recruits in conflict management
Impacts of the lack of involvement of police training instructors in curriculum decision making on the training of recruits on conflict management

12. Please tick [✓] the appropriate column to indicate whether or not you agree with each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructors find it difficult to implement what curriculum planners design for them.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The curriculum does not allow instructors to bring their experiences to bear on the training of recruits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors are likely to feel that the syllabus is inferior to them because they do not directly engage in its design</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors may need special training before they can effectively train recruits on new ideas of conflict management.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because instructors are not involved directly in planning, their training needs may not be fully met.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementing new ideas is always difficult for instructors.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because of instructors’ lack of involvement in curriculum planning, they are unable to train recruits well.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Section D: Criteria for selecting police officers who plan the training curriculum and design syllabus for training recruits on conflict and crime prevention**
13. Tick to indicate which of the following serve as the requirement for qualifying to be part of the team that design the curriculum and syllabus for training recruits on crime and conflict prevention in Ghana.

i. Level of education

ii. Rank in the police service

iii. Amount of salary

iv. Area of jurisdiction

v. Number of promotions

vi. Tenure of service / office

vii. Age of an officer

viii. Gender of an officer

ix. Personal experiences of an officer

x. Religious background of an officer

14. State what in your own assessment the police administration should consider when selecting police officers into curricular decision-making teams.

Section E: Factors that influence low participation of police training instructors in the design of the syllabus for training recruits on conflict and crime management

15. State some of the factors you think prevent police training instructors from taking part in the design of syllabus for training recruits.

i. ....................................................................................................................
Section F: Perceptions of police training instructors about the processes of making curricula decisions in the police service

16. State your view(s) about the processes through which the Ghana Police Service design curriculum and syllabus for the training of recruits.

Section G: Ways to improve police training instructors participation in curricula decision making on conflict and crime prevention or management

17. Suggest ways or measures which in your own assessment can be used to improve the participation of instructors in curricular decision making and the design of the training school’s syllabus.

……………………………………………………………………………………………………
APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SENIOR POLICE OFFICERS

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to obtain information on the curricula decision-making structures that exist in the police training school in Ghana, criterion for selecting police officers to take curriculum decisions, factors that influence how participation of police training instructors affects curricula decision making processes and the perception of police training instructors on the processes of designing training syllabus for recruits. The study also seeks to find out appropriate ways of improving instructor participation in curricula decision-making in the police service in Ghana. The study is basically for academic purpose and therefore you are assured of confidentiality and anonymity in any information that you provide. I am interested in your comments: both positive and negative, there are no right or wrong answers. To enable me record all comments, I crave your indulgence to use a tape recorder to record the discussion which will take about an hour.

General information

Gender Male [ ]
Female [ ]
Section A: Curricula decision-making structures that exist in the police training school in Ghana

1. What curricula decision-making structures exist in the police administration?
   Probe: Probe to find out the specific bodies within the police administration that are in charge of making curricula decisions
   Examples: Name some of the institutions within the police service that have the mandate to make curricula decisions
   • Does the police administration involve institutions that are found outside the police service to make curricula decisions?
   • Name them if any.

2. Who supervise the institution or bodies that make curricula-decision in the police service?

3. What is the nature of the structure for making curricula decisions in the police administration?
   Probe: Probe further to ascertain how these structures are used to make curricula decisions.
   Example: How do the members in the curricula decision-making team take decisions?
   • Do they do it through conference meeting?
   • Do participants send their views through letters, internet or via phone calls?
   • How open are the processes of making decision to other police officers?
4. Who heads the various decision making-structures in the police administration?

5. What is the rank of the head?

**Section B: Criteria for selecting police officers who make curricula decisions for training police recruits**

6. What criteria does the police administration use in selecting police officers to make curricula decisions?
   
   Probe: Probe to find out how they select curricula planners in the police administration
   
   Example: What are some of the requirements for being part of the curricula decision making team?
   
   - What educational qualification will qualify officers to be selected?
   
   - What other requirements are often selected?

7. What modalities or procedures are used in selecting police officers to form the curriculum decision-making team
   
   Probe: Probe to find out how the police officers are selected
   
   - Are they selected randomly?
   
   - Are they selected purposively?
   
   - Are there individuals who have automatic qualification?
   
   - If there is any group of persons who qualify automatically, indicate their ranks or position in the police administration.
   
   - Give reasons for their qualification.
8. Who determines who qualifies to be part of the curricula decision making?

9. What factors influence the selection of police officers into the curricula decision making team?

   Probe: Probe to find out if the selection is influenced by any of the following:
   
   - The type of training programme
   - The purpose of the training
   - Availability of human and material resources
   - The time and duration of training programme.

Section C: Factors that influence low participation of training instructors in the design of the syllabus for training recruits on conflict and crime management

10. What in your view prevent police training instructors from taking part in curricula decision-making for the police training school?

    Probe: Probe to examine some of the factors that militate against instructor’s chance of participation in curricula decision-making processes.

    Example: Do training instructors have the requisite qualification for being part of the decision making team.
    
    - Are they limited by lack of time?
    - Are they limited by lack of expertise?
    - Are the motivated enough to partake in the decision making process?
11. What are the practices and conventions in the police administration that tend to prevent training instructors from taking part in curricula decision making process?

Section D: Perceptions of police training instructors about the processes of making curricula decisions in the police service

12. What are your general impressions of views about the processes of making curricula decision for training recruits in the Ghana Police Services?

Probe: Probe to find out what officers think about the curricula decision making processes.

Examples:

- Are the processes open to all?
- Are the processes very effective and efficient?
- Do the processes require many improvements?

13. Which areas or aspects of the curricula decision-making processes need to be improved?

14. Which group or class officers do you think should be involved in the curriculum decision making processes?

15. What ways do you think can be used to improve police training instructors’ participation in the processes of planning and designing the curriculum for training recruits on conflict and crime management?
Section E: Impacts of the lack of the non-involvement of police training instructors in curriculum decision making for the training of recruits on conflict management skills

16. What in your opinion are the effects of the lack of involvement of training instructors in curricular decision making on the instructors themselves.

**Probe:** Probe to find out some of the challenges instructors face in the training of recruits as a result of their non-involvement.

Example:

- Are they forced to implement decisions?
- Do they feel alienated from the decision making processes for the design of curriculum for training recruits?
- Do they feel motivated to implement decisions whose formulation they were not part?
- Do they have to be given in-service training before they can effectively implement curricular decisions?
- Are instructors able to obtain requisite training materials?

17. What in your estimation are/is the impact(s) of training instructors’ non-involvement in curricular decision making on recruits acquisition of conflict management skills?

**Probe:** Probe to find out how instructors non-involvement impact on the skills, knowledge and understanding of recruits in conflict management.

Example:
• Are instructors able to impart appropriate knowledge as described by the training syllabus?

• Are instructors able to equip recruits with conflict management skills?

• Are instructors able to help recruits to understand the processes and technicalities involved in managing conflict?

• Are recruits able to apply the skills and knowledge they acquire?

Giving the chance to train recruits what innovations would you make to better the training of recruits on conflict management?

18. What conflict management skills are taught to recruits in the course of their training?

19. What conflict management skills were you taught at the time you were in training school?

20. How does your skill in conflict management impact on the training of recruits?