

**DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION AND HUMAN RESOURCE
STUDIES**

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

**DEVELOPMENT OF MANAGERIAL COMPETENCIES FOR
ACADEMIC LEADERSHIP: EXPERIENCES OF HEADS OF
DEPARTMENTS OF SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA**

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**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA,
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DECLARATION

I, Victoria Mwinsumah Kunbour, hereby declare that except for references cited in this thesis which have been duly acknowledged, this research was conducted by me personally over a period of three years under the supervision of Prof. John Boateng, Prof. Michael Ayitey Tagoe and Dr. Abigail Aryeh-Adjei all of the University of Ghana, Legon.

This thesis has neither in part, nor as a whole, ever been for award of degree in this University or any university elsewhere. All references used in the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

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DEDICATION

To my family who supported me with prayers and encouragement, especially Dr. Benjamin Bewanyog Kunbuor my husband, my cheerleaders, Benjamin Besegni Kunbuor Jnr my son, and Benedicata Mwinkuma Saayir-fang Kunbuor my daughter; Juliet Derpog my niece who supported in taking care of my home during period of this study.



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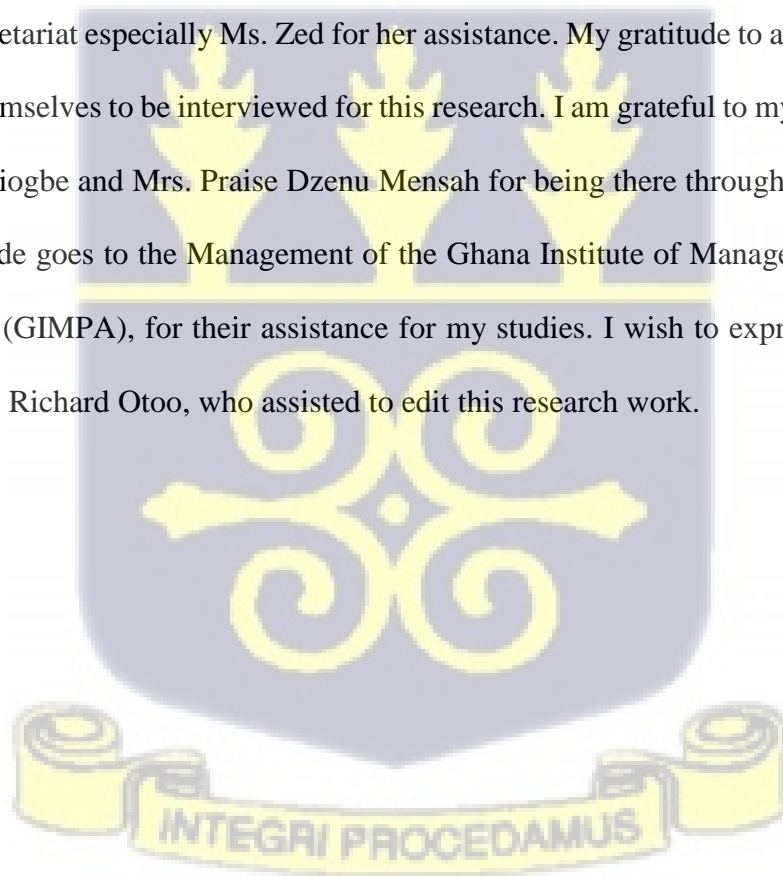


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ACRONYMS

| | |
|--------|---|
| EHC | Ethical Committee for Humanities |
| GIMPA | Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration |
| GTEC | Ghana Tertiary Education Commission |
| HEIs | Higher Education Institution |
| HoD | Head of Department |
| HRM | Human Resource Management |
| KNUST | Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology |
| NCVQ | National Council for Vocational Qualifications |
| NSSB | National Skills Standards Board |
| PANGeA | Pan African Next Generation of Academics |
| UG | University of Ghana |
| UCC | University of Cape Coast |



VVU Valley View University

ZCD Zone of Current Development

ZPD Zone of Proximal Development



ABSTRACT

The academic department is the focal point where the management and administration of academic work are done in the university. The Head of Department (HoD) also known as academic chair has the key responsibility to lead and manage the academic activities as well as faculty, students, and administrative support staff effectively to contribute to the success of the business of the university. It is in this regard that the issue of leadership and managerial capacity of academics who assume the role of HoD is not only important but also should be of interest to higher education administration. The study sought to find out the managerial competencies required for the effective performance of the core duties involved in the role of HoD as well as the strategies used to prepare academics for the role in public and private universities in Ghana. Theoretically, the study was underpinned by Vygotsky's social-cultural theory of learning specifically, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). It adopted a qualitative research approach and collective case study design. The study population comprised HoDs in one public university, the University of Ghana, and one private university, Valley View University, a representative of the human resource department of each of the two universities selected, and a representative of the Ghana Tertiary Education Council (GTEC). A total of thirteen (13) respondents were sampled for the study. Purposive sampling was used to select the participants. An interview guide was employed as a data collection instrument for the research. The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The thematic analysis method was used to analyse the data. The study found that the core duties involved in the role of HoD were in two broad categories of academic and managerial and a mix of competencies were required for the effective performance of the job. The universities had specified criteria for the academic competencies for the appointment of the HoD i.e., academic qualification, rank and university

experience. However, there were no clear managerial competencies criteria for the role. Though the universities had some strategies i.e., serving on committees, informal mentorship and orientation, for the development of the managerial competencies of academics, the approach was mostly unstructured and unplanned. The orientation programme which usually planned last not more than five days. The study recommends that the criteria and appointment processes of HoD should pay equal attention to the academic and managerial competencies required for the leadership role of HoD to ensure effective performance. It further recommends that universities should adopt an ongoing planned and blended approach comprising experiential and formal learning for the development of the managerial and leadership competencies of academics. This will help to create a pool of competent persons to select from to occupy the role of HoD whenever a vacancy falls.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of studies

This chapter presents a background and sets the context for the study by providing an overview of the challenges of institutions of higher learning in recent times, generally, and the need for universities to equip academics with the relevant managerial and leadership competencies for the effective performance of academic leadership roles particularly at departmental level where the core of the business of the university is done. It highlights the seeming lack of structured approach used by the university to prepare academics for a formal leadership role in the management of academic department which informed the central research problem that is, to find out how selected universities in Ghana developed the managerial capabilities of academics for the position of head of the department. The chapter also indicates the purpose of the study, methodology used, the significance of the study in terms of contribution to knowledge, policy, and practice of academic leadership development in higher education institutions (HEIs) in Ghana.

Higher education institutions, globally, have experienced some major challenges in recent times due to forces of globalization. Universities in Africa grapple with chronic challenges including globalization, dwindling state funding, demand for increased access to affordable quality education, the emergence of a knowledge-driven society, increased privatization and marketization, use of technology resulting in the massification of university education, internationalization, and inadequate collaboration between university and industry (Shabani et al., 2014; Mohamedbhai, 2014; Teferra, 2013; Zomer & Benneworth, 2011; Sawyer, 2004). The complexity of the demands on HEIs has necessitated some significant reforms in the management of universities where leaders are expected to steer their institutions in novel

directions, including adopting business approaches in an environment that traditionally runs on administrative systems that value creativity, independent thought, and diversity of interest and collegiate decision-making process (Degn, 2015; Davies, Hides & Casey, 2001; Middlehurst, 1993), a change from a predominant culture of administration to management (Clegg & McAuley, 2005; Amey, 2006). Commenting on the significant change in the management of higher education institutions Bolden et al (2012) noted that:

“Up to the mid-1980s the management of universities was generally based upon a collegial’ approach, with decision making in the hands of academic staff with little or no management expertise or training and implemented by a corps of professional administrators who had limited input into the decision-making process. Since then, however, there has been a steady trend towards more business-like ‘corporate’ or ‘entrepreneurial’ approaches to leadership and management in universities, an accompanying professionalization of the management and leadership functions, and the growth of hybrid academic administrative roles.” (p.8).

Indeed, the complexity of the demands of contemporary higher learning institutions suggests that academics who are “appointed into managerial leadership roles should have skills including people-management skills, communication skills and influencing skill” (Spendlove, 2007 p.407). The reason is that “successful functioning of the universities and maintaining their competitive advantage highly relies on the institutional-level governance and the capacities of academic leaders at all levels to produce relevant responses, work coherently, and ensure trustworthiness and transparency in their practices and communications” (Zhu & Zaymi-Kurtay, 2018, p.435). The importance of professional development to strengthen capacity for academic leadership has been underscored by Lefoe, Smigiel, and Parrish (2007) who posit that it should be pursued as part of deliberate leadership capacity building programmes. Similarly, Lashway, Mazzarella, and Grundy (2006) stress the fact that some systems and

procedures are unique to every work and those who perform them should have the competencies to implement them developed through formal professional programmes, especially for persons in management of educational institutions. However, Spendlove (2007) suggests that universities do not have a methodical way of identifying or developing the leadership skills of academics for administrative and managerial positions. The situation raises concerns about the capacity of leadership of universities for effective performance especially as universities do seem to have a preference for appointing senior academics from within to leadership positions, persons who may not have the requisite competencies to manage operations effectively (Bargh et al., 2000). To have a suitable human resource, Bisebee (2007) opines that “programmes can be developed to better meet these challenges. Individuals can be identified earlier and provided with targeted and focused leadership development activities for meaningful training that is applicable and timely for future leaders.” (Bisebee, 2007, p.77).

The need for a structured approach to building capacity for academic leadership at the departmental level, in particular, cannot be overemphasized. This is because the core business of the university i.e., academic work and how it is managed takes place at the department level. HoD is an essential middle-level academic management position in the university administration system and serves as the bridge between the administrative requirements of the university and the standards of the faculty of the academic departments (Wolverton, Akerman & Holt, 2005). To have an understanding of the role of the HoD, it is important to not just focus on what HoD is i.e., role as leader and a guide but also, what the HoD does, the role as manager (Deetz, 1992).

Throwing more light on the composition of the role, Berdrow (2010) suggests that the role of an academic chair (also referred to as the head of a department) involved student development, faculty development, operations, and administration, being a catalyst for innovation, the communications link between the department and others as well as representing the department

at meetings at the College and University levels and externally. It also includes managing the work environment to promote harmony and productivity. Similarly, Bowman (2002) paints a picture of the strategic role by summarizing the work of the academic chair and highlights skills sets and management actions that are required for effective performance which he terms as a by-product:

“Clearly, academic departments are more than structures and systems, policies and practices. Academic departments and their chairs are defined by the capabilities that they possess. Moreover, departmental performance is the product of capabilities and management actions. The real work of academic chairs demands a diverse set of leadership capabilities: well-honed communication skills, problem-solving skills, conflict-resolution skills, cultural-management skills, coaching skills, and transition-management skills. In the end, however, department chairs do not manage departments or even functions. Rather, they manage conversational inquiry that engages others in creating possibilities, breakthroughs, and a sustainable future for their common enterprise” (p.161).

It is troubling to note that despite the importance of the role of HoD it appears not to be given its due attention (Berdrow, 2010) as individuals who are appointed to this strategic position often do not have previous leadership experience and knowledge of what the role is involved (Jackson, 1996; Ely, 1994) and the fact that institutions tend not to give adequate preparation to academics who are appointed to the role (Wolverton, Akerman & Holt, 2005; Sessa & Taylor, 2000). This is echoed by Gelmech (2013) who captures it succinctly:

“They typically come to the position without leadership training, without prior executive experience, without a clear understanding of the ambiguity and complexity of their roles, without recognition of the metamorphic changes that occur as one transforms from an academic to a leader, and without an awareness of the cost to their

academic and personal lives. A radical change to developing academic leaders must be achieved if we are to respond to today's challenges” (p.26).

Noting that universities do not have training programmes in place to help HoDs when they take up the role, Cassie, Sowers, and Rowe (2006) recommended from their research that lecturers should take the initiative to learn about the work of the head of a department and acquire the requisite competencies from available sources in preparation for the role. The call for academics to be proactive in self-capacity development is appropriate, especially because, unlike the business world where companies have succession plans and take deliberate steps to identify potential leaders and groom them for specific positions, the universities seem not to have such a formalized structure. Yet any academic in a department is a potential HoD hence the need to acquire the relevant competencies to perform leadership and managerial duties involved in the position.

The research argues that academic qualifications and rank on their own are not sufficient for a job that is mostly about managing resources and leading people. This is supported by Nguyen (2013) who suggests that heads of departments are more of managers than leaders as their main duties include effectively dealing with concerns of students, academics and support staff to ensure the smooth administration of the department generally. The study is of the view that there is a need to change the status quo to ensure a holistic and planned approach to the development of the managerial competencies of academics in readiness to play the lead role of Head of Department (HoD).

The situation described in the literature is common in Africa and Ghana. This is evidenced by the formation of a regional grouping of universities, known as the Pan African Next Generation of Academics (PANGeA) to develop the managerial leadership capacity of academics. According to the group of which the University of Ghana is a member, *“the vast majority of*

academics rarely have little or no administrative and managerial training” (PANGeA, 2017).

To address this challenge, the PANGeA Early Career Fellowship programme was launched in June 2017 to contribute to building the capacity of academic leaders to effectively perform their administrative responsibilities. The question is how many academics can benefit from such fee-paying programmes considering the financial constraints of universities. The answer may well lie in higher learning institutions putting in place a deliberate in-house programme to prepare academics for the managerial and administrative duties of the head of a department and continuous professional development for those who are appointed to the role.

In Ghana, the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC) which is the state agency responsible for quality control of tertiary institutions, sets the norms and minimum criteria for academic leadership (National Council for Tertiary Education, Norms for Tertiary Institution, 2012). For the position of HoD, the minimum requirement includes professorial in the absence of which Senior Lecturer may be appointed or a Lecturer may occupy the position as Coordinator. It is of interest to note that the criteria appear to be less specific in terms of the managerial abilities needed for such leadership role. As mentioned, HoD role is multi-dimensional and involves the performance of management functions, including leading and managing the human as well as financial and material resources of the department. There is a need for equal attention to be paid to the managerial and administrative competence of those appointed to the position of HoD to enable them to carry out the various responsibilities of the role effectively. This is the focus of the research i.e., to find out how universities develop the managerial competencies of academics for the leadership role of HoD.

Currently, Ghana has twenty-one (21) public universities and eight (8) technical universities as well as seven (7) chartered private universities and other ninety-five (95) private institutions offering degree programmes (www.nab.com). The study focused on one public university, the University of Ghana (UG), and one private university, the Valley View University (VVU) both

in Accra. The selection of these universities was on the basis that they are the oldest public and private universities respectively, UG being seventy-one (71) years and VVW being forty-three (43) years. Thus, the research considered them as flagship higher learning institutions in Ghana that are assumed to have established academic and administrative structures, as well as human resource management systems, policies, and practices including capacity development programmes for academic leadership roles (Altbach & Balân, 2007). Given their status, the two universities tend to be used as the benchmark by other institutions established after them in their respective category. The study, therefore, aimed to find out from the experiences of HoDs at the two universities how they were prepared before assuming the leadership role.

1.2. Statement of the problem

The central problem of the research is that universities appear not to have a structured approach for the development of managerial competencies of academics in preparation for managerial leadership in general and middle-level academic management in particular, most especially at the departmental level as every academic is a potential candidate for the role. The research is built on the premise that managerial training is usually not included in the normal education of academics leading to their technical competencies i.e., qualification and rank. Many studies exist on this topic in the context of Europe and Asia. Not only did they highlight the strategic role of the academic department, but they also identified the main tasks areas of an HoD including leadership and management of faculty, staff and students, as well as programmes and facilities (Wolverton, Ackerman, & Holt, 2005; Spendlove, 2007; Berdrow, 2010). In addition, the studies also found some key skills that academics need to develop for effective performance of the job. Nguyen (2013) echoed these views from his research of the role of HoDs in a newly established university in Vietnam. It may be suggested that the plethora of studies on the subject brings to the fore the strategic role of the academic department, and fuels academic and practitioner discourse on the

need for higher education institutions to give priority to the development of leadership and managerial capacity of academics to effectively perform academic and administrative responsibilities of HoD.

However, studies in the area in HEIs in Africa are rare albeit the literature appears to be growing in recent times (Mavunga, 2019; Shawa, 2019; Seale & Cross 2015). On the one hand the paucity of research may be said to have a negative impact as the issue of managerial capacity building for academic leadership appears to be neglected by the universities. On the other hand, it may also be said to serve as motivation for further studies in area. Specific reference to academic leadership in Ghana, this research noted a case study by Owusu et al. (2021) that inquired into factors that caused the failure of deans in Ghanaian universities. It identified deficiencies including technical, conceptual, and people management skills as some of the key reasons for the ineffectiveness of deans as leaders. A similar study by Alabi and Alabi (2014) also highlighted “*personal competencies, visionary competencies, administrative competencies, people competencies, and networking competences*” as key attributes that deans should have to enable them to successfully lead and manage their institution to meet the demands of the 21st-century university (p.112). For the leadership level of an academic HoD, Hupkati (2009) investigated the link between leadership practices at academic departments and job satisfaction of teachers of Ghanaian private and public tertiary. Nyame (2019) conducted a case study on the journey of academics to the role of HoD in a university in Ghana. However, the study was limited to one public university. It is significant to note that in all the aforementioned studies, the ill preparation of academics to lead and manage academic departments effectively was identified and the development of leadership and managerial competencies of academics was recommended. However, the studies seem to be silent on how the HEIs in Ghana should go about the development of these critical competencies in academics. This research sought to fill the gap in the literature by using a qualitative research approach to probe how selected public and private universities develop the managerial capacity

of academics for the job of HoD. The aim of the study is not to duplicate work previously conducted in the area of departmental leadership, but to shed light on the issue as it pertains in Ghana and make a convincing case for the importance of making the choice, preparation, and support of the Head of Department a strategic consideration. This provides merit for a deliberate and structured approach and investment in managerial competencies development of academics for leadership.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to find out how managerial competencies of academics are developed by the case universities in preparation for the role of HoD to enable them to be effective to meet the challenges of the modern university.

1.4. Objective of the research

The main objective of the study was to probe into how universities develop the managerial competencies of academics for the leadership position of Head of Department. The specific research objectives were as follows:

1. To find out the core duties involved in the role of Head of Department.
2. To identify the managerial competencies required the role of Head of Department.
3. To identify the strategies used by universities to develop the managerial competencies of academics for the role of Head of Department.
4. To find out similarities and differences between public and private universities in the approaches they use to prepare academics for the role of Head of Department.

1.5. Research questions

To achieve the stated study objectives, the following open-ended questions guided the information gathering:

1. What are the core activities involved in the role of Head of Department?
2. What are the competencies needed to perform the role of Head of Department?
3. What are the strategies used by universities to develop the managerial competencies of academics for the role of Head of Department?
4. What are the similarities and differences in the approaches used by public and private universities to prepare academics for the role of Head of Department?

1.6. Significance of the Study

The study would contribute to knowledge by providing new insights on managerial leadership competencies development for academic leadership in private and public universities in Ghana. It is expected that a copy of the thesis will be published online by the University of Ghana in keeping with its tradition. Thus, the study will contribute to the literature on academic leadership generally. The study is also expected to make recommendations to inform policy on the criteria for appointment of academics to organizational and management roles to include an assessment of leadership and managerial competencies of the individual. Furthermore, the study will contribute to the practice of workplace education where people, especially, academics will be given relevant training to prepare them for managerial leadership roles rather than the existing practice which assumes that they will be able to do the job due to their academic qualification and rank and experience. As a staff of the human resource department of a public university, the researcher will organize workshops and seminars for the Head of Department as continuous professional development while they are in office to enhance their capacity to perform their duties effectively. It is expected that the study will inform human resource management practice in HEIs in Ghana.

1.7. Study Area

1.7.1. University of Ghana

The University of Ghana (UG), the oldest university in the country, was founded by Ordinance on August 11, 1948, as the University College of the Gold Coast with a purpose to provide for, and promote university education, learning, and research. By an Act of Parliament on October 1, 1961 (Act 79), it assumed the full status of a university. It is significant to note that many of the public universities in Ghana are off-shots of the University of Ghana, including the University of Cape Coast, and the Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration. Currently, the University has four Colleges consisting of thirty-eight (38) Schools. The schools together have ninety-seven (97) academic departments, not counting Centres and Institutes carrying out research in specialized disciplines. It has a student population of about 40,000 who come from over 70 countries across the world.

Globally, the University of Ghana was ranked in the 151-200 band for the second consecutive year according to the *Times Higher Education's* Golden Age University Ranking announced in July 2020. The rankings were based on output in the 2016/2017 academic year, including research income, academic staff numbers/doctoral degree ratio, international/domestic student ratio, international/domestic academic staff ratio, income from industry, and total institutional income. Not only is the University of Ghana the only Ghanaian university that met competitive criteria for participating in the ranking, but it also placed higher than three (3) universities in the United States of America, 19 European universities, 86 universities in Asia, and 27 universities in Latin America. Undoubtedly, UG is the best university established during the “Golden Age” i.e., between 50 to 80 years ago (www.timeshighereducation.com).

In Africa, UG places 14th out of 200 in the league of universities in Africa and the enviable position of being 1st on a league of 65 accredited universities in Ghana (www.unRank.com). It is therefore not surprising that the premier University has a host of local and international

tertiary institutions as affiliates and built partnerships with higher learning institutions across the world for their mutual benefits in areas of student and faculty exchange as well as research.

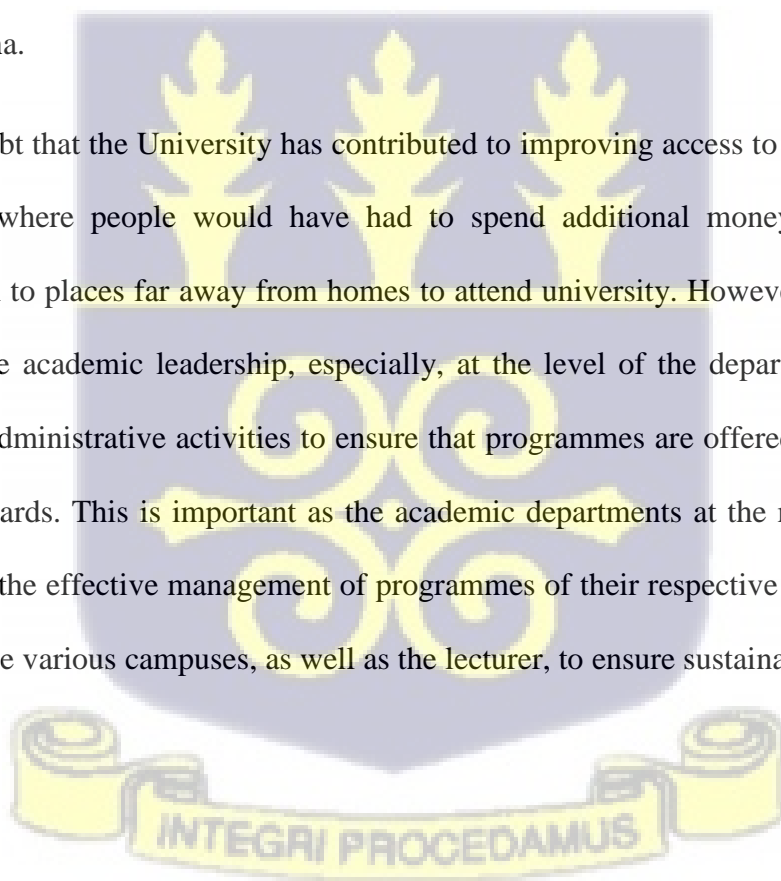
As the premier and oldest higher learning institution in the country, the University of Ghana serves as a benchmark for most public and private tertiary institutions in terms of governance, management, and administrative structures, systems and procedures. From the aforementioned attributes of the University of Ghana, it may be described as flagship higher education institution in the country because it fits the description of concept. It serves as a “mother” institution that contributes academics to newer universities, the “trend setter” when it comes to the content of the curriculum, academic principles and values, and, most important, “the institution from where the social, political, and economic elites graduate—and maintain high clout and influence” (Teferra, 2016, p.83). The influence of UG in the socio-economic and political affairs of Ghana can be attested by the significant number of national office holders, including Presidents of Ghana, who are alumni of UG.

Indeed, the University of Ghana is looked up to in the tertiary education landscape as a model institution that invests in staff capacity development. It is important to note that the University of Ghana 2014-2024 Strategic Plan indicated that the University has made a huge investment in staff capacity development which has led to a significant improvement with the number of lecturers with Ph.D., increasing from 42% to 63% in the last ten years (University of Ghana 2014-2024 Strategic Plan.). While the improvement is commendable, there is a need for a similar interest in academic leadership development, to enable the University to continue to be successful. However, there appears not to be such a deliberate approach to the issue. UG was therefore selected as a case study to find out how it develops the managerial capacity of faculty for academic leadership, particularly, at the department level.

1.7.2. Valley View University

The Valley View University (VVW) is a chartered private tertiary institution offering degree programmes. Founded in 1979, VVU is the oldest among accredited ninety-five (95) private tertiary institutions (www.nab.gov.gh, www.vvu.edu.gh) in Ghana. It enjoys the pride of place as the second private university among the top ten (10) universities, placing at 8th position in a non-academic (based on non-influenceable web metrics provided by web intelligence sources) league table of top 65 Ghanaian Universities (uniRank.com). It has six schools/faculties made up of a total of seventeen departments offering traditional and online programmes which attract local and foreign students. In addition to its main location in Accra, VVW has campuses in Techiman, Kumasi, Tamale, and Takoradi, giving its presence in five out of the sixteen (16) regions of Ghana.

There is no doubt that the University has contributed to improving access to higher education in a situation where people would have had to spend additional money for travel and accommodation to places far away from homes to attend university. However, the expansion requires capable academic leadership, especially, at the level of the department to oversee academic and administrative activities to ensure that programmes are offered to meet quality assurance standards. This is important as the academic departments at the main campus are responsible for the effective management of programmes of their respective departments that are offered at the various campuses, as well as the lecturer, to ensure sustainability.



1.8. Operational definition of terms

i. Academic leadership

A position assumed by an academic through formal appointment to lead faculty, student and staff in the execution of academic duties and also perform managerial and administrative duties at the department, school, or institution level.

ii. Capacity development

Enhancement of the professional ability and growth of an individual, group or organization through formal, informal and non-formal learning interventions.

iii. Competencies:

Knowledge, skills and behaviours that are instrumental in effective performance of a job.

iv. Head of Department

An academic appointed by the university to be academic and administrative leader of an academic department.

v. Managerial competencies:

A set of knowledge, skills, and behaviours that influence the effective performance of management functions.

1.8. Organisation of the study

The study was organized into six chapters. Chapter one gave an introduction to the entire work and provided the background, problem statement, research objectives, and questions. It also highlighted the significance of the study, the definition of terms, and a brief profile of the case studies.

Chapter two reviewed relevant literature to the research and provided the theoretical framework that underpinned the study. Chapter three concentrated on the methodology comprising the

research paradigm, research design, sampling techniques, research instruments, ethical issues, validity, as well as reliability. Chapter four presented the results in line with the objectives i.e., the core activities of the role of Head of Department, managerial competencies needed for the role of HoD, strategies for developing managerial competencies for the role of Head of Department and similarities and differences in the approach used by the public and private universities in the development of the managerial capacity of Head of Department. The results were further organized under themes and sub-themes. Chapter five also discussed the results along the same lines and drew attention to any similarities or differences in the data findings from the participants. Chapter six summarised the key findings of the study and drew conclusions highlighting the significant contributions of the research. It also made recommendations and suggestions for further studies.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature related to the study and explains the underpinning theoretical and conceptual framework.

2.2. Overview of concept of leadership

It has been suggested that leadership is critical to individual and organizational success. According to Kozak and Ukah (2008), “leadership is a vital tool for management because when properly used, it may enhance good relationships among employees, affect the organizational climate positively, increase service performance and modify behavioural outcomes” (Kozak & Ukah, 2008 cited in Amankwaa & Anku-Tsedde, 2015, p.20). This may explain the plethora of literature on the concept of leadership (Alabi & Alabi, 2012; Hukpati, 2009; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993; Burns, 1978; Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). Despite the extensive work on the subject, there seems to be a lack of common understanding of the concept of leadership, giving rise to varied and subjective definitions of leadership (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999). That notwithstanding, Bryman (1992) and Yukl (2002) have noted some fundamental features that seem to cut across most of the definitions including “process of influence”, “group” and “goal”.

Cuban (1988) suggests that leadership “refers to people who bend the motivations and actions of others to achieving certain goals; it implies taking initiatives and risks” (p.193). According to Effah (2014), leadership involves having the vision to transform a situation, or an organization and empowering followers to move to the new destination. The view of leadership as a process that influences the accomplishment of set targets is supported by Bush and Glover (2003), who consider it as an element that differentiates leadership from management. Yukl

(2002) indicates that influence can be exercised by individuals or groups over others which then suggests that leadership can be distributed in an organization akin to the practice in universities.

Bolden et al. (2012) define leadership as “an influence process that gives rise to *direction, alignment, and commitment* in social groups” (p.5). The definition reflects Drath et al. (2008) idea of leadership which suggests a shift from the traditional view which supposes that leadership is reliant on there being ‘leaders’, ‘followers’ and ‘shared goals’ to an emerging understanding of leadership within situations that favour “collegial and participative governance” (ibid) in tertiary education environments. In such situations task and processes need to be assigned, directed and performed albeit the three elements of leader, follower, and shared goal may not have been pre-defined.

2.3. Leadership and Management

Another aspect of leadership identified in the literature is the issue of the relationship between leadership and management which is also applicable to leadership in higher education. While it has been argued that such a distinction is without merit as the two are intertwined and in practice happen concurrently (Covey, 2004), Bennis and Nanus (2007) disagree and point out that management involves ensuring that things are done as expected and leadership is that which causes the action to happen by influencing others towards the desired course. In his earlier writing on the issues, Bennis (1980) suggested that “leaders are involved in activities of vision and judgment while managers engage in activities of efficiency. Managers engage in the day-to-day conduct of the organization while leaders transcend the everyday organizational routines to guide the organization” (Bennis, 1980, cited in Wescott, 2000, p.28). A similar explanation of the distinction between the two concepts highlights the fact that management involves administrative duties such as planning, budget preparation, and performance assessment, while leadership is about causing transformation of individuals and the institution

as a whole (Maccoby, 2016). Maccoby (2016) further notes that “Management is a function that must be exercised in any business whereas leadership is a relationship between leader and led” (p.57) that has the potential to bring about change. Kotter (1990) postulates that often organizations are “over-managed” and “under-led”, especially in a turbulent period. He seems to call for more leadership if organizations are to be successful. In a contrasting view Mintzberg (1973) argues that though leadership is important it is subsumed in a managerial role. This is because it takes effective managerial skills to persuade colleagues and juniors to follow instructions and execute expected assignments (Yukl, 2002). These skills include planning and organizing skills, interpersonal skills, communication and conflict resolution skills as well as decision making. Thus, Gosling and Mintzberg, (2003) caution against rating leadership over management as that may be detrimental to the effective running of the organization.

2.4. Leadership in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

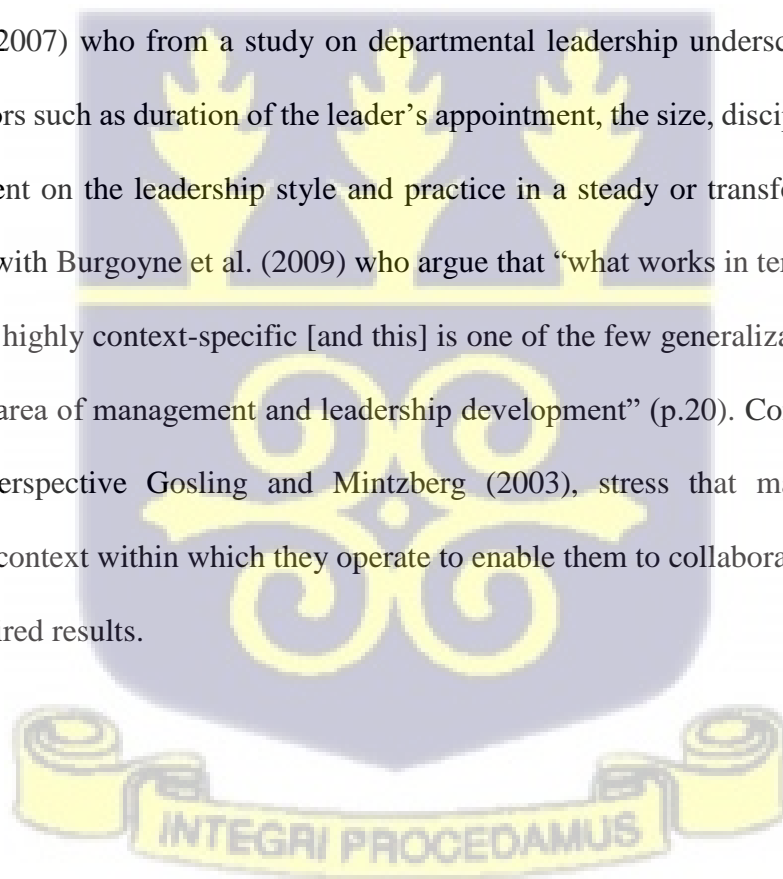
The literature indicates that leadership in higher education arose in the US and later in the United Kingdom in the latter part of the twentieth century as part of a paradigm shift in the management of tertiary institutions from “administration and administrative process to executive management” (Middlehurst et al., 2009, p.3). The shift which was in line with the concept of “New Public Management” aimed to introduce private sector ways of management that were deemed more effective and efficient into public institutions' management practices (Pollitt, 1990). For higher education, the new paradigm resulted in the creation of “manager-academics” and “professional service managers” (Deem et al., 2001).

Studies on leadership in HEIs indicate that there are various levels of leadership upward and across the structure of the institution and that the form at each level is not the same (Smith et al., 2007; Bolden et al., 2008). According to Middlehurst et al (2009), the forms of leadership in HEI include organizational and managerial leadership which is an official post assumed by appointment, professional leadership which an individual occupies because of expert

knowledge which is applied in the performance of a functional role and intellectual and disciplinary leadership which is based on contribution to knowledge and expanding the frontiers within one's academic discipline. In addition, he identifies personal leadership which is earned as a result of not just specialized knowledge an individual has but also his or her attributes which inspire others to become followers, team leadership which is assigned in working relationships, and last but not least political leadership which involves one's ability to connect with others and influences the forming of alliances (p.319). It is important to note that while formally appointed leadership and management positions both vertical and horizontal have authority over the use of resources, including financial, the others drew their power from social relationships and influence within and outside of the institutions. Bolden et al. (2008) explain that the roles of individuals in leadership and management often change as they advance in the organization. Contributing to the subject of management and leadership of modern tertiary education institutions, Yelder and Codling (2004), noted that elevation to senior management positions in universities was dependent on the academic expertise and scholarship of the individual, the effect of which is that "senior academic leaders who may not be well suited to line or operational management" (p.315) are often appointed to managerial leadership positions. To help address the situation, they propose a blended model of leadership for academic management that requires both academic and managerial expertise for promotion to leadership positions. The foregoing reiterates the need for tailored development interventions to equip persons officially assigned leadership responsibilities with the relevant managerial competencies to enable them to perform their roles effectively.

It cannot be overemphasized that the need to understand leadership in education and how it is practiced requires an appreciation of the unique context of universities. It is often suggested that leadership in higher education is common to the leadership of other organizations and at the same time distinct to the academic setting (Middlehurst et al., 2009). Like any organization,

tertiary institutions ensure effective and efficient management of their human, material, and financial resources to achieve expected outcomes. Beyond that, universities are different in terms of what they exist for, a place for delivery of instruction and research that leads to change in the individual and society (Jaratt, 1985). In this regard, universities have been described as ‘dual identity’ organizations (Albert & Whetten, 2004), hence the need for different forms and levels in its leadership. Bolden et al. (2012) support a view of a ‘hybrid’ or ‘blended’ style of leadership in tertiary institutions whereby “formal, hierarchical processes, and informal, emergent processes” are equally appreciated as reinforcing each other (p.46). This perspective emphasizes the relevance of context in determining a suitable strategy for leadership and management and its influence on practice. Similar ideas have been echoed by Gibbs, Knapper, and Picinnim (2007) who from a study on departmental leadership underscore the effect of contextual factors such as duration of the leader’s appointment, the size, discipline, and culture of the department on the leadership style and practice in a steady or transforming situation. This resonates with Burgoyne et al. (2009) who argue that “what works in terms of leadership development is highly context-specific [and this] is one of the few generalizations that can be justified in the area of management and leadership development” (p.20). Contributing from a management perspective Gosling and Mintzberg (2003), stress that managers need to understand the context within which they operate to enable them to collaborate with people to achieve the desired results.



2.5. Management in higher education

According to Scott (2015), management in higher education refers to the effective function of all activities that take place in tertiary institutions including human, financial, and material resources, scholarship, student support services, academic support services, internationalization. Grant and Marshak (2011), indicate that the management structure of HEIs is hierarchical and runs from the governing Council to Academic Board through to College Board to School, or Faculty and academic departments. Examining the levels of power and relationship of the structure, Mintzberg (2008), noted that management in HEI ensures consistency as the post holders adhere to demands of higher authority as well as rules and procedures without question. However, this has the potential to kill creativity and innovation which are critical for the successful management of modern tertiary institutions. Mintzberg (2008) further observes that while management in the business sector ensures that resources are used to obtain profit, management in higher education sees to it that human capital development to the service labour market and for nation-building ultimately.

2.6. Academic leadership and academic management

The terms academic leadership and academic management are often used interchangeably. However, Bolden et al. (2012) based on their research on academic leadership in the UK suggest a differentiation between the two terms, while Effah (2014) and Sidque et al. (2011) seem to provide an integrated perspective.

2.6.1. Academic leadership

Bolden et al. (2012) define academic leadership as “a process through which academic values and identities are constructed, promoted and maintained” (p.2). Thus, “an informal and emergent process through which academic colleagues and collaborators mentor, inspire and influence one another” (p.9). It is important to note that these influential persons need not be in the one institution with the less experienced academic to provide leadership. Rather,

leadership from this perspective is about a process of social interaction through which a novice academic not only grows and develops, but also establishes himself or herself as “a fully-fledged academic professional and a member of the Academy.” (ibid). A leader, therefore, is seen as doing things on behalf of the group to facilitate its establishment and promote its members’ welfare. It is leadership that emerges from collaboration with more experienced and influential peers in one’s areas of specialization which helps him or her to grow to earn recognition as leader in a field. These include those who supervise Ph.D students and renowned academics within the area of specialization. Leadership in this sense is differentiated from formally appointed headship positions such as Dean and Head of Department positions.

2.6.2. Academic Management

According to Bolder et al. (2012), academic management refers to managerial leadership roles, including Deans and Heads of Departments which provide essential support by way of ensuring a congenial and conducive work environment for their mates to grow in their leadership in their respective field. This formal role has the responsibility of ensuring that “academic tasks and processes” are performed to produce results that are expected by the institution. It involves planning to organize, allocating academic tasks and processes to colleagues and staff in non-official roles, and directing them while ensuring the availability of the resource for them to perform effectively. Academic Managers by virtue of their offices are vested with the authority to give sanctions or rewards to get people to produce as required. In a brief, while academic management is focused on achieving institutional outcomes, academic leadership concentrates on inculcating in the individual “academic values and identity”.

2.6.3. Convergence of academic leadership and academic management

It is important to note that academic leadership and academic management though differentiated in their respective definitions are not mutually exclusive and occur concurrently in practice. The two converge when the academic who has been appointed into a leadership position ensures that academic values and standards are maintained by faculty, students, and staff as he or she leads and directs the implementation of policies as well as assign work and coordinate its effective execution at the department. In this regard, Sidique et al. (2011) description of academic leadership seems to indicate a meeting point of leadership and management. They define academic leadership to “comprise of research leadership, educational leadership and administration leadership each of which is the duty of the academic leader” (p.735). They explain that not only is the academic leader expected to create a congenial environment for academics to engage in scholarship but he or she should also be conversant with academic programmes as well as the administrative systems and procedures to be able to perform their routine activities and manage faculty, students, staff and other stakeholders effectively. These if successfully done should motivate higher performance.

Similarly, Effah (2014) is of the opinion that “academic leadership takes place in an academic environment such as a university, college or other tertiary education institutions. It is about providing direction and exerting influence towards the achievement of an academic purpose, defined to encompass research, teaching, and service” (p.1). The definition seems to indicate that the academic leader also has managerial responsibilities which require him or her to exhibit the relevant managerial competencies which the individual is assumed to have. Persons who assume academic leadership roles by official appointment are expected to focus on achieving institutional set goals through the assignment of work to staff, including their colleagues and measuring their performance, is accomplished ultimately. According to Mohammedbhai (2010), an academic leader is one who has knowledge of the institution in terms of where it

needs to be positioned and is able to develop and galvanize support from internal and external to achieve it. Thus, academic leaders include “Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellor, Directors, Deans, Heads of Department, Registrars, Librarians and all other functional managers who can influence policy direction in the institution” (Effah, 2014, p.2). The need for managerial competencies to perform these leadership roles well cannot be overemphasized.

Considering that the attainment of senior academic rank is based on a person’s commitment to academic ethics and practices as well as his or her field of specialization, it is important, therefore, to put in place deliberate measures to enhance the individual’s managerial competencies to perform the academic leadership role effectively. It has been recommended that such “leadership development interventions need to begin far earlier in the careers of those who work in academe, so that success is built from below rather than from above” Spendlove (2007, p.414).

It is significant to note that the proactiveness in the development of academic leadership competencies seems to be missing in the literature of management of tertiary institutions. The demands on management of modern universities necessitate further probe into academic leadership to gain insights that will contribute to the identification and development of context-specific competencies to enhance the capacity of academic leaders for academic management in higher education institutions.

2.7. Leadership development

Leadership development has been defined as “expanding the collective capacity of organizational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes” (Day, 1999, p. 68). Various kinds of leadership development have been identified in the corporate sector. These including external and internal programmes as well as job rotation (Sandler, 2002; Thomson et al., 2001). Specific to the tertiary institutions, Frearson (2002) suggests that

people's leadership capacity may be developed through interventions including experiential learning, secondments, sabbaticals, formal mentoring, exchange programmes, in-house and outside workshops, self-tutoring programme, and distance learning programmes. Similarly, Ladyshefsky and Flavell (2011), indicate that there are various proposals of ways to plan and teach or facilitate leadership development. These include coaching and experiential learning making room for feedback in the process of interaction, a leadership competency framework that focuses on the person's capability to lead, and a 360-degree review process that involves guidance from a more experienced peer or superior and collecting information about the individual's leadership from their bosses, direct report, and peers. For academic institutions, it has been proposed leadership development should be situated within the context and culture of the institution concerned plus the area of specialization of the participant (Flavell et al., 2008; Blackmore, 2007).

Judging from the multiple views proffered, Ladyshefsky and Flavell (2011) opined that leadership and development go beyond formal training, and it is more effective when learning is by experience in a congenial environment. Thus, where the more capable staff assist to enhance the capacity of their colleagues. For academic leadership development, in particular, learning by practice and observation are highly endorsed, especially in key areas such as human relations (Gaither, 2004). While there appear to be inadequate evidence to confirm the impact of formal leadership development programme on the organizational success, the mode of "experiential leadership development within communities of practice", seems to be favoured by universities (Muijs et al., 2006, p.92)

However, from a study conducted at the national level of academic leaders in the United States within the period of 1990 to 2000, Gmelch (2000) found that less than 4% of the participants were prepared for the leadership positions they assumed. The study suggested that often those who assume leadership positions "experienced socialization processes similar to that received

by other executives (individual, informal, random, and variable). Ironically, and in contrast to how universities develop students as professionals (cohort, formal, sequential, and specific time span), same approach is not applied to the development of the managerial capacity of academics for the departmental leadership positions.” This may suggest that the majority of academics at the helm of affairs may not have received relevant leadership training. According to Detsky (2011), often the key factors considered in the appointment of persons to academic leadership positions are their educational qualification, achievement in research, and experience on the job and not “on the basis of demonstrated leadership and management skills” (p.88). From the literature, one may conjecture that the lack of structured training may have an impact on the effective performance of academic leaders and managers.

The challenge of academic leadership development extends to higher education institutions in African countries including Ghana. Teferra (2016) observes that despite its exponential growth in the last two decades, the tertiary education system in Africa is among the least developed globally, with poor management and leadership, as one of its notable challenges. As part of efforts to address this problem, a regional grouping of African universities, the Pan African Next Generation of Academics (PANGeA) was established with the aim to build the capacity of academic leaders to effectively perform their administrative responsibilities as they had inadequate prior training (PANGeA, 2017).

2.8. Head of Department as an Academic Leader and Manager

In the leadership and management hierarchy in higher education institutions generally, the Head of Department (HoD) also known as Academic Chair or Department Chair in other places, including the USA, belongs to the middle-level academic management category. The Head of Department position has been identified as a significant role in the university as far back as four decades ago (Jennerich, 1981). Some have suggested that “no one plays a larger

part in determining the character of high education institutions than the department chair (Patton, 1961, p.459) and others have described HoDs as “the people responsible for leading the units where change takes place in higher education” (Wescott, 2002, p.26). Despite the important function of the academic department, the head of the department is often not considered as part of senior management leadership (Shawa, 2019). Yet, as an academic manager, the Head of Department is accountable for the work of the academics of various ranks sometimes above that of the Head of Department, students, and administrative support staff in the department. Bowman (2002) describes the role of the Head of Department as a strategic role that requires a various set of management and leadership skills and actions to perform effectively. The main activities involved in the role of HoD have been identified variously in the literature as explained in the following sections.

To Berdrow’s (2010), qualitative research that involved heads of business and liberal arts departments in a private university in the USA found that the role of Department Chair (DC) consisted of six main categories of activities, out of which four were managerial in nature while the remaining two were transformational leadership in nature. The managerial tasks were grouped into faculty development, student development, communication and representation, and operations and administration. To perform these roles effectively required knowledge and skills in the various activities including curriculum of programmes, systems of the university’s administration, human resource policies, and prevailing technological system for academic management. In addition, key skills in leadership, self-management, communication, and people and task management were required to be successful as Department Chair (Berdrow, 2010).

Another research by Wolverton, Ackerman, and Holt (2005) noted that though the bulk of the work of higher education institutions was done at the academic department, not much attention was given to prepare faculty for leadership at the department level or their succession into the

position. The study identified six responsibilities of a department chair (also referred to as the Head of Department) which included supervising lecturers and assessing them, budget planning and implementation, time management, community building, personal organization, and understanding the legal aspects of the job. The study also showed that some of the skills needed for the job included people's skills, communication, conflict resolution, collaborative and teamwork skills, and the ability to be honest. It also highlighted the need for professional development workshops to enhance the confidence of the Department Chair and improve their skills to perform specific duties effectively.

In a study of department chairs and directors, Bisbee (2007), found that the participants felt they were not well prepared for their role and leadership as a whole. Less than half of the group were of the view that training should be given more importance and potential leaders should be identified ahead of time and given the necessary training and opportunity for leadership experience. Similarly, Lucas and Associates (2000) suggest from their study of 4800 academic chairs that less than 50 percent were capable of dealing with intra- department conflict and strategic communication, characteristics that are critical for the effective performance of managerial roles in the corporate environment. The reason for the inadequate competencies of the academic chair may be because of a lack of deliberate managerial leadership training interventions, or preparation. Indeed, Spendlove (2007) noticed from a study of ten universities in the UK that the majority did not have a structured way of determining or building leadership skills. This is in spite of the fact that often HoDs are appointed from among lecturers from areas of specialization that are not necessarily related to leadership and management. Commenting on the seeming lack of preparation for the role, Hickson and Stacks (1992), indicates that:

“Usually, regardless of how the decision is made, chairs are not chosen because they are good administrators, managers, leaders, or communicators. This isn’t so much an indictment of higher education as it reflects a simple fact: Most academics administrators, especially at the department level, are educated on the job” (p.vii).

Looking at the duties involved in the role, Nguyen (2013) sees heads of departments as being more of managers than leaders, and that the differences in the specific roles and duties of HODs may be influenced by the circumstance of the department and institution as a whole. To address this challenge, Cassie, Sowers, and Rowe (2006) recommend that academics should take the initiative to learn about the work of HoD and acquire the requisite leadership and managerial competencies from available sources in preparation for an opportunity to serve.

It is important to note from the literature that though the subject of academic leadership at the department level appears to have been researched extensively, it is Western biased. Having said that some studies have been conducted on middle-level academic management in South African Universities which also supports the view that often academics who get appointed assume the role without prior leadership, or management training, as well as an appreciation of the role (Mavunga, 2019; Seale, 2019). Bush and Oduro (2006) notes from a review of literature on academic leadership in Africa that apart from the criteria of appointment of School Principals paying more attention to the person's work history, than their leadership capabilities, the principals when appointed seldom receive formal training to enhance their competencies. It appears that the short period of orientation which they receive after they have been appointed is expected to fill the skill gap. However, this may be said to be inadequate to equip the principals with the needed competencies to effectively lead and manage their schools to meet the expectations of their stakeholders including students, teachers, parents, the labour market, government, and the society as a whole. They recommend that management development of School Principals was necessary to improve the quality of academic leadership in the continent

despite the challenge of the uncertainty of the person to occupy the position due to the absence of a succession plan.

2.9. Academic leadership and management in Ghanaian universities

With particular reference to academic department leadership in Ghanaian universities, the literature seems to suggest similar to the situation of Western countries. That is to say, the problem of lack of proactiveness of tertiary institutions in the preparation of academics in terms of managerial leadership competencies development, for leadership, also pertains locally. Various research appears to support this view.

Owusu et al. (2021), from case study research conducted at the University of Cape Coast (UCC), found that some of the factors that contributed to the Deans not performing up to the expectation of faculty and offices of their schools, included poor leadership, managerial and personal skills. Specifically, the study identified “poor posture, poor interpersonal skill, unclear vision and direction, and communication failure” (p.42). It recommended a review of the policy of appointment of Deans from voting to an assessment process that will ensure that the most suitable and well-prepared academic is appointed. They further suggested that wide-ranging orientation programme covering people’s management skills as well as technical and conceptual skills should be organized for newcomer Deans, in addition to in-service training, for those on the job.

According to a study by Alabi and Alabi (2014) on the effectiveness of Deans in Ghana, leadership competencies which included “personal competencies, visionary competencies, administrative competencies, people competencies, and networking competences” had more influence on the effective performance of Deans than their technical competencies comprising academic qualification, rank, and experience in higher education. The study also suggested that the process of appointment was often based on the judgment of the appointing authority,

strengthened by the assumption that once a person has the technical competencies i.e., professorial or senior lecturer rank and experience of the workings of the university, the individual should be a good and an effective leader and manager. This highlights the need for universities in Ghana to be proactive and take deliberate steps, including identifying and implementing specific interventions, and making budgetary allocation for the development of managerial competencies of academics for effective performance when the need arises.

Furthermore, Nyame (2019), in a qualitative research to understand the preparations academics of a selected university in Ghana who were appointed HoDs had received for their job as compared to the preparation they wished to have had, noted that “some HoDs have not received any form of ‘on the job training’ and do not believe something of that nature takes place at the university whilst other HoDs have received ‘on the job training’ but it seems superficial in nature” (p.267). The study stressed the need to equip HoDs with the requisite competencies to execute their duties effectively before the assumption of duty and on-the-job training as a refresher when they are in office. It also proposed the training of academic staff of a department on the role of HoD focusing on management and leadership skills as well as networking. This can be done through formal mentorship programmes as a form of succession planning to fill a leadership vacancy when it happens. It is important to note that while the study focus on the preparation academics received as compared to what they wished to have had, it was conducted at only one university which was a public university. There is therefore a gap in terms of the finding out perspectives of HoD in private universities.

Similarly, Hupkati (2009) from her mixed-method study to determine the link between leadership practices at the academic departments and job satisfaction of teachers of Ghanaian private, and public tertiary institutions, proposed that to improve upon leaders’ capacity for effective performance, “pre-service and in-service training programmes should be provided. Such training should aim at equipping prospective and present school leaders with leadership

skills and competencies that enhance leadership should be organized” (p.64). The training programme should include workshops and seminars by the institutions. The study also encouraged leaders to attend such programmes when they are organized, thus, recognizing the importance of the agency of the individual for leadership development to achieve the expected impact.

From their survey of school heads in Ghana, Amakyi and Ampah-Mensah (2013), noted that the Ghana Education Service reforms expectation of the role of school head included having a vision for the transformation of the school to improve students’ achievement and, the effective management of human and financial resources. These functions require skills in leadership and management. However, the requirement for the appointment of school heads seems not to include these technical skills, and the heads did not also receive preparation prior to their appointment as suggested by the results of their research. To address the situation, the study proposed that persons at the rank eligible for appointment should be required to take prescribed courses in educational administration in preparation for possible appointment to headship role. Admittedly, this may be problematic for implementation in the absence of a succession plan coupled with financial implications for the individuals and schools.

It is important to note that though the research focused on pre-tertiary education the findings may be said to be significant, and apply to higher education institution management in view of the fact that the expectation of the role, the criteria for an appointment which focuses on academic qualification and rank, the technical, leadership and managerial skills required for appear to be similar both levels. Again, the situation of inadequate formal preparation for the lead role before the appointment was common to both categories of institution hence inclusion as relevant literature.

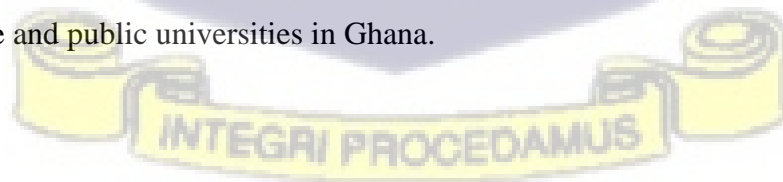
The University of Ghana’s Handbook for Heads of Department (2016) serves as a reference for the purpose of the office of Head of Departments and the duties involved in the role. It

indicates that the main aim for the role of Head of Department is to direct and manage the department to its optimal performance in alignment with the academic work within the vision of the University. The Head of Department “is accountable to the Dean for the strategic and operational management of the department...with a particular focus on leading the academic staff” (ibid p.4). It further noted that the specific duties of the Head of Departments are grouped into four broad categories including “university management, planning, and financial management, management of staff of the department, teaching-learning and examinations and research, conferences and grant management” (p.5). In carrying out these duties the Head of Department provides leadership and ensures that the resources are available for the effective performance of the work of the department and staff adhere to the relevant policies in their day-to-day work. Thus, the HoD serves as the link between the Department and the University management. Considering the broad duties of the Head of Department, it may be suggested that leadership and managerial skills are critical to the effective performance of the role. Yet, the only clearly defined criteria for appointment to the position is academic qualification professorial rank in the absence of which senior lecturer and equivalent ranks in the Research units are considered, and in extreme situation, lecturer rank. There is a need to give attention to leadership and managerial competencies in the appointment of HoD and to develop the capacity of academics in this regard.

From the foregoing review of some of the research on academic leadership in Ghanaian institutions, it may be suggested that the common challenge identified is inadequate preparation academics receive in terms of structured programmes, in addition to experiential learning to equip them with the relevant technical and managerial skills for the academic leadership role. As Squire (2001) opines that management is a professional field, therefore, persons who are appointed as managers should be well prepared prior to assume the role. This admonishing seems relevant for the development of academic leaders and managers in universities in Ghana.

Global trends suggest that it takes a minimum period of seven to fourteen years for a lecturer to be deemed an expert i.e., a professor in the person's area of specialization (Gmelch, 2013). Generally, and in Ghana, in particular, appointment to Head of Department is normally made from senior lecturer rank and above. Promotion to senior lecturer and professorial ranks are based on the number of years spent in academia i.e. a minimum of five, and seven years respectively of experience of university teaching in addition to publications. Often academics attend spells of short management courses that are irregular, and not following a systematic plan. The research argues that this does not adequately prepare an individual for transition to take up administrative roles. Indeed, when it comes to executive leadership development there seems to be a gap in the literature as to the timing and structure of the programme. To address the situation will require that in addition to taking advantage of the few avenues available for building capacity for leaders in higher education, universities must invest in in-house initiatives, including developing guidelines and programmes to equip academics with knowledge, skills, and experience in preparation for managerial leadership roles.

It must be noted that the list of competencies endorsed by various scholars for the leadership role of Head of Department are far-reaching and may not be realistic in a different context. There is therefore the need to determine competencies that suit specific contexts bearing in mind the unique challenges of individual universities. This view falls in line with the purpose of the research which seeks to identify competencies deemed relevant from the experiences of HoDs of private and public universities in Ghana.



2.10. Explanation of competencies and competency classification

According to Sandberg (2000), the competencies discourse and development of competencies approaches are anchored philosophically on the works of Frederick Taylor that suggest that there is one “best way” of performing a task, and if applied will lead to enhanced efficiency, and high levels of productivity. In recent times, studies in leadership development seem to focus on finding competencies - knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes that are relevant to the effective performance of leadership roles. The main supposition of this perspective is that effective leadership can be achieved “through the development of individual leaders, and that leadership can be added to organizations to improve social and operational effectiveness” (Spendlove, 2007 p.409). It has been suggested that it is important to specify the competencies relevant to jobs and roles in an organization to serve as a guide for effective people management practices (McDaniel, 2002; Hollenbeck et al., 2006). The interest in the concept of competencies as a key determinant in individual and organizational performance is evidenced by the extensive literature on the subject over the decades (Garavan & McCuire, 2001; Horton, 2000; Spangenberg et al., 1999; Lei & Hitt, 1996; Reid & Barrington, 1994).

Bartram (2005) describes competencies “as sets of behaviours that are instrumental in the delivery of desired results or outcomes” (Bartram, 2005 cited in Sepndlove, 2007 p.409). Regarded as the originator of the term, Boyatzis (1982) defines competency as “an underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective and/superior performance in the job” (p.21). He explains the term by differentiating between three key aspects, namely, the work of the organization, the domain in which the individual works within the organization, and the job the individual holds, and the competencies that are required to carry out the job to the standard expected by the organization. Contributing to the debate, Collin (1989), and Woodruffe (1993) support the second categorization of competencies suggested by Boyatzis (1982) and stress the need for persons to obtain the relevant competencies of a job to be able to perform creditably

as a manager. Accordingly, Woodruffe (1993) defines competency as “the set of behaviour patterns that the incumbent needs to bring to a position in order to perform its tasks and functions with competence” (p.29). He explains that it is not about the person’s behaviour generally, but the aspect of the behaviour that is pertinent to the job. It may be inferred, therefore, that the successful performance of managers is influenced by the competencies of the individual relative to the job.

In a further classification of competencies, Boyatzis (1982) distinguishes between threshold competencies that are fundamental to the performance of a job and high-performance competencies which differentiate between levels of performance. He stressed the need for individuals starting a job to have a bit of both. In this regard, Woodruffe (1993) opined that a person “should be assessed on all competencies relevant to the job and should be given the opportunity to develop all of them.” (p.34). The view is endorsed by earlier studies that point to the concept of knowledge-task fit (Krogh & Roos, 1995). Competence may therefore be considered as defined knowledge for a particular task, and the knowledge may be gained from the performance of the task, in addition to formal training programmes.

In recent times, Boon and Klink (2001) postulate that the definition of competencies is based on various perspectives, including personal and organizational traits. The school of thought on competencies as personal traits suggest that competencies are connected to a person’s characteristics. These competencies are said to cover a wide range of personal skills and abilities including creativity, interpersonal skills, the capacity to tolerate and master uncertainty, and the ability to adjust to change. The source of personal competencies has been a subject of debate. One view suggests that an individual is born with the characteristics while the other suggests that they can be learned. The former stance which is a conservative view insists that competencies are innate. For example, sentiments, behaviour, intelligence are part of an individual’s makeup and cannot be acquired through the learning process. However, they

can be enhanced through social interaction. The latter and contrary view which is central in human resource development highlights the possibility to acquire competencies through training and how opportunities afforded through workplace learning can assist in this respect (Klink et al., 2000). This view is shared by the research.

The second standpoint on competencies postulates that the human features of an organization make up its competencies. This idea is in line with the resource-based view of the organization that explains that a key factor that influences the competitiveness of an organization is its human capital. It refers to the totality of the knowledge, skills, and experiences of employees including those learned on the job that strengthens the competencies relevant to the organization and gives it a competitive advantage (Cappelli & Singh, 1992; Prahalad and Hamel, 1990).

There has been some contestation of the notion of organization-specific competencies on grounds that it is challenging to associate specific context to describing competencies and that organizations are guided by a general list of competencies. In short, it is difficult to implement (Boon & Van der Klink, 2001). A further difficulty is whether the competency model should focus on addressing the present or future needs of the business. The answer to this dilemma depends on how the organizations consider competencies – whether as a tool to facilitate organizational transformation through the exchange of information with workers, or to fix existing challenges.

Contributing to the discourse on the typology of competencies, Kuijpers (2000), provides a wide-ranging view organized in three different levels. The first level refers to competencies that are needed for diverse work environments and periods. This set of competencies are generalizable across multiple workplaces. These include communication skills, problem-solving skills, and innovation. The second level competencies are those that enable the process of acquiring or enhancing work-related competencies. For example, the ability to learn and

adapt to a new environment. The final level refers to competencies required for growth and development in one's career. These competencies are career-specific and individuals in those careers must possess them to be successful.

In addition to the academic interest in competencies, the demand from employees for certificates to serve as proof of enhancement of their competencies to boost their chances of securing employment and progression in one's career attest to the emphasis employers placed on having the relevant set of competencies. This is based on a widely held belief that higher-performing employees should demonstrate a set of specific competencies. Indeed, the focus on competencies and their relationship to economic benefits is not limited to academia, employee, and employer alone. Nations have established institutions that set competency frameworks and competency standards that are linked to economic attractiveness (Horton, 2000). For example, the National Skills Standards Board (NSSB) in the USA, and the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) in the UK, the National Vocational and Technical Training Institute in Ghana, are clothed with the mandate to do so.

2.11. Competencies for leadership and management in the Higher Education context

The literature suggests that there are various frameworks on competencies for leadership and management positions in a tertiary education setting (Vilkinas & Ladyshevsky, 2011; Smith & Wolverton 2010; Berdrow, 2010; Spendlove, 2007; Wolverton, Ackerman & Holt, 2005; McDaniel, 2002). In their review of the different frameworks, Dawson et al. (2020) noted nine (9) common themes including leadership, managing resources, managing human resource (HR) knowledge, managing people: talent, managing people: performance, personal behaviours, personal impact, personal productivity, personal and values. These were anchored on thirty (30) qualities and skills. Explaining the individual themes or domains, it has been suggested that the demands on higher education from various stakeholders require academic leaders who

have the ability not only to have a vision and communicate it to staff to get their buy-in, but also to build alliances to work to achieve the desired change in the institutions (Spendlove, 2007). In addition, an effective academic leader has the capacity to manage resources, including funds and projects to avoid any possible risk to ensure value for money (Seefeld, 2016). The leader is expected to be knowledgeable of the organization and its structures as well as the issues involved in academic management and the higher education landscape to enable the individual to establish a relevant relationship for work to go on successfully (Scott, Coates, & Anderson, 2008). Similarly, the leaders are expected to manage performance by being involved in the hiring of competent staff and ensure that they are provided with their responsibility and held accountable while motivating and rewarding them appropriately or apply corrective measures where necessary. To ensure the institution's survival, academic leaders need to invest time and resources to develop the human capital by giving staff opportunities to enhance their capacity through formal, and informal learning, e.g., training workshops and mentorship (McDaniel, 2002). The personal impact of the academic leader in terms of his or integrity and influence as a role model, personal behaviours by way of how well the leader delegates and gets others involved in leadership, as well as the personal productivity of the leader by way of working with others within the team, and also reflecting what is being done to take corrective measures are all important qualities and skills that are needed for effective academic leadership (Bryman, 2007; Scott et al., 2010). Based on the nine domains and 30 qualities and skills, Dawson et al. (2020) developed a comprehensive competencies framework for leadership and management of HEIs illustrated in table 1.

While it is important to specify the core thematic areas and the relevant competencies for the effective performance of academic leadership, and management, it has been established that other critical factors need to be present to achieve the expected results. The factors include the stage of change, which is the individual's recognition of the need for change and the steps taken

to realize it (Harris & Cole, 2007); the individual psychological attachment to the institutions referred to as affective organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; von Treuer, McHardy, & Earl (2013). It also includes organizational support for leadership and management development in terms of time and financial resources provide for capacity building (McCracken, 2005), and the various opportunities provided for staff to develop their leadership and management competencies (Dawson et al., 2021).

Table 1: A framework for HE leadership and management qualities and skills.

| Domain | Qualities and skills |
|------------------------------|---|
| Leadership | Creating and communicating vision Formulating and instilling strategy Cultivating connections and relationships Creating change |
| Managing Resources | Managing finances Managing risk Managing projects Managing operations |
| Managing HR Knowledge | Developing networks for intelligence Maintaining knowledge of HE sector Maintaining knowledge of organization Leveraging knowledge to operations |
| Managing People: Talent | Developing people Evolving teamwork Embedding professionalism |
| Managing People: Performance | Managing performance Motivating and rewarding Recruiting and selecting |
| Personal Impact | Achieving positive impact on organization and sector Inspiring others Setting clear standards Acting for diversity |
| Personal Behaviours | Delegating appropriately Acting decisively Displaying personal resilience |
| Personal Productivity | Showing productivity and drive Engaging others Reflecting on practices |
| Personal Values | Acting with integrity Valuing learning |

Source: Dawson, Hepworth, Bugaian & Williams, S. (2020)

The researcher after careful consideration of the framework of competencies for HEIs and drivers as discussed noted that it appears to highlight the managerial skills and personal attributes as the fundamental criteria for effective academic leadership to the neglect of academic qualification and rank. While the researcher favours the framework as appropriate for effective management of tertiary institutions because of the activities involved in the leadership role, it is important to note that in both the literature and in practice the primary criteria for appointments to academic leadership positions are academic qualification, rank and university experience. HEIs seem to do less assessment of the leadership, management, and personal skills and qualities of potential candidates for leadership positions. It may therefore be suggested that the framework seems to propose an ideal situation. Notwithstanding, the researcher considers it a suitable guide as it provides key specification relevant for effective academic leadership and recommends it for application by the HEI in Ghana.

2.12. Critique of conceptualization of competencies and competencies frameworks

Spencer (1983) in a critique draws attention to an important fact that the various explanations of competency models appear not to give much attention to the role of the individual as critical in bringing to bear the appropriate characteristic on the job to achieve the desired outcomes. Issues of when and how competencies are demonstrated and how the willingness of the employee interferes seems to be of less concern in the literature. He explains that the willingness and agency of the employee in learning through work activities and benefiting from available support are fundamental in successful workplace learning and capacity building. This view is reinforced by some early studies that point out how misleading it is to assume that just possessing the right competencies leads to high capacity necessarily. It argues that, rather it is the employee's willingness and ability to apply his or her capacity in a given situation that makes the difference in performance.

It is important to note that there is disagreement as to whether competency refers to the level of performance or the knowledge, skills, and abilities that allows a person to deliver the expected result. Some have criticized the competency approach as an attempt to create an “identikit manager”. For example, it has been accused of not paying attention to a person’s fit with the culture of the organization he or she operates. While admitting the significance of person-culture fit and the fact that “there is more to being a good manager than a set of competencies”, Woodruffe (1993) argues that competencies “are a large part of the recipe” (p.36).

Further, it has also been argued that several competencies are intangible and cannot be broken down into various components for classification. Additionally, in real work situations, employees often get work done effectively through tacit knowledge rather than knowledge gained through deliberate learning interventions (Collin, 1989). Employee successful performance may not be due to the usage of particular competencies but other factors, including instinct and experience. Thus, the agency of the employee should be given serious attention in understanding competencies. This view is reinforced by Sandberg (2000) who disagrees with the dominant rationalistic approaches which suggest that the competency of employees is made up of particular characteristics, including the knowledge and skills that they apply in carrying out a specific task. He argues that:

“the meaning work takes on for workers in their experience of it, rather than a specific set of attributes, constitutes competence...the particular way of conceiving of work delimits certain attributes as essential and organizes them into a distinctive structure of competence at work.” (p.9).

Garavan and McCuire (2001) join in the debate and question the notion that competency frameworks can be used to choose employees, or associated with “promotional opportunities”, as propagated in the human resource development practice. This view has been supported by

the argument that learning interventions are not generally linked to the needs of organizations, especially those in the small business sector where often the needs of entrepreneurs, and the employees tend to differ (Matlay, 2001).

The issue of transferability of competencies has also received some attention in the literature (Garavan & McCuire, 2001; Sullivan et al., 1998; Greenhaus & Callanan, 1994). It is worth noting that some competencies may be common to the effective performance of various jobs in the same or different organizations. Employees with such competencies may apply them to one job or the other and from one organization to another. In effect, employees with transferable competencies may have an advantage over their counterparts when it comes to promotion or securing a job or an appointment in a competitive business environment. Employers seek after them in the global labour market. Notwithstanding the transferability of competencies, it has been suggested that the fast-paced technological advancement globally has significantly transformed the way work is done, how organizations operate, and competencies demanded by the labour market at large. Competencies that were useful in the past may not be relevant in the tasks that are performed in a modern technologically integrated organization, thus reducing their lifespan. To remain relevant, it will be important for employers and employees to "...invest in competencies that are in tune with prevailing business and technological trends." (DeFillippi & Arthur, 1996 cited in Garavan & McCuire, 2001, p.156)

2.13. Employee training and development in the public sector and universities

Employee development has been defined variously. Costen et al. (2010) refer to it as interventions taken by an organization to enhance the capacity of individual staff or an entire workforce for the purpose of achieving organizational outcomes. These interventions can be through "formal and informal learning opportunities, on-the-job training, leadership development, professional education, tuition reimbursement and internal career opportunities"

(Fallon & Rice, 2015 p.487). Others include study leave with or without pay. It must be noted that while traditionally employee development is employer driven, employee-initiated and funded development is becoming common in view of the shrinking financial investment from employers, and staff interest to develop themselves for the global market. Commenting on the role of continuing staff development in his report to the UK Government, Leitch (2006), posits that it is mutually rewarding to the organization and the employee, hence the part of cost should be shared between the two. While this practice eases the burden on the employer, it has the potential to affect employee commitment to the organizations.

The critical role of effective staff capacity development in fostering employee productivity cannot be over emphasised. It is said to determine “employee productivity, loyalty and satisfaction”, which in turn impact customer service (Goldstein, 2003). Others have contested the view that employee development ensure commitment, particularly because employees are often more inclined to move on as they no longer believe in job for life but rather build a career portfolio that make them multi-skilled, versatile professionals and competitive.

It has been noted that studies into human resource management (HRM) in the public sector have often been neglected though there is evidence of training policies being formulated, and support provided to departments responsible for staff capacity development. Training tends to be limited to “standardized routines” and initiatives limited to intermittent events focused on the latest management tools and technological skills available (Vyas, 2015). This is supported by studies in the UK that suggest that staff development initiatives were “patchy” and “unsystematic” in higher education in the United Kingdom despite a state-established agency to encourage and assist in capacity development for all staff in tertiary education (Bailey & Robson, 2002).

However, an earlier view in 1990 suggests a customer orientation approach to training that underscores “responsiveness to customers’ needs, competitiveness, and capacity to disseminate information” (Narver & Slater, 1990). Riccucci and Naff (2008) emphasize the view that training has the potential to enhance employees’ capacity, and ultimately, the job’s worth which is what is of more interest to the organization. This means that it is no longer enough to require increased quality performance of staff, but it is equally necessary for the employer to ensure that they are reskilled through staff development schemes that result in the staff, acquiring key competencies, and also change of behaviour to enable them to perform expected functions well in their day-to-day work.

Comparing the two models discussed in the above paragraph, customer orientation to training seems to be suitable for staff development if institutions in the public sector, particularly public universities, want to satisfy their customers specifically students to achieve success as envisioned in their strategic plans. For the universities, it means that not only should they develop the capacity of faculty in research, but also academic leadership, and managerial competencies as a strategy for creating a pool of competent faculty from which to appoint, should there be a vacancy at the various leadership levels. This will require ongoing learning opportunities essential for fostering continuous development and improvement of employees’ knowledge and the skills needed for academic leadership and personal fulfilment. At the institutional level, then, learning opportunities can be improved by introducing supplementary measures (Vyas, 2015). These supplementary measures include planned but flexible capacity-building programmes, including computer-based intervention that staff can access at their convenience, in terms of time and place.

Having established the importance of training and the need for ongoing opportunities for staff to acquire job-related skills, it is equally significant to draw attention to the role of resources available for training to have an impact. There is a need for a supportive work environment,

that is, encouragement from superiors and peers for change and personal development, financial support, work-related materials, and information. In addition to these are the interplay of other human resource functions and the individual's motivation. Both resources and personnel are crucial to training and development, and other human resource functions (Noe 1986, Tessema et al., 2009). The study argues that the assessment of the availability of the necessary supportive environment does influence the trainee's motivation to learn.

2.14. Workplace learning

Workplace learning refers to learning or training activities undertaken in the workplace, to enhance individual and organizational performance (Rosenberg, 2006). It has been described as “a tool through which businesses may gain competitive advantage (recruitment and retention of workers, development of innovative practices, and the production of new knowledge)” (Vaughan, 2008 p.3). This is as a result of the need for a workforce that is able to adapt and be creative in providing solutions to business needs in a fast-changing modern world of work. A similar view of workplace learning suggests that it encompasses training and learning in relation to behaviours and skills (Dankbaar, 1999).

There appears to be an increased interest in workplace learning in recent times which may be attributed to rapid changes in society, globally, and the world of work in particular. These developments have made it necessary for organizations to employ approaches that will ensure employees have the relevant knowledge, skills, and attitudes to confront the challenges. In this regard, it has been suggested that workplaces are possibly an important source of learning similar to formal learning institutions (Ryan, 2008), and provide the opportunity for continuous development of competence.

Workplace learning has been regarded as an interaction of essential elements including learners, learning content, social context, and other learning stakeholders (Vaughan, 2008;

Illeris, 2003). The interplay of these factors has a significant influence on the effectiveness of workplace learning. The employee's orientation and the importance they place on workplace learning programmes determine whether or not the individual will available himself or herself to opportunities to learn. Similarly, the worker has an effect on the social environment as the individual brings his or her competencies to the workplace (Rainbird et al., 2003). As an adult learner, the worker's motivation to learn new things will be influenced by his or her need, and that which is perceived to results in some personal benefits ultimately (Merriam, 2001). However, because the organization has a purpose for which reason the staff was employed whatever the individual learns in the workplace should contribute to the achievement of same within the regulatory structures and systems of the organization. This requires a connection between organizational interest and individual capacity building. In this regard, the training needs of the organization are informed by its "mission and vision, job design, and reward mechanism", and the employees are assisted to "determine their learning objectives based on the organization's request and individual performance" (Wang, 2010 p.169). For workplace learning to be effective it is important for the organization to put in places systems and structures that will promote social interaction and networking among employees and ensure that learning activities are geared toward meeting corporate interests, the learning needs of individual workers to enhance their performance.

In research on industry training, Vaughan (2011) identified various learning programmes that were employed in workplace learning including structured and programmatic, on-the-job training, and formal instruction. These were mostly used in combination to achieve maximum effect. The study highlighted the fact that the forms of knowledge that workers needed cannot be obtained only from on-the-job i.e., "in practice", and argued that there is a place for formal instruction in addition to optimum benefit capacity building to contribute to productivity. To achieve this will require the application of some principles of the workplace, including:

1. Providing assistance at the company level by establishing policies and structures that reflect the prominent place of learning in the organization. It also involves the assignment of officers purposely for ensuring that chances are afforded to workers to learn.
 2. Establishing a planned orientation to the job where the employee assumes a job with very good knowledge and understanding of the structure for learning and what its place is in his or her job. This is made more effective by assigning a model staff to accompany the new employee in the initial days to facilitate their setting in.
 3. Employing effective teaching strategies to support structured learning activities so that there are not ambiguities about skills and practices the organization expects the learner worker to acquire. This influences the level of importance assigned to formal classroom learning and on-the-job learning.
 4. Experiential learning on-the-job where new or experienced workers receive initial short-term assistance from more experienced and knowledgeable colleagues to enable the former to learn the ropes and facilitate the progression from peripheral to full participation in the communities of practices. The experts serve as mentors.
 5. Putting in place a system to give learners an opportunity to receive feedback on their work and how to improve to get to accepted standards.
- (Vaughan, O'Neil & Cameron, 2011 p).

2.14.1 Approaches to workplace learning

There are diverse approaches to workplace learning suggested in the literature. These include:

- i. Off-the-job training which involves learning from performing activities that provide a solution to real problems that are connected to the goal of the organization;

- ii. Structured learning in the workplace (also referred to as alternance): It refers to classroom learning where the content of learning and delivery approach is informed by activities of the job market which has relevance to the learner thus serving as motivation for learning. Here the learning is managed and authenticated in collaboration with the employee-learners and the employers.
- iii. Informal learning: This is characterized by common practices that serve as a basis of work practices, procedures, and behaviours that identify communities at the workplace to which workers belong. Here learning requires being a member of the community to obtain its idiosyncrasies.
- iv. On-the-job learning: It involves learning interventions on the job that are deliberately planned with a clear pedagogic strategy. The intervention seeks to grow the competencies of the workers by providing them with opportunities to learn through job rotation, exposure to different work activities with increasing levels of difficulty to solve as well as a group working for significant periods during which attention is on work-related matters. As people engage in such activity it is expected that they will reflect, ask questions and make sense of their experiences (Simons, 1995, cited in Cullen et al., 2002, p. 34).

2.14.2. How the workplace gives opportunities for learning

Workplace learning is dependent on two critical factors, the opportunities that the institution is prepared to afford in the form of work activities and needed assistance to learning on the one hand and, the individual's decision to participate in the various activities on the other hand (Billet, 2001). The effective combination of these leads to positive learning outcomes. The work activities and guidance which are referred to as affordances (ibid) are not influential in shaping the outcome of organised learning at the workplace only, but are also important in

informal learning including mentoring. Through participation in work activities, the individual strengthens what they already know, learns new things, and unlearns long-held misconceptions. How prepared the workplace is to serve as a learning ground may be ascertained from the daily activities and deliberate challenges that are presented to the individual and the support available to enable them to carry out the same. However, the affordances can contribute to building the capacity of the work only if the individual elects to be intentional in participating with the view of learning. Valsiner and van de Veer (2000) suggest that knowledge resides in individual workers and is created through social procedures including engaging with work colleagues, watching what they do, and choosing to practice what is observed. Thus, new knowledge is acquired through building relationships with team members and accepting guidance from more experienced peers and supervisors. Billet (2001) builds upon earlier research in support of the important role of the individual in a successful workplace and reiterates that:

“Learning new knowledge (i.e., concepts about work, procedures to undertake tasks or attitudes towards work) is effortful and refining the knowledge previously learnt are mediated by individuals’ existing knowledge, including their values about to which activities they should direct their energies. It would be mistaken, therefore, to ignore the role of human agency. Participation in work activities does not lead to the unquestioned learning of what is afforded by the workplace. Individuals are active agents in what and how they learn from these encounters” (p.211).

It is important to note that in workplace learning participation in activities of high importance, especially, is based on invitation to an individual or group. Participation is not afforded equally to everyone at the workplace. The invitation is based on factors, including what capabilities the individual is deemed to have, connections with other individuals or groups as well as superiors (Billet, 2001). While this suggests the need for the individual to build and maintain

relationships, it may also imply that he or she does not have full control of what activities afforded him or her to engage for capacity building and guidance that will be available to facilitate learning.

2.14.3. Workplace learning - Intentional and unintentional activities

It has been proposed that for workplace learning to be relevant to the individual and the work environment there has to be intentionality in creating a work environment that invites participation. Not only should the content of learning be customized to the needs of the institution but also the needs of the learner and those providing guidance to the learner. The two parties need to be motivated to be effortful in their engagement to have a successful outcome. In view of the role of guides in providing the requisite support to the learner, it is important to choose the right person in terms of experience and orientation to serve as a guide. This is because the guide should be able to get the learner to be motivated to learn even when they want to quit.

2.15. Socialization

New entrants into an organization or change from one position to another by an individual within the same organization requires for the staff to undergo some form of socialization to facilitate the integration of the person into the new environment or position. Fogarty and Dirsmith (2011) describe socialization as a process

“where individuals are thrust into the social milieu of an organization and exposed to group norms that aid them in interpreting their everyday work experiences. This experience regularizes their behaviours both by building a collective consciousness of the organization and by offering a broad repertoire of action strategies” (p.245).

Socialization in the workplace is intended to assist the individual to gain “mastery of critical skills required for effective performance, as well as the assumption of the attitudes that must accompany these activities.” (Forgarty 2000, p.13). The human resource department is expected to play a key role in this regard.

Teirney and Rhoads (1994) posit that higher education institutions have several ways that are used to socialize new academics that are aimed to minimize the mental agony and unexpected experiences they may confront in their new work environment. Some of the frequently used strategies of socialization include faculty development, orientation, and mentorship (Lichty 1999; Mullen & Forbes, 2000). While the first two tend to take place upon joining the university and for relatively short periods, mentorship may last for a much longer period and involves the building of social relationships between an inexperienced academic and an experienced and senior colleague where the latter guides and supports the former to grow along with shared areas of interest.

Though socialization is commonly associated with newcomers into an organization, a change of role or position requires the individual to be socialized as part of the transition.

Berdrow (2010) defines role socialization as “the process of learning expected values, attitudes and behaviours associated with a position in an organization as well as learning the tasks and interpersonal relationships” (p.501).

According to Smith and Stewart (1999), there are three steps that a HoD must go through for a successful changeover from one role to another within an organization. They explain that:

“a number of factors can hinder or facilitate the new chair’s transition into her or his role. Among these factors are the skills and knowledge brought from previous faculty roles, the impact of unexpected elements of the new job, and how the individual goes about learning the demands of tasks, roles, and interpersonal relationships” (p.29).

Berdrow (2010) extends the list by adding a fourth step which refers to how the Head of Department exits from the role at the end of his or her term. He explained that it is important for an incumbent to share the knowledge and experience gained with an incoming HoD before exiting the scene and should be available to mentor him or her. The research agrees with this view and advocates for it as part of the formalization of the process of transition in Ghanaian universities.

The importance of socialization in the transition of an academic to an appointed managerial leadership position as Head of Department cannot be over-emphasized. Bolman and Deal (1997) posit that the Head of Department should have an understanding of the structure, people management, interpersonal relationship, organizational politics, and the organizational culture as a whole to enable him or her to navigate the power dynamics and conflicts that are common in every institution. Role socialization plays a significant role in assisting the faculty to successfully assume the role upon appointment.

In an investigation of heads of business and liberal arts departments in a private university in the USA, Berdrow (2010) found that the role of Head of Department is linked to the specific environment of the university within which the individual works a connection he described as actor and agent relationship. This suggests that the capacity development of the HoD's capacity should pay attention to the characteristics and competencies an individual comes with to the position i.e., "knowledge, skills, perspectives, experiences, expectations and objectives" (p.2) to function as an actor and an agent of the university. These competencies may have been acquired from previous roles or jobs performed in the current institution or previous workplace. Though the expected outcome of the function may be defined in the job description the personal expectation and motivation of the HoD have an influence on the effective performance of the role hence the need for socialization to ensure an alignment.

The view that the Head of Department as an actor should have existing capabilities prior to the job aligns with managerial frameworks suggested by some scholars. For example, Adner and Helfat (2003) provide a concept of managerial framework that comprises three key competencies categorizations namely managerial human capital, managerial social capital, and managerial cognition. Managerial human capital refers to the totality of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that a person has learned in his or her personal, social, and professional life through formal and informal learning as well as experiences that are relevant to the job. A person-task fit ensures effective performance and achievement of results.

Complementing managerial human capital is managerial social capital which may be explained as the associations that the actor gets information from to facilitate his or her performance of the job. It includes the social and professional networks that the individual belongs to from which he or she learns best practices and also shares knowledge; platforms where there is the cross fertilization of ideas relevant to the role. Having managerial social capital is important for the role of HoD as it provides a source of information that the individual can rely on to students, faculty, and staff along in a harmonious environment for work to be successful.

A final key competency in the framework of Adner and Helfat (2003) that determines the managerial capabilities of an individual is managerial cognition. It refers to an employee's perspective of the job, his or her understanding of what it entails, and the purpose within the organization's strategic directive. Relating it to the job of HoD managerial cognition is about the academic's consideration of the job and how their personal belief and intellectual modes influence the decisions they make on the job.

In sum, the competencies approaches, and framework and socialization highlight the importance of a job holder in the case of the research on the Head of Department to have including the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are required for the successful performance of the multidimensional role of a leader of the academic department. While the individual may

have acquired these prior to joining, the university it is incumbent upon the institution to afford opportunity through a structured approach for the academic to enhance his, or her managerial capabilities for effective performance. Though socialization is normally done for newcomers into the university, it is essential for universities to have a planned socialization process for academics who are appointed into the position of Head of Department to assist them to not just to know the basics of the job, but the attitudes and interpersonal relationship required to enable the new appointee to successfully navigate the complexities of the job and university administrative system as a whole. This may suggest a much longer period of socialization than the usual brief orientation programme that is common in some universities, especially in Ghana.

2.16. Theoretical Framework

Theoretically, the study is underpinned by Vygotsky's social-cultural theory of learning, specifically, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Vygotsky (1978) created the term "zone of proximal development" to refer to the difference between the level at which a learner could function unassisted and the level to which the learner could be extended with expert assistance" (Vygotsky, 1978 cited in Ghosh, 2004, p.307). It highlights the point that in the social interaction between two participants in the zone assistance from the more competent person can get the less competent person to move from his or her existing level of development, the "zone of current development" to the ZPD through collaborative learning (Harland, 2003). The assistance which is referred to metaphorically as "scaffolding" include teaching, provision of resource material and feedback as well as an affordance of opportunity to the novice to develop. Simply put, ZPD is the difference between what a person can achieve working alone as compared to when they get support. Originally associated with children's development, the ZPD has in recent times being applied to adults (Wass & Golding, 2014), which resonates with Vygotsky's view of human development as a continuous process which then suggests that it

can happen at any stage in a person's life (Rogoff, 2003). Concerning the application of ZPD to work of adults, Engeström (1987) opines that “adults, it is the distance between the actual working level and the level of potential as determined through problem-solving in collaboration with peers. The ZPD is thus a dynamic zone within the current upper limit of the individual's or a community's developmental level of abilities and knowledge” (Engeström, 1987 cited in Kuusisari, 2011). Figure 1 illustrates movement from the zone of current development (ZCD) to the ZPD.

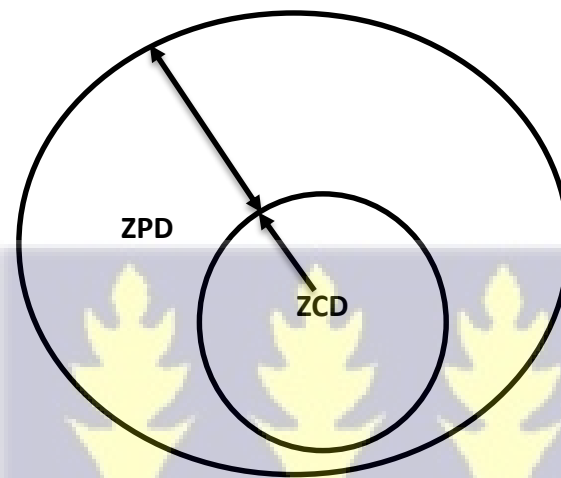


Figure 1 : Movement through the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) from the Zone of Current Development after successful scaffolding

Source: Harland (2003)

Applying the theory of adults Wass, Harland, and Mercer (2013) used the ZPD as a framework in qualitative research to find out how some undergraduate students of zoology learned critical thinking skills at the University of Otago, New Zealand. The study found that over the period of years 1 to 3, the students who initially showed minimal sign of critical thinking ability were able by year 3 to think critically and thanks to the support from their lecturers and peers. The students went on to take ownership of their learning as they took the place of their zoology research teachers among their mates, an indication that they had moved from their zone of current development in the first year to the ZPD by scaffolding. The study however noted that students' engagement among themselves often lacked the rigour expected in a critical thinking

learning situation as peers appeared to endorse the views of others without debate. Also, the more competent peers were sometimes considered annoying by their less competent due to the tendency of the former to show off. The study, therefore, noted that the ZPD could limit critical thinking. Kuusisari (2011) applied Vygotsky's ZPD in research to find out how teachers in an in-service training programme improved upon their teaching practices by learning through cooperating among their peers to help them link learning theories to knowledge gained from their daily work. The findings of the studies supported the collaborative-learning as a suitable approach to teacher development and recommended that future courses should follow the approach of ZPD.

There are several explanations of ZPD in the literature apparently as a result of an absence of clear guidance on its implementation by Vygotsky (Valsiner & van der Veer, 2000). Eun (2019) provides a summary of the three main interpretations which suggest that the ZPD has been taken to mean the "distance between an individual performance and assisted performance" whereby a more skilled person assists a less capable individual till the latter adopts the relevant skills and practices and starts to perform independently. Thus, "the distance between understood and active knowledge" which are learned through officially structured system, e.g. school or training programme and, through impulsive social interactions of a person with others in their daily activities respectively; and "the distance between individual activity and societal activity" which refers to social change which is achieved when persons cooperate to innovate social practices (Lave & Wenger, 1991 cited in Eun, 2019, p20). In other words, the capacity development of individual adults, for example, Head of Departments, may be effectively achieved through a combination of structured learning and informal learning. The collaboration between the less experienced in terms of managerial capacity and the more competent person is key to the realization of the set development objectives.

Lending support to the continued interest to explain aspects of the theory that seem inadequately addressed originally yet critical to getting the full meaning of ZPD, Eun (2019) suggests a reconceptualization of the ZPD informed by the works of other scholars. First, it suggests an expansion of the interpretation of the term “social” which is ascribed to the zone, to the bigger organizational setting within which the zone exists and influences the interaction therein (Daniels, 2001; Rogoff et al., 1993). Second, the expansion in the definition implies a recognition of the existence of “multiple voices” beyond those of the two participants within the zone to include the voice of an unseen and unspoken participant referred to as the ‘third voice’. It has been suggested that the third voice which is constantly present refers to the wider organizational context, for example, official and deep-rooted forces that exercise authority and communicate through the more competent person, the first voice, to shape the setting of the agenda in the zone (Cheyne & Tarulli, 1999). Thus, the third voice has significant influence in terms of the affordance of opportunity for the development of the less competent person, the second voice.

2.17. Application of the theoretical framework to current studies

Situating the forgoing in the context of the research it may be suggested the experienced and more competent academic managers represent the first voice, the less experienced academics are the second voice and University is the third voice. The University has an important role to play in terms of putting in place structured training programmes to develop the managerial and leadership capacity of less competent academics in this regard. This should be in addition to the spontaneous and experiential learning that seems to be the common way that academics are exposed to. It may also be suggested that whereas the University can control affordances to the less experienced academic through the more competent participants such as the Deans, and other experienced academic managers, the less competent academics also has the power to

avail themselves for further training or otherwise and learn from opportunities that may be afforded.

Based on the review of literature, the following conceptual framework was developed by the researcher:

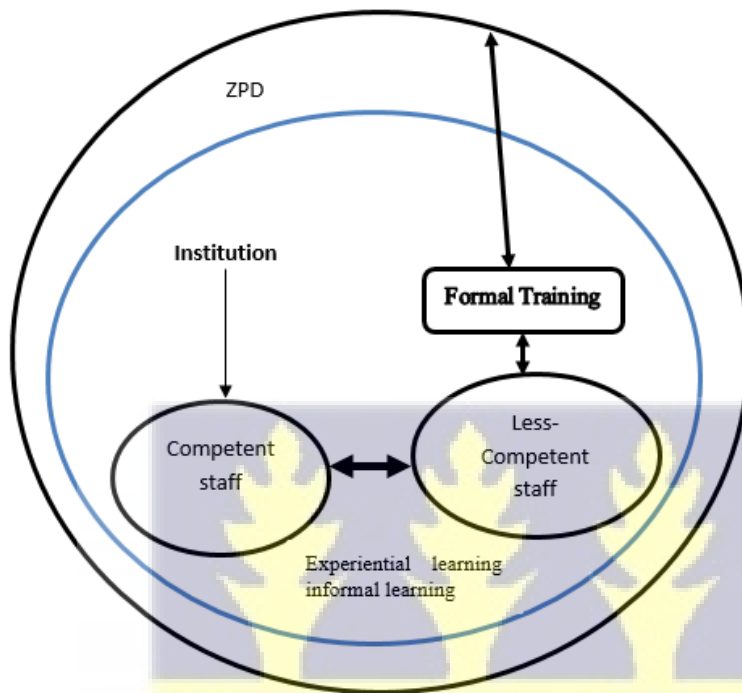


Figure 2 : A conceptual framework derived from the related literature

Source: Author's construct (2021)

The conceptual framework as constructed seeks to illustrate that the social interaction between a competent academic leader and a less competent academic plus an opportunity for formal training afforded by the institution/employer together with the agency of the less competent academic will ensure the development of managerial competencies of the less competent academic for the effective performance of the role of HoD. Thus, the less competent will move from the individual's zone of current development (ZCD) to the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Formal training including, short courses and workshop in managerial skills e.g., human relations, communication, negotiation and teambuilding should be organized by the university

for the less competent academic to prepare for academic leadership. The motivation and availability of the less academic to take advantage of the training of the training programme is equally important in his or her successful movement from ZCD to ZPD.

2.18. Chapter Summary

Effective performance in any field demands expertise gained through years of practice plus continuous relevant capacity development. In the business world, it is estimated that an individual need to acquire a minimum of a decade of preparation or 10,000 hours of practice to be competent in a specific area (Gladwell, 2008; Ericsson, Krampe, & Tesch-Romer, 1993). Successful companies take deliberate steps including making the budget allocation, identifying and implementing specific interventions to develop leadership capacity, and put in place plans for succession. Academic leadership is the backbone of a university and should be given the necessary attention in terms of planned capacity development for the effective performance of the role. From the literature review, it is evident that the HoD role is strategic in the wider university leadership and management system therefore the competencies needed to interact effectively within the environment should be the focus of any capacity development programme for the position of Head of Department. Notwithstanding the critique of the typologies of competencies in the literature, they have been dominant in the practice of human resource development as guidelines for the employee and firm performance and development. This study acknowledges the relevance of workplace learning to building the capacity of academic staff. However, it is necessary for universities to ensure that learning is focused on core knowledge, skills, and attitudes required to enhance the managerial competencies of academics for the leadership role of Head of Department to assist them should they assume duty since every academic is a potential academic leader though it may not be the individual's career objective from the onset. Leaving it to chance may not be an effective way to get the

desired results. The university has a key role to play in terms of putting in place a structured approach to developing the capacity of inexperienced academics for academic leadership and management, an approach whereby the less competent individual is able to move to a higher level of development with the assistance of a more competent colleague, the university providing the right opportunities for experiential learning and relevant formal learning. Planned learning at work will ensure that the socialization and competencies development interventions have set objectives to facilitate monitoring of capacity development in the areas of interest to the business of the university.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the data collection methods that were employed in this study. It describes the approaches and processes used to select respondents for the study, the method used in collecting data.

3.2. Research Paradigm

The philosophical stance of a researcher is important in the choice of a research paradigm that guides and influences the research process. Jonker & Pennink, (2010) define a research paradigm as “a set of fundamental assumptions and beliefs as to how the world is perceived, which then serves as a thinking framework that guides the behaviour of the researcher” (p. 3). For the study, the researcher used the interpretivist paradigm because it was more appropriate on the basis of its ontological, epistemological, axiological, and methodological assumptions which are distinct from other research paradigms. It refers to methods that highlight the “meaningful nature of people’s character and participation in both social and cultural life” (Chowdhury, 2014, p.433).

The cardinal belief of interpretivist paradigm is its ontological assumption that reality is socially constructed and not controlled objectively (Husserl, 1965), that the lived experiences of people and how they interpret and make meaning of them are credible social facts of scientific inquiry (Davidson, 2013). It argues that social actors construct reality from their subjective experiences and viewpoints therefore there cannot be a universal truth or objectivity (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2011). As one of the key methodologists of qualitative research, Merriam (1998) observes, “reality is not an objective entity; rather, there are multiple interpretations of reality” (p.22). Thus, the paradigm gives a better chance for individuals to get insights into

the happenings in their lives in a particular situation or context (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). The Interpretivists attach importance to rich contextual descriptions which are in contrast with the positivist stance that scientific objectivity is obtained from the natural sciences that deal with ‘brute’ facts, the reality that exists independent of human activity (Montushi, 2014). Contributing to the debate, Montushi (2014) argues that “the facts that science, any science, deals with are rarely ‘brute’. They are always partly ‘made real’ by the theories, the explanations, the categories, the experiments that different scientific investigations resort to in dealing with those facts” (p.127). This view is supported by earlier research works that stress that social facts can exist where there is consensus in the relevant discourse if they are represented as such (Searle, 1995).

In terms of the epistemology, the interpretivists believe that people’s knowledge is constructed on the basis of their subjective knowledge and experiences, that knowledge is co-created by the participants and the researcher. In this regard, interpretivism endorses the importance of qualitative data in the search for knowledge (Kaplan & Maxwell, 1994). Similarly, Yazan (2015), opines that “Researchers’ views about the nature and production of knowledge, their epistemological bent in the brief, underlie the inquiry project they conceptualize and operate. It permeates every step of the entire investigation process, from the selection of the phenomenon of interest that is put under scrutiny to the way the ultimate report is composed” (p.137). The research’s intimacy with the process as well as the participants has been critiqued on the basis that the data collected tends to be imbued with the values of the participants and the researcher (Walsham, 1995). Though positivism considers this axiological assumption as one of the weaknesses of the interpretivist paradigm, Weber (1949) argues in defence of the latter and points out that individual biases assist in determining what the researcher is interested in investigating, and that values in a scientific investigation do not make it unscientific per se. Writing on the issue of researcher’s subjectivity and bias in interpretive research, Mehra (2002)

highlights the fact that it permeates the entire research starting with the choice of a topic through to collecting and interpreting data to present the results:

“A researcher's personal beliefs and values are reflected not only in the choice of methodology and interpretation of findings but also in the choice of a research topic. In other words, what we believe in determines what we want to study. The traditional positivist research paradigm has taught us to believe that what we are studying often has no personal significance. Or, that the only reason driving our research is intellectual curiosity (which is a valid reason on its own). But more often than not, we have our personal beliefs and views about a topic - either in support of one side of the argument or on the social, cultural, political sub-texts that seem to guide the development of the argument” (p.5).

The researcher agrees with the above view because as a human resource practitioner she believes that employees should have the requisite knowledge, skills, and attitudes as well as experience for the effective and efficient performance of the jobs or roles that they are assigned by the employer; that the employer has a duty to train and prepare individuals for leadership and managerial roles particularly to ensure the success of the institution. Additionally, working in administration and human resources at a university for over a decade has exposed the researcher to some of the challenges of academics who are appointed to lead and manage academic departments without the relevant prior training and preparation and how it affects their performance and delivery of services to customers especially students. The researcher wanted to find out more about the issue from the experiences of the Head of Department in similar institutions. These personal views in addition to the researcher's understanding of the academic department as fundamental in the execution of the academic business of the university influenced the research interest and determined the topic of the study: *Development*

of managerial competencies for the role of academic leadership: Experiences of Heads of Departments of Selected Universities in Ghana.

The study interest was driven by the researcher's passion for professional practice. The researcher, therefore, decided on the study topic because she saw a "personal connection" as a practitioner in the field of higher education administration generally, and human resource management specifically. The study is also informed by the need to "achieve continuity" with who she was, what she has done in past for more than a decade and doing currently, and what she wants to be in future in terms of her profession and career as well as her intellectual and philosophical orientation (Mehra, 2002, p.5).

Similarly, Montushi (2014) stresses the point that social science as a scientific inquiry "makes the facts it refers to socially accountable and open to value assessment" (p.130). She argues that values should not only be recognized but also be used strategically in carrying out research once they are declared.

On the issue of methodology, Lin (1998) explains that the interpretivist paradigm uses methods that allow for the researcher to investigate the existence or non-existence of causal relationship as well as its manifestation within the context that it takes places. Interpretivist researchers, therefore, use methods that enable them to find out not just what happens but the context and manner in which it does. Kelliher (2005) puts it succinctly: "*By its nature, interpretivism promotes the value of qualitative data in pursuit of knowledge*" (p.123). The methods of natural science of positivism cannot be applied in such circumstances. To be able to conduct the research effectively the methodological assumptions of the interpretivist paradigm were suitable.

Not only do the assumptions of interpretivism fit the researcher's philosophical orientation but they are also relevant to the phenomenon that was investigated i.e., experiences of individual

HoDs in regard to the development of their managerial competencies for their jobs by their various universities to enable them to perform their duties effectively as managers and leaders of academic departments. To conduct such a study required probing how the universities prepared academics for departmental headship, what were the areas of focus in terms of relevant competencies for the job, what interventions were in place to develop Head of Department capacity before and after assumption of duty, and whether or not there were differences between public and private universities in terms of approach to building the capacity for the role? Such questions elicited the information that could best be provided by individuals who were knowledgeable because of their experiences, the Head of Department who is closely associated with the phenomenon and willing to share their stories openly and honestly. Additionally, the human resource managers responsible for employee capacity development in the universities and the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC) which is regulator were of interest to the research. Obviously, the experiences and values of the researcher and those of the participants influenced to a large extent the research process, including how data was gathered and analysed. Knowledge was co-constructed by the researcher and participants. In sum, the choice of the interpretive paradigm was justified because it allowed the researcher to understand the diversity between individuals in their social roles as opposed to conducting research using objects (Saunders et al., 2009). The interpretivist paradigm was employed, and the research design and methods used were based on qualitative tradition.

3.3. Research Approach

The qualitative approach was appropriate because in addition to richness it enabled the researcher to “capture the interpretations and experiences” of individual Head of Department in terms of their activities as managers and leaders of academic departments, as well as the systems put in place by their specific universities to develop their capacity for the job. The

approach was preferred because it allowed for the issue to be explored to expose how the HoDs understood their job and the kind of competencies needed for the role and how the universities prepared them to be able to perform effectively. This is not to suggest a deficit of research in the area (Shawa, 2019; Seale & Cross, 2015; Alabi & Alabi, 2014). However, the literature on academic leadership development in Ghanaian universities, in general, appears scanty more so a comparative study of public and private universities which is the focus of the research. This suggests that there is “a problem or issue that needs to be explored” (Silverman, 2005 p.39) and the issue is managerial competencies development of academics for appointed to a departmental leadership role from the perspectives of heads of departments in selected public and private universities. The appropriateness of the choice of this approach is reinforced by Creswell (2010) who explains that the qualitative approach is where “the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on the multiple meanings of individual experiences socially and historically constructed, intending to develop a theory or pattern or advocacy/participatory perspectives (i.e., political, issue-oriented, collaborative, or change-oriented) or both” (p.183). The qualitative research approach, therefore, seems to suitable to use because to have a deep understanding of the situation, the information needed to come from key actors. This view is echoed by Merriam and Grenier (2019) who opine that qualitative research search to find and show participants' perspectives, exposing new insights of people's lives and their social environment. They lay emphasis on the importance of participants' perspectives as a main technique of investigation to gain insights of a social phenomenon through the lens of experience. It is worth noting that the insights that were gained from the individual experiences of the key informants may not have led to the development of theory, however, it is expected to make a significant contribution to the advancement of literature on the issue of developing academic leadership in general and in Ghanaian universities in particular.

The researcher's justification for the choice of approach was reinforced by some reasons. First, Creswell (1998) recommended for the use of qualitative approach namely research question beginning with:

“a how or a what” when the “topic needs to be explored” when the researcher has an “interest in writing in a literary style”, “the need to present a detailed view”, where the “audiences are receptive to qualitative research” and to “emphasize the researcher's role as an active learner who can tell the story from the participant's view rather than as an 'expert' who passes judgment on participants” (p.17-18).

These criteria resonated with the study. As already indicated the purpose of the research was to find out what were the experiences of individual HoDs of how the universities developed their competencies for the core duties that HoDs performed prior to the assumption of their roles. Questions such as “what are the core duties involved in the role HoD? and “how does university build the managerial capacity of academics for the role of HoD?” were used to elicit information from the participants including the HoDs and a representative each of the Human Resources (HR) Departments of the two case universities and the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC). The use of an interview guide with open-ended questions prompted the participants to describe the unique situation in their various universities. As they give insights into their activities and experiences the researcher picked up new issues that were not part of the original guide and pursued a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. Thus, obtaining detailed reports from the key informant was important to the study. The HoDs and the representatives of HR and GTEC were familiar with qualitative methods and were willing to participate, particularly, as it gave them opportunity to express their views in their own words on a matter that was of interest to them.

Second, it is important to note that the researcher, as a Human Resource practitioner in a Ghanaian university, was conscious of her bias in the study. The primary inspiration for the study emerged from her professional experience of facilitating capacity development for academics and non-academic employees at the Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA). The relevance of having initial thoughts on the phenomenon being studied is endorsed by Sigglekow (2007) who explains that “it seems useful (and inevitable) that our observations be guided and influenced by some initial hunches and frames of reference” (p.21).

The researcher’s “frame of reference” was her professional experience. The researcher undertook the study to learn more from the experiences of Head of Department and HR officers from other universities with the aim to find new ideas in regard to a structured approach to prepare academics for managerial leadership through the usage of workplace learning. To be able to understand and document the subjective experiences and interpretation of these multiple key informants to contribute to human resource practice in universities in particular, and the literature on the development of capacity for academic leadership in general, the researcher took off her hat as an expert, and become an active learner by keeping an open mind in the research process. By so doing, the researcher’s biases were minimized which contributed to enhancing the value of the study (Denzin, 1989). This was further improved by the application of criteria for rigour in qualitative research (Houghton et al., 2013) that made it possible for the study to focus more on the participants' situation and their stories than the investigator.

3.4. Research Design

The research used qualitative case study design, specifically, Stake’s (1996) collective case study that refers to the study of more than one case to probe a particular phenomenon for deeper understanding. The design was chosen because the research was conducted in public and private universities and also based on characteristics espoused in the literature which the

researcher deemed appropriate for the study. Yazen (2015) from his comparative analysis of some works of three notable case study methodologists, Yin (2002), Merriam (1998), and Stake (1995) provided insights into the different approaches of case study methods in educational practice. He examines a case study from the design through to data collection, analysis, and validation based on their epistemic orientation. The examination noted that though Yin does not declare his philosophical orientation, his emphasis for case study researcher to “maximize four conditions related to design quality: construct validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability” (Yin, 2002, p.19) connote post positivists, stance while Merriam and Stake lean towards constructivism. They argued that case study underpin qualitative research as reality is not objective, but constructed from people interacting with their world, hence the existence of multiple reality. The researcher in agreement with this epistemic orientation uses a qualitative research design specifically.

When it comes to the definition of case study, Yazen (2015), observes that Yin’s definition of the case as “a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between a phenomenon and context are not clear and the researcher has little control over the phenomenon and context” (Yin, 2002, p.13) suggests that whatever the researcher does should be in line with theoretical prepositions. Conversely, Stake does not favour an exact definition arguing that it may mean different things to people in a different field. Rather, he defines a case as an “integrated system”. Merriam provides an elaborate view of a case “as a thing, a single entity, a unit around which there are boundaries” (1998, p.27) and a qualitative case study research as “an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a program, an institution, a person, a process, or a social unit” (p. xiii).

On the issue of design, it was noted that Yin suggests a five-part study design consisting of research questions, propositions, unit of analysis, connecting data to the propositions, and criteria for interpreting the findings. He stresses the need for the researcher to ensure

consistency of linkage of one component to the next from the research question through to the conclusion. In line with the positive demand for rigor, Yin (2002) suggests that the quality of the design study should be measured focusing on construct validity, internal validity, external validity, and reliability. Taking a divergent view, Stake (1995), suggests flexibility in the design to allow researchers to make changes during the research if the need arises precisely because of the dynamic human situations qualitative situations deal with. He identifies three kinds of case studies They include an intrinsic case study, thus, to understand an issue which is “dominant and of highest importance”, instrumental case study where “the issue” is the focus of the research from beginning to the end of the study, and collective case study which involves more than one to investigate a phenomenon (Stake, 1995, p.16). Merriam (1998) gives a comprehensive outline of qualitative study design which comprises of “conducting a literature review, constructing a theoretical framework, identifying a research problem, crafting and sharpening research questions, and selecting the sample (purposive sampling)”

For data collection, Yazen (2015) further notes that Stake’s protocol suggests preparing a data-gathering plan which should include “definition of case list of research questions, identification of helpers, data sources, allocation of time, expenses, intended reporting” (Stake, 1995, p. 51). On instruments for data collection, Stake suggests the use of observation, interview, and document review in qualitative case study research. Not only does Merriam (1998) agree with the Stake’s data collection tools, but she also specifies some techniques concerning interviews in particular, including “types, asking good questions, questions to avoid, probes, the interview guide, beginning the interview, the interaction between interviewee and respondent, recording and evaluating interview data” that researchers should employ for the optimum effect of the data collections tools. On the issue of data analysis, Merriam and Stake both see it as a process in which the researcher appreciates and understands information the participants provide as well as what the researcher has observed and read, a process whereby data gathering and

analysis happen concurrently, a view that is at variance with Yinian approach. When it comes to data validation Yin from his positivist orientation stresses the importance for researchers to ensure construct validity by triangulation of various sources of evidence and member checking, internal validity by using pattern matching, external validity through generalization, and reliability through case protocols. Addressing the issue of validity from a qualitative perspective, Stake suggests four strategies that encompassed the data source, investigator, theory, and methodological triangulations. Similarly, Merriam provides further clarification by identifying strategies including “member checks, long-term observation, peer examination, participatory research, and disclosure of researcher bias; the use of thick description, typicality or modal categories, and multi-site designs; as well as three techniques including an explanation of investigator’s position with regards to the study, triangulation, and use of an audit trail” to respond to concerns about internal and external validity and reliability which are of positivist orientation (Merriam 1998, p.178).

Noting the definitions and key characteristics of the case study methodology elucidated in previous sections, the researcher used Stake’s (1997) collective case study design because the inquiry of the phenomenon development of managerial competencies of academic leaders involved two cases, two different universities. The case was also “bounded” in the sense that the individual academic HoDs were working in different or the same school or college in the two different universities and the researcher was interested in getting a detailed description of the phenomenon pertaining to the institutions from the experiences of the HoDs. This will help find solutions to actual management issues that face academic leaders in their day-to-day working lives. Creswell (2013) suggests that the case study method “explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case), or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information... and reports a case description and case themes” (p.97). Indeed, studies have suggested that the case study

methodology is best suited for organizational studies because normally, the investigation is about “real management situations”. The study is carried out with the key participation of individuals closely associated with the phenomenon and the context (Gibbert et al., 2008; Amabile et al., 2001; Leonard-Barton, 1990). As practitioners, informants are assumed to have expert knowledge (Graebnar et al., 2012) to enable them to proffer meaningful suggestions. Gibbert et al. (2008) simply put it that case studies “represent a methodology that is ideally suited to creating managerial relevant knowledge” (p.1465). It is important to emphasize that the need for managerial leadership is a real issue of interest for organizations and higher education institutions. Universities are faced with modern challenges that require competent and capable leaders to solve in order to meet the demands of various stakeholders. The selected cases, the University of Ghana and the Valley View Universities, a public and a private university respectively are no exception. Similar to elsewhere, the universities are confronted with issues of limited financial resources, technological challenges, providing access to quality and affordable education, producing graduates to meet the demands of the 21st-century labour market. The situation requires finding new ways of managing universities, and this requires academics with the requisite competencies to be able to effectively balance the managerial and leadership responsibilities of the role of Head of Department. This is a management level which is very important in the leadership structure of higher education institution.

While studies have been done in academic leadership in general, there was the need to study specific cases. This view is supported by Sigglekow (2007), who explains that “in fact, it is often desirable to choose a particular organization precisely because it is very special in the sense of allowing one to gain certain insights that other organizations would not be able to provide” (p.20). This view resonates with the interest of the study.

While acknowledging views in the literature to the effect that the use of a single case or multiple cases do not necessarily result in rich theoretical insights (Dyer & Wilkins, 1991), the multiple

case study approach was suitable due to its merits that favour the comparative nature of the study. Specifically, multiple case study approach enables an appreciation of the differences and similarities between the cases (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Stake, 1995); examine the data both inside each situation and across situations and tease out similar or contrasting results (Yin, 2003) that exists. It enhances the reliability of the findings (Baxter & Jack, 2008). For this study, the researcher analysed the data gathered from the key informants within each of the two universities. This was to aid to identify differences or similarities in areas such as competencies needed for the job, management and leadership training academics received before their appointments as HoD, and after, as well as the strategies used by which the training was done if any. The researcher then compared findings between the public and private universities to establish any similarities, or divergence, in terms of the approaches used by the universities to prepare academics for the leadership role of HoD. The attempt to study academic leadership development in public-funded and private universities in Ghana and comparing strategies used by the oldest institution in each of the categories at the time of the research will enhance readers' appreciation of factors unique to each to facilitate mapping of common practices. It is important to note that the researcher encountered some challenges in studying multiple cases. The study was expensive and took a lot of time to complete. However, its reliability has been enhanced because of the multiple levels of scrutiny of data.

3.5. Sources of Data

Data were gathered from both primary and secondary sources. Primary data were obtained from in-depth interviews of Head of Departments from the selected universities, a representative of the human resource department of each of the universities, and representative of Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC). In addition, referred journal articles, books, and the internet as well as the universities' documents, including the handbook for the Head of Department, were used as sources of data. The multiple sources of data used allowed for triangulation as

data collected from the two case studies were compared “to determine the extent to which findings could be confirmed” (Houghton et al., 2013, p.14). Furthermore, data gathered from the field were compared with the literature review as well as information from other documentary sources for confirmation. The data collected from these different sources using different methods showed consistency and suggested completeness as a comprehensive representation of the phenomenon of managerial competencies development of academic leaders was done effectively (Casey & Murphy, 2009). This contributed to the strengthening of the credibility especially and the rigour of the study generally (Lincoln & Guba ,1985; Polit & Beck, 2006).

3.6. Population

The population for the research consisted of academic leaders, HoDs, heads of human resource departments of the University of Ghana and Valley View University (VWV), and management level staff of Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC).

3.7. Target Population

The target population was all heads of departments in the two universities. A representative each from the human resource departments of the study universities, and GTEC, were also included. The Human resource representatives in the selected universities were included in the population, because, they have responsibility for the development and implementation of human resource management policies, including staff development as well as coordinate training and development activities for employees not excluding academics. They were involved as key informants who should be competent and knowledgeable of the phenomenon being investigated and will be “able and willing to communicate about them” (Kamar et al., 1993, p.1634). The GTEC is the state agency responsible for setting the standards for, and monitoring quality assurance of tertiary institutions, and is assumed to be able to provide information on the competencies required for the role of Head of Department.

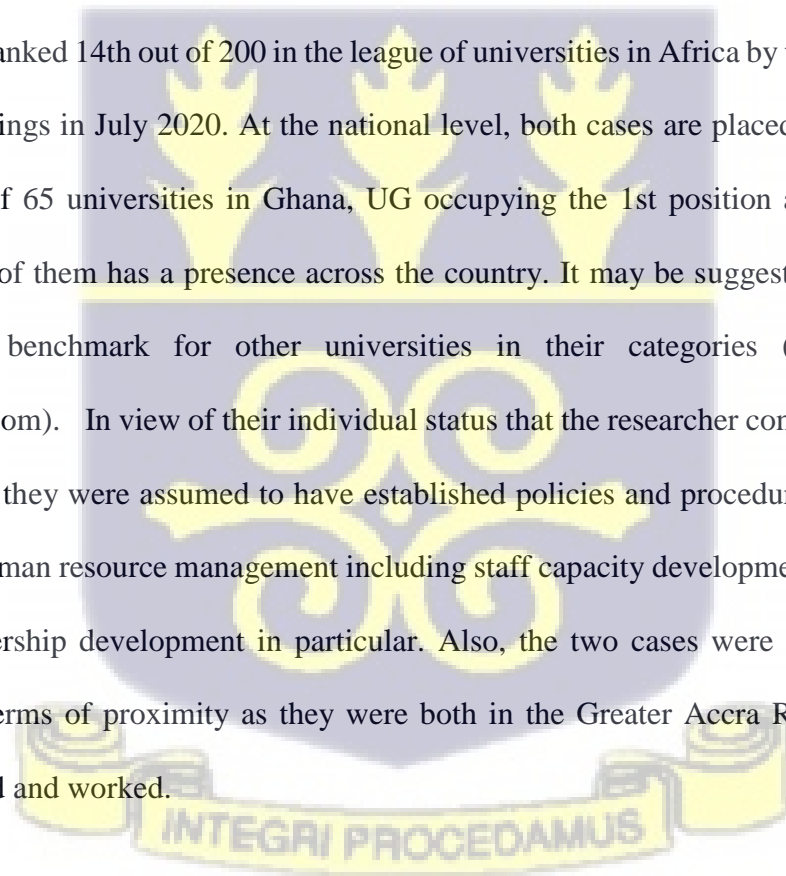
3.8. Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The research included only those who were appointed as Head of Departments. Faculty who were not so appointed were excluded. This was to enable the study to benefit from appropriate persons who have lived experience of the subject of investigation.

3.9. Sampling

3.9.1. Sampling of cases

The researcher selected the cases, University of Ghana (UG) and the Valley View University (VWV) based on the positions of the two as the oldest universities among the public and private universities in Ghana respectively, and their recognition globally and locally. The University of Ghana was ranked 14th out of 200 in the league of universities in Africa by the Times Higher Education rankings in July 2020. At the national level, both cases are placed in top positions in the league of 65 universities in Ghana, UG occupying the 1st position and VWV at 8th position. Each of them has a presence across the country. It may be suggested that the cases serve as the benchmark for other universities in their categories (www.ug.edu.gh; www.unRank.com). In view of their individual status that the researcher considered the cases as trendsetters, they were assumed to have established policies and procedures for as well as systems and human resource management including staff capacity development in general and academic leadership development in particular. Also, the two cases were accessible to the researcher in terms of proximity as they were both in the Greater Accra Region where the researcher lived and worked.



3.9.2. Sample Size

A total of thirteen (13) participants were sampled out of twenty planned for the study. It consisted of five (5) HoDs from each of the two universities, and one represented each from Human Resource departments of UG, and VVW, and a representative from the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC).

In determining the appropriate sample size for the study, the researcher noted a lack of agreement on the exact sample size for qualitative studies in the literature. This is emphasized by Patten (2002) who postulates that “qualitative sampling designs specify minimum sample based on expected reasonable coverage of the phenomenon given the purpose of the study and stakeholder interests.” Thus, the nature of the study and the depth of the interviews expected influences the decision on sample size rather than the “methodological rules”. Notwithstanding the apparent lack of consensus on adequate sample size for qualitative inquiry, the researcher noted some general guidelines of ranges by some qualitative methodologists. Morse (1994) recommends six (6) interviews for phenomenological studies while Creswell’s (1998) suggests a range between five and twenty-five interviews. Contributing to the debate, Landauer (1993) proposes a range of six (6) to twelve (12) participants based on his qualitative research on evaluators detection of usability challenges of a system. For Kuzel (1992), the objective of the study and the characteristics of the sample should determine the sample size. He thus proposes six (6) to eight (8) and twelve (12) to twenty (20) participants for a homogenous sample and heterogenous sample respectively, the latter being particularly recommended. Thus, “when looking for disconfirming evidence or trying to achieve maximum variation” (Kuzel, 1992, p.41). Similarly, Guest et al. (2006), explain that where the aim of the research “is to understand common perceptions and experiences among a group of relatively homogeneous individuals, twelve (12) interviews should suffice” (p.79). Their opinion was backed by evidence from their research using in-depth interviews involving sixty women from two West

African nations which showed that “basic elements of meta themes” were emerged by the sixth interview and data saturation was set in within the initial twelve (12) interviews (ibid, p.59). They, however, advise that in the choice of sampling methods including purposive sampling, a larger sample size should be used where the area of study is unclear and the group of participants are heterogeneous, particularly if the aim is to find differences or similarities between the groups. Specifically, for case studies, Creswell (2007) recommends four (4) to five (5) respondents while Yin (2009) proposes six (6) participants. Merriam (1998) proposes some flexibility by explaining that appropriate sample size is “an adequate number of participants, sites, or activities to answer the question posed at the beginning of the study ...” (p.64).

The foregoing literature on views of various qualitative methodologists concerning sample size supported the decision of the researcher to conduct thirteen (13) interviews. In view of the fact that the participants shared elements of homogeneity i.e., academics, HoDs in universities were selected purposively, the data from the 13 in-depth interviews not only answered the research questions adequately, but also showed repetition of information which indicated data saturation (Saunders et al., 2018). There was “information redundancy” by the 13th interview (Sandelowski, 2008, p.875). Grady (1998) explains data saturation “as the point at which new data tend to be redundant of data already collected. In interviews, when the researcher begins to hear the same comments again and again, data saturation is being reached... It is then time to stop collecting information and to start analysing what has been collected” (p.26). In addition to determining saturation of the data as a whole, the researcher also noted data saturation at individual participant level when the researcher felt she had a deep appreciation of what the participant’s view was, at which point there was no need for further search for information (Legard et al., 2003). Based on what the researcher was hearing across participants’ stories,

from and within individual accounts, the researcher decided to terminate the data collection having conducted 13 interviews.

It is common knowledge that in conducting research getting one competent, willing and available informant in an organization to provide insights into institutional matters can sometimes be difficult, let alone several. Yet the researcher used multiple key informants within each of the universities to limit possibilities of staining and distorting the report of informants from real situations owing to informant predisposition and errors (Nutt, 1986, Huber & Power, 1985). The interrogation of multiple informants during data collection has been suggested as an important strategy to improve the trustworthiness of the reports because it introduces multiple realities (Golden, 1992). In conducting research in the organizational environment, it has been found that multiple informants' reports are more desirable than a single informant report because it minimizes the variations in participant's stories (Garrit, 2002). For example, in the University of Ghana, the informants included were from different Colleges and Schools. This gave the benefit of enhancing the information from each participant.

Of course, the usage of multiple key informants is not without challenges i.e. "selection problem" which refers to the informant's official role in the organization by virtue of which they are assumed to be knowledgeable of the subject under investigation, and being competent enough to provide the requisite information accurately, and "perceptual agreement problem" which refers to variation in reports of multiple informants not because they are not competent but owing to their individual viewpoint (Golden, 1992; Hambrick, 1985). To minimize the possible impact of these challenges, informants who were selected had served in their respective universities as HoDs for reasonable periods of time. For example, the length of service of the informants as lecturers ranged from seven to twenty years and as Head of Departments from two to four years being one and two terms respectfully. Some acted as Head

of Departments for up to one year before being appointed substantive. The researcher assumed that the informants' length of service in the organization gave them exposure to its internal environment and close connectedness to the issue of investigation which therefore made them adequately knowledgeable and competent to provide insightful information. In regard to the problem of perceptual disagreement, it was guided by a consensual approach which involves multiple informants to have a common stance on areas of the contested. It has been suggested that achieving such an agreement may improve the quality of the data as trustworthiness "results from the heated, intense, and biased confrontation between somewhat biased ideas of somewhat biased individuals" (Mitroff, 1972, p.615). Indeed, the researcher was led to an in-depth understanding of the study through interrogation of diverse views of informants from the same university on similar issues.

3.9.3. Sampling Procedures

The study employed non-probability methods, specifically purposive sampling, to select participants. By this technique, only academics who served in the position of HoD were identified and recruited (Elfil & Negida, 2017), as they were assumed to have key information that was relevant to the research. It was important to get participants who were willing to share "their story" in a candid manner (Creswell, 2007, p.133). The maximum variation strategy of purposive sampling was applied to recruit subgroups of HoDs to enable a distinction between these subgroups. In this regard, their length of experience in the university, experience in the roles, professional and academic qualifications, and field of study guided the recruitment of the participants (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The researcher used these factors assuming that variations in qualifications and area of specialization may give the HoD distinct expertise that may influence their need, or otherwise, for leadership or managerial competencies development. The researcher further assumed that their length of experience in the university

would expose them to some leadership and managerial capacity development that may have prepared them for the role. Similarly, the researcher expected that the length of experience and the rank of the representatives of HR of the cases and GTEC would enable them to provide relevant information. Following the characteristics identified, the researcher recruited 15 participants for the study as indicated in table 2.

Table 2 : Distribution of participants based on characteristics

| Institutions | HoD's characteristics | No. selected |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|
| University of Ghana | Associate Professor | 3 |
| | Senior Lecturer | 2 |
| | PhD | 5 |
| | Management discipline | 2 |
| | Information Science Technology | 1 |
| | Health Science | 1 |
| | Political Science | 1 |
| | More than 10 years | 1 |
| | Up to 10 years | |
| Less than 10 years | | |
| Valley View University | Senior Lecturer | 3 |
| | Lecturer | 2 |
| | PhD | 3 |
| | MPhil | 2 |
| | Mathematics | 1 |
| | Nursing | 1 |
| | Management | 2 |
| | Information Technology | 1 |
| | More than 10 years | 2 |

| | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| | Up to 10 years | 1 |
| | Less than 10 years | 2 |
| University of Ghana | Representative of Human Resource Department: Not below Senior Assistant Registrar | 1 |
| Valley View University | Representative of Human Resource Department: Not below Senior Assistant Registrar | 1 |
| Ghana Tertiary Education Commission | Representative: Not below Senior Assistant Registrar | 1 |

3.10 Data collection

3.10.1. Data Collection Instrument

The general interview guide approach (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003) was used. The interview guide was composed of one ice-breaker question, one structured demographically oriented question with five sub-questions, three open-ended main questions each probed further depending on the response of the participants to the initial question.

The open-ended questions related to the activities of HoD and the development of their managerial competencies allowed the participants not only the flexibility to recollect their experiences and tell their stories, but it also enabled the researcher to “ensure that the same general areas of information are collected from each interviewee...” (McNamara, 2009 cited in Turner, 2010 p.755-756). In this regard, two interviewing techniques namely “event tracking” whereby each of the HoDs was asked to recount what preparation the individual received before assuming the role and, “courtroom questioning” which involved the use of probing questions by the researcher to minimize possible biases of participant’s self -

description (Tzeng 2018, p.629) strengthened the usefulness of the interview guide. The guide was divided into the following three areas of inquiry:

- discussion of core duties of a Head of Department,
- discussion of competencies needed for the role of a Head of Department
- discussion of strategies used by universities to develop managerial competencies of academics for the role of a Head of Department

Using the interview guide enabled the researcher to adapt the questions depending on how a participant answered earlier questions, thus, making it possible for a “personal approach” to each interview (Turner, 2010, p.755). The interview guide was peer-reviewed to enhance its validity and reliability to elicit the appropriate information to answer the research problem and objectives.

3.10.2. Data collection procedure

In-depth interviews were used to elicit the needed information from the participants.

Prior to conducting the interviews, the researcher identified target participants and asked them to participate in the interview. She explained the objective of the study stressing that it was for academic purposes only. Those who accepted to take part received a letter of introduction issued to the researcher by the Department of Adult Education and Human Resource Studies to facilitate the data collection. Initially, the interviews were to be conducted face-to-face with HoDs and HR Managers and representatives of GTEC at their various work premises where the researcher would visit to interview by appointment to allow the participants to feel more relaxed and comfortable to provide information on the study (Turner, 2010; McNamara, 2009). Face-to-face interviews were judged appropriate because the researcher was interested in in-depth interviews. However, during the period of data gathering, there was an outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic and one of the safety protocols included restrictions on in-person social interaction and virtual interaction was encouraged. Some of the participants were therefore not

available to be interviewed in-person at their offices. This necessitated the addition of telephone interviews as a data collection tool cognizance of the divergent views on its usage in the literature on qualitative research methodology.

It has been noted that although telephone interviews are employed widely in quantitative research, they are relatively used in qualitative research (Novick, 2008; Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004). The literature seems to portray telephone mode as a less attractive substitute for a face-to-face interview and used rarely (Opdenakker, 2006; Sweet, 2002). Some of the reasons adduced for the apparent bias against the use of telephone interviews include perception of low-quality data as a result of the absence of non-verbal signals with the potential to “inhibit the establishment of rapport so essential for in-depth qualitative interviewing” (Stephens, 2007, p.205). Other factors include lack of opportunity to dig deep probe, possible misrepresentation of the research and the participants which may result in inaccurate data (Nunakoosing, 2005). However, telephone interview has been described as a “versatile” data collection tool (Carr & Worth, 2001, p.521) that allows the researcher to reach participants in a different location with travel cost, enhances participant’s control of their environment and their willingness to talk without any inhibition and allows the researcher to take notes without being noticed (Novick, 2008). On the issue of quality of data, Chappel (1999), and Carr (1999), in their separate studies confirmed the richness, detail, and high quality of data they generated through telephone interviews. Indeed, after exploring the usage of the telephone interview and the bias against it, Novick (2008) noted that there was insignificant documented evidence on the merits and demerits of the telephone in comparison to face-to-face interviews and therefore suggests that “given the lack of evidence, it is unwarranted to favour any particular interview mode for qualitative interviews. Nevertheless, face-to-face interviews appear to be viewed as the “gold standard for qualitative research” (p.394). The foregoing literature review supported the researcher’s use of both face-to-face and telephone interviews.

In setting the stage for the interviews the researcher was guided by the principles suggested by McNamara (2009), including a selection of a venue where there will be less interference; informing the participant of the purpose of the interview and assuring them of how their confidentiality will be kept; tell them how the interview will be conducted and the estimated time it will take; explain how the researcher may be contacted after the interview and give them the opportunity to ask questions if any before commencing the interview, and find a way to capture the information in addition to the researcher's ability to remember. Accordingly, each of the participants decided the time and meeting place for the interview. They were reminded a day before the interview via phone calls and text messages from the researcher. Informed consent was obtained from the participants at the commencement of the interview. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with five participants in the confines of their offices where they felt more relaxed and comfortable to provide information on the study (Turner, 2010; McNamara, 2009). The other eight (8) chose to be interviewed via telephone as it was more convenient and a way to social distance to avoid the spread of the COVID-19 virus. The telephone calls were paid for by the researcher. Both forms of interviews yielded relevant data.

All the interviews were conducted by the researcher. Each interview lasted between 40 to 60 minutes depending on the response of the particular informant and their conversation skills. While some gave direct responses, others sometimes got carried away and the researcher tactfully guided the conversation back in line with the interview guide. The researcher took an audio recording of the conversations on her phone. She also took handwritten notes in her field notebook to enable her to fill in any gaps that may occur in the recording due to technological failure. The recordings were transcribed and typed out by the researcher. The transcripts of individual participants were emailed to them to confirm if their views were captured accurately. Some replied that it was correct, and others made input which was used to amend their report.

The member-checking enhanced the integrity and trustworthiness of the data as suggested by Casey & Murphy, 2006).

3.11. Trustworthiness considerations

The researcher ensured rigour in the study by apply Guba and Lincoln's (2005) guidelines for trustworthiness in qualitative research including credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. The interviews were recorded by the researcher, and she also took handwritten notes in her field notebook to enable her to fill in any gaps that may occur in the recording due to technological failure. The recordings were transcribed verbatim and typed out by the researcher. She played the tape repeatedly while cross-checking with the transcript and the field notes to ensure that no information supplied by a participant was omitted. The transcripts of individual participants were emailed to them to confirm if their views were captured accurately. Some replied that it was correct, and others made input which was used to amend their report. The member-checking enhanced the credibility. In addition, the researcher justified the appropriateness of the choice of interpretivist approach for the study and explained the methods and techniques used as well as a description of the cases and the participants and why and how they were selected. In terms of dependability, the researcher used field data and documentary analysis to verify the consistency of the results. All the measured applied ensured that the interpretivist approach was followed effectively in the study.

3.12. Ethical Considerations

The participants were assured that whatever they said was going to be treated with utmost confidentiality and anonymity. In this regard, the real names of the informants were replaced with pseudo names in the interview transcript. The participants were also informed that they were at liberty to opt-out at any point though it would be appreciated if they participated till the end. Verbal consent was received from those who were interviewed on the phone while for in-person interviews written informed consent was obtained at the commencement of each

interview session with each of the informants. Interviews were scheduled at the convenience of the participants. These formalities were employed to satisfy ethical issues regarding participants' involvement. Approval for the study design was received from the Ethical Committee for Humanities (EHC) at the University of Ghana.

3.13. Data management and analysis

Cohen and Crabtree (2006) posit that “in qualitative analysis, the main focus is not on the qualification of facts but on identifying meaning and values attributed by the respondents in their real-life situations” (p.86). The data was analysed following Strauss and Corbin (1990) seven steps - transcription, familiarization, separating of data, coding, thematizing coding, and reporting (Strauss & Corbin 1990 cited in Sandelowski, 2000). Transcription is the initial stage in the analysis of data where the audio recorded information is played repeatedly to enable the researcher to transcribe verbatim. Each of the interviews that the researcher recorded took between two to three hours to transcribe. The more the researcher played the tape and read through the transcription, the more the researcher got familiar with it, and found it easier to identify the key ideas. As the key ideas begin to emerge the researcher isolates them from the bulk of data. Once that was done the researcher coded the information in line with the research questions using different colours to highlight and code the salient issues – blue was used to code core duties, yellow academic competencies, green for managerial competencies, red for leadership competencies, pink for learning through serving on committees, violet for informal mentorship, purple for formal training/orientation. Identical codes were grouped into themes as patterns emerged. Each research question was assigned a major theme that emerged from the data or codes. A list of all the emergent themes was merged and ordered to form categories under the research questions. The various themes were used to answer the relevant question as the researcher described and explained the answer using extracts from the information elicited from the key informants (Hewitt-Taylor, 2001).

3.14. Reflections from the field study

The researcher experienced some challenges during data collection. The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic posed challenges to the data collection. However, the researcher was able to recruit 13 respondents who accepted to take part in the study. The interviews produced key themes that answered the research problem and question adequately.

Apart from five (5) of the participants who were interviewed face-to-face, the remaining were interviewed via telephone. Some of the participants rescheduled the interview appointment at the last minute due to other personal matters competing for their time. For example, an informant gave the researcher an appointment at 3PM GMT for an interview. The researcher arrived at the informant's office 10mins ahead of time. However, she waited for close to an hour because the informant had to attend to some students who had come with a matter that appeared to require urgent attention. When the interview finally started there were intermittent telephone calls that the informant had to answer, and the interview had to be put on hold and resumed after the phone call. The interruptions caused a break in the conversation momentarily. The researcher had to refer to the last sentences before the call to help the informant remember where they left off the discussion. Similarly, the telephone conversations were also interrupted due to poor network which made the telephone line drop in two instances. On another occasion, the line dropped because the researcher run out of air time. On both occasions, the researcher reconnected the line with the participant within moments and continued with the interview. Here again, the researcher recapped the conversation in the last few minutes to enable the informant to continue. Despite the challenges, the data collected provided information that was adequate to address the research problem.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study. The results are organised under the following themes: core activities of Head of Departments, managerial competencies for the effective performance of the role of Head of Department, strategies used by universities to develop the managerial capacity of academics for the job of Head of Department and the similarities and differences in the approach used by the public and private universities.

4.2. Core activities involved in the role of HoD

The first objective of the study sought to understand the core activities involved in the role of a Head of Department. This was necessary because the activities expected of the role inform the identification of the competencies required to execute and manage effectively as well as the strategies to build the relevant competencies. This section presents the results on the core activities of the HoDs in the public and private universities in Ghana.

The findings of the study showed that generally, the job of HODs involves two broad functions namely academic and administrative. A participant put it simply: *“You have a dual side as HoD, academic and administrative.” (R1)*

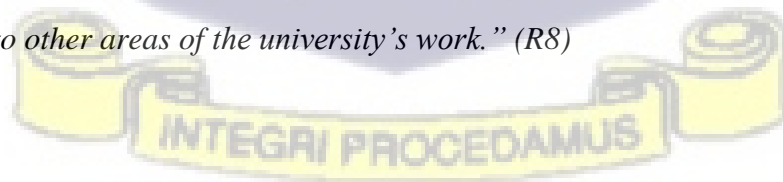
Another participant expatiated on it as follows:

“As HoD you are the Academic Chair for the department and you see to all the learning activities that take place in your department, the lecturers who are teaching the courses under you, the quality of teaching and learning, holding meetings to ensure that things are going on right, approving of grades at the departmental level, moderation of questions and all those things form part of the work of the HoD. In

addition to that the HoD is highly involved in recruitment of staff for the department and when a new person is to be taken the head of department needs to make sure that the person is going to add value to what is already happening at the department and not going to be somebody whose output will not be desirable. So, measures have to be put in place to make sure that whoever is to be recruited is coming to add value to the department. These are the few that I can mention for now in addition to other responsibilities at other levels.” (R7)

A participant provided a similar response:

“I supervise the work of the lecturers of the department i.e. I look at curriculum development, accreditation, internship to give our students some work exposure before they graduate. I assign courses to lecturers and share students to the lecturers who are course advisors to help the students to deal with challenges that may bother on their studies. If the issues are beyond the advisors, they are brought to the HoD to handle. I ensure moderation of examination questions and peer review of lecturers. From time to time, we try to look at how various lecturers are doing in the classroom, so we assign a lecturer to sit in another lecturer’s class and assess the latter’s teaching. We have a form for the assessment and the information collected is used to help the lecturer to improve. I attend several meetings in terms of academic board meetings, school board meetings. HODs are placed on committees for you to contribute to other areas of the university’s work.” (R8)



Another participant highlighted the administrative duties as follows:

“...as well as other non-teaching staff e.g., you have the secretary, driver, genitor, those in the lab and all that. And of course, you need to be able to manage your relationship with stakeholders, here I am talking about sponsors, parents of students who are in the faculty.” (R5)

From the perspective of an agency that oversees the management and operations of tertiary institution an officer had this to say concerning the duties of an HoD:

“The person should provide academic and administrative leadership. The head of department is leadership mainly. Strategically, he is the one planning and thinking for the department. Because of this critical role the stand of GTEC is that if an institution does not have qualified persons don't create a department. For existing programmes when the HoD retires we accept internal arrangement for a lecturer to coordinate. Whenever you are appointing an HoD you should assess these administrative and leadership skills plus academic rank and qualification. That is why you get the person's CV to check for the administrative duties, community services, consultancy assignments done to thesis out leadership roles the person has played.” (R11)

An HR representative also mentioned the duties of HoD as follows:

“Basically, they lead and manage the academic departments. This means that they do all that is involved in management and leadership from having a vision for the department and getting your faculty and staff to work with you to achieve it. You are responsible for academic issues like curriculum design, course development and review, student service. And then when it comes to the management, an HoD has to assign work to faculty and also the administrative staff, and also manage their performance and make sure they are accountable (R12).

Analysis of the responses show the public and private universities have a common understanding of tasks involved in the role of HoD, that is multi-dimensional role of academic and managerial leadership as echoed by Nguyen (2013). The importance of having the needed competencies for the role emphasised in the response of the GTEC representative to the effect that academic departments should not be established by universities where there are no academics with the prior leadership and managerial competencies.

4.3. Competencies for the effective performance of the role of Head of Department

The study found that academic and managerial competencies were required for the effective performance of the work of HoD.

4.3.1 Academic competencies

From the study, it was clear that the participants agreed that the main academic criterion for HoD was a senior lecturer and professorial rank. The following quotes from the participants support this finding:

“One that comes readily to mind is that the person must have the requisite qualification. If you don’t hold a terminal degree, you will not be able to understand some of the issues very well to be able to do whatever you will be required to do. So, the person should be highly qualified. In addition, experience also is very important. Before you become an HoD you need to rise through the ranks. It makes a difference, and you can see it in those who have risen through the ranks to become HoDs and Deans and Vice-Rectors and Rectors. If you are able to rise through the ranks it builds your capacity in addition to the qualification.” (R7)

“Yes, there are criteria. Of course, it starts with the academic position, whether you are a professor or senior lecturer. They look at that first. Usually, professors are given priority to lead if they are not on post-retirement contract. Then Associate Professors.” (R3)

“Well, it is really clear. As I told you it is senior most so the person who is a professor is the HoD. Even professorship there are grades, Associate Professor and Professor and all that. So, if there is a Professor he leads. And if there are three or four Professors or Associate Professors the person that was promoted first becomes HoD. So that is the line of thinking.” (R4)

The study found that some HoDs did not meet the criterion of academic competency in the private university in some instances. The following quotes from participants illustrate the situation: *“Currently, because the professors in my department are having other appointments that is how come I am appointed but if they were not one of them would have to be the HoD.” (R8)*

Another participant said:

“We previously had an HoD, but he went on leave of absence and the School needed someone to step into his shoes and I was called to do that. They wanted someone with a level of qualification. I have a master’s degree and my rank is lecturer. Normally, the rank for HoD is Senior Lecturer but we don’t have that, so I was ask to step in. So, even though I am doing the job of HoD, and I am referred to as Coordinator.” (R9)

A response from the GTEC representative provides further information on the academic competencies needed for the role of HoD.

“We give the framework, and the institution expands it to suit their specific circumstance. For you to be head of academic department you must be senior lecturer and above. When there is no senior lecturer then the institution can appoint a lecturer to serve as coordinator of the department. The person must be within the same faculty.” (R11)

4.3.2. Managerial competencies needed for the effective performance of the role of HoD

The study revealed some common core competencies that the participants said HoDs require to perform managerial and administrative duties:

“Skills to chair meetings, provide direction, some administrative skills are needed even though normally, the HoD should have administrative support; basic financial skills because he will plan and manage the budget of the department. Also, people management skills are very important because the HoD deals with faculty staff and students, university authorities and so many others. So, you need interpersonal skills and human relations. Otherwise, it will be difficult to get the job done. Manage faculty and staff performance to achieve the goal of the university, generally, you should get them to be motivated to work well. (R13)

“I will say leadership and people management skills are critical. The department must have a vision and the HoD must drive it and inspire others to work towards it. You need to have good communication skills and team work skills to be able to do this effectively”. (R3)

“As HoD you need to have leadership competencies because you are dealing with faculty and students. When I say leadership competencies, I mean you need to have human relations skills, competencies related to the work itself – I mean skills to be

able to do the technical things that HoD is expected to do e.g. allocating courses to faculty, monitoring faculty are coming in and out of the classroom and the student too as well as other non-teaching staff e.g. you have the secretary, driver, genitor, those in the lab and all that. And of course, you need to be able to manage your relationship with stakeholders, here I am talking about sponsors, parents of students who are in the faculty.” (R5)

For the administrative side of the job, you need:

- 1. Communication skills: you do lot of writing so you must be versatile. You don't take for granted that because you hold a PhD you have it. It is special skill when you come into administration.*
- 2. Sound English to make people understand you*
- 3. Interpersonal skills: you need relationship with colleagues and subordinate staff*
- 4. Leadership: You must really be seen to be a leader. And generally, you must have management skills. If you are outside HoD the way your behaviour is should be different from when you become HoD. You must have all the qualities a leader must have. You may not have these on appointment. The orientation at appointment may just be on procedures and it is basic.” (R1)*

Another participant said that: “I think the paramount among all is people management skills. It is the skill you must have. I always say academic leadership is the worse leadership.” (R3)

To understand what R3 meant the researcher asked the informant to explain why he felt it was the worse form of leadership and he replied by saying:

“Because you are managing colleagues and not subordinates. You have professors who are your seniors, sometimes you find some of them have been your lecturers before and you are now coming to manage them. And when this person is going wrong, how to handle the issue is very complicated. Unlike typical private sector when you are a director you are probably boss forever you will not come down until you retire. In academic environment today, you are HoD, tomorrow you are not. Somebody else is HoD. It is like up and down. So, you’ve got to have some skills which is really very complex. How to get people to do the work without stepping on toes is a very difficult thing to do. In other jurisdictions you can just recommend for somebody to be fired, or you yourself could issue the letter, but in academic environment it is extremely difficult to do that.”

Another participant had a contrary experience from the one stated above in respect of dealing with his superiors as his direct reports:

“Currently, those that are of higher rank in the department have been given appointments in other areas of the university, so they also have their responsibility. Managing them is not a problem. We have one who is Associate Professor in the department who is also the Rector. So, when he comes to the department, he reports to me and when we go to the top, I report to him. Wherever we go and it has to do with departmental issues, he says “this is my Head of Department”. We have a culture where you serve in an office for a period and another person takes over. So, when it comes to how to relate to one another it is not a problem at all.” (R9)

Analysis of the results show that though the two situations appear the same, the contrast in the statements by the individual HoDs in respect of how they saw the challenge of managing a staff of the department who are of higher rank than the HoD suggests that personal

characteristic influences the interpersonal relationships and the level of managerial competencies of an HoD as suggested by Boon and Van der Klink (2001).

4.4. Strategies for development of managerial competencies for the role of HoD

The researcher found that the universities had not formally planned or structured programme to develop managerial competencies of academics for the administrative duties of HoD. Serving on committees and informal mentorship were the main strategies used to develop the managerial competencies of faculty for academic management. However, formal orientation was organized for faculty upon appointment to the position. The following quotations from the participants' responses support the finding:

“There are programmes in place, but they are not formalized.” (R2)

“The university actually does not have that structured kind of approach to training leaders. Normally, it happens within the department and in an informal way.” (R3)

“There is no formal structured way to prepare somebody, and people are not consciously prepared for that role. The assumption is that anybody can play that role.” (R1)

When the researcher asked if R1 agreed with the assumption the participant replied saying:

“No. I will explain: You have dual side as HoD, academic and administrative. For academic you are to ensure that a) people teach and research, b) attend seminars and present. If you are not accustomed to these and are not trained and not interested before, it means you are now coming to learn on the job. This is different from if you are already committed. One needs some orientation to hold that position. But more

importantly I am for the person who has learnt over the years before assuming the position.” (R1)

Response from the HR also indicated that the universities did not have structured training programmes for development of managerial competencies for the role of HoD.

“Apart from the usual orientation we organize when HoDs are appointed we do not have a structured programme for academics to develop their managerial or leadership competencies. That would have been necessary if the appointments were by some kind of succession plan. But it is not the case. So, what we do is when they are appointed as HoD, we organize one week’s orientation for them. We get some of the lecturers from Business School to take them through basic management functions, leadership principles and styles and financial management. I take them through human resource management and some of the administrative procedures they need to know. The truth is if you organize short course for them when they are not appointed most of them will not attend because they don’t see the need, we have tried it in the past. Now, we can’t even do that anymore because finances are tight.”

In analysing the results, it may be conjectured that universities do not have a structured approach to preparing academic for the role of HoD due to the absence of succession plan and also, cost implication of continuous training for a rather short role as concurred by Gmelch (2013).

4.4.1. Serving on committees as a strategy for the development of managerial competencies for the role of HoD

The study showed clearly that serving on committees at the departmental and university levels was avenues used by the university to develop or enhance academics’ managerial competencies for the role of HoD. The following quotes support these claims by

participants: *“Well, you see, there are other Committees that at some point you serve on that gives you that experience, you get a bit of training. You serve on committees and then yes, you get the experience.” (R4)*

Other participants said:

“Yes. I was on different Committees being a representative for my department. What we do in our university is that there are Committees that you may be asked from the department level to select somebody to serve on. So, I was on Disciplinary Committee and other Committees before I became HoD.” (R6)

I had served five (5) years as a Lecturer in the university, so I had knowledge of administration because I served on a lot of Committees and had learned on how the university operates. I served on Academic Board, Faculty Board, Examination Board and some specific committees. Through the engagement I got to know how the university structure operated. (R1)

“You know there are some things that you cannot learn from the classroom. For example, nobody will teach you how to hold meetings, nobody will teach you how to write course description for courses. In all the universities I attended, nobody taught me how to do some of these things but as you work and move through the ranks, committees are set and you get to work in committees and as you work to produce results, you are learning.” (R7)

For continuous professional development after assuming the office of HoD one of participant had this to say:

“There are opportunities to serve on committee of HoDs, Academic Board, Faculty Board etc. Previous HoDs are around to mentor you. HoDs serve on various

committees at the school. You are an automatic member of School Management Board so experiential learning takes place.” (R2)

Another participant stressed the important role serving on Committee played in enhancing managerial skills:

It was the best platform to learn the processes. You go and then some documents come to the college and then somebody will say “it didn’t come through me so take it back and re-route it properly”. So, you learn some of those things in an informal way. Apart from that there is no structured way for preparing somebody for HoD.” (R3)

One other participant’s response corroborated the popular view of learning managerial skills through committee work:

“Currently, even if you take the public universities where I had my training, HoDs are appointed, and they give them appointment letters spelling out their duties but hardly do they take them somewhere to be trained to be able to perform those duties. Most of them learn on the job whether it is in UCC, KNUST, UG, and the rest. I talk to some of them, most of them learn on the job. A few may be taken somewhere to be trained but most of them learn on the job and that is what I mean by saying these things are not taught in the classroom.” (R7)

The researcher further noted that faculty who possessed administrative and managerial competencies from previous jobs prior to their employment at the university, had less difficulty in terms of performing the administrative duties effectively when they assumed the role of HoD: *“I came to the university with years of experience of working in an IT in a company, so I had the skills already, and going through the basics to appreciate how they are applied in the university setting.” (R2)*

Responding from HR perspective a participant said the following:

“The Committees are the ways by which the universities trains academic in the administrative procedures and duties involved in the academic units and departments. You see the work is such that it will be difficult to teach the practical thing in a classroom situation. It has to be on the job. And I think it is helpful. But I also think the experiential learning has to be complemented with some formal training in leadership and management. Preparation is very important for every management role.” (R12)

Another HR representative said: *“They learn from the Committees that they serve on. Some also have senior people to mentor them, but it is not a formal arrangement.” (R13)*

When the participants were asked whether the universities should put in place a structured programme for developing managerial competencies of academics towards the job of HoD's the participants gave varied responses:

“Yes, it is a very good idea that regularly, we can be building people's capacity, looking at leadership competency development so that in the two-year term of an HoD you can have the training twice, one in each academic year. You know before appointment you don't even know what is there so when you have been involved you can point out the actual need so that you can have it solved. It will help people grow progressively and be well prepared for other higher positions. Or others who are coming can also learn lessons. So, regular training is a good thing, a kind of continuous professional development.” (R5)

“That is the ideal thing. If a formalized training is done to train people that will help a lot. And I know that when people are appointed as deans and vice chancellors,

courses are arranged for them, sometimes they are taken to certain place for such training. But that is at the deans' level but as HoD it is expected that all the learning is done on the job, serving on Committees, presenting reports, writing course descriptions and sitting at GTEC meetings, involving in other meetings here and there, that together with your qualification and your own commitment to excel should help you do the job.” (R7)

A participant said training was not necessary as HoDs hold offices for limited period:

“Financially, you cannot do this wholesale. Training must be forthcoming. HoDs serve for just two years and maximum of four years so it is not cost effective to concentrate on all these trainings. When it comes to academic there is one difficulty. One of the reasons is that these days we have moved from deans being elected to appointed by the VC. It doesn't matter to the VC the skills the person has. If the VC is confident that by the time you get to professor, you must have capacity to perform that is it. But consciously, or unconsciously, you will have these experiences because you would have served on boards or committees. In the majority of cases, people will have served on these committees and that is where they learn. Unless there is a specific skill needed, university wont train faculty continuously. It will be difficult to give structured training. Training starts from day 1 when you join the department.” (R1)

While statements by some of the HoDs show an overwhelming endorsement of managerial competencies development through experiential learning others indicated that a blended approach including formal, or structure training will be more helpful as suggest by Muijs et al. (2006)

4.4.2. Informal Mentorship

The study showed that some of the participants were mentored informally by their predecessors or other more experienced colleagues, for the role. The following are excerpts from the responses of some participants.

A participant said:

“Let me make a clarification. Sometimes you walk into a department and finds someone who likes you or had taught you before and becomes you mentor. A mentor will brief you about everything you need to know about how the system works. In my case, I had that benefit. I was informed of the various headship positions, HoD, Dean, Provost, Hall master, etc. Some will have this advantage others will not. So, for those who do not they must seek it. There are yet some who are just interested in research and teaching and don’t like administration. But there comes a time when they will be needed to take up the job; it will fall on you. From this you see they are three (3) groups – those who are mentored, those who learn on the job, those the job is thrust on them. The university is a very political place, so you don’t see conscious preparation of people for positions but when the time comes everyone has a candidate.” (R1)

Another said: *“I will describe it as such because he really mentored me, there is no doubt about that. He empowered me, there are so many things that he will ask me to do.” (R3)*

When asked to explain the participant said: *“Yes, he delegated a lot. I think there was an occasion that I acted for six months. That was my introduction to being HoD and that helped to prepare me.” (R3)*

A participant said that a sitting HoD must mentor someone for the job: *“It is the responsibility of incumbent HoD to identify and groom people.” (R2)*

Another participant had a different view:

“I don’t believe in isolating specific people or to say that I am training A or B to take over. I believe that everybody should be involved, you give them equal opportunity. And if they all have adequate capacity you will find that you have more people at that level, and it makes it easier to select when it comes to appointment rather than eying one person and when things don’t go well it becomes a problem.” (R6)

An analysis of the results shows a seeming lack of consensus in the responses of the individual HoDs on the matter of formal mentorship. This highlights the need for intentional involvement by the universities in the implementation of planned mentorship programmes for leadership and managerial capacity development as echoed by ZPD theory (Eu, 2019).

4.4.3. Orientation of HoDs

The study found that orientation was a formalized training programme that was organized for academics upon appointment as HoD as shown in the following quotes from participants:

“When you are appointed as HoD you are given an orientation, so you know what is expected of you, the meetings you are supposed to attend and how to use the academic calendar for the school, how to answer memos and all that. You are taken through a bit of a training.” (R10)

“You are given a one-week course and is just for awareness about your job as a Head. A bit on people management comes in then you share ideas about how you go about it but there is no academic or structured training for the post.” (R3)

“Just an orientation was given after the appointment was made...It was done for a week...It covered the governance of the department, mainly the job description of head of department”. (R6)

There is always a programme for newly appointed HoD...It is repeated every year so once you are appointed you get to attend. (R2)

For our university so far, I should say that almost every year there is an orientation for HoDs. But that is after you have been appointed not before. The training looks at your responsibility. At the beginning of the academic year all academic staff meet to take a closer look at what is done and what we want to do in the year.” (R8)

An analysis of the results indicates that in both private and public universities HoDs are receive orientation for a period ranging from three to five days when they are appointed. However, R8 response shows that academic meet to review the work in previous and plan for the current year but it is not training. It may be considered as team work here some experiential may occur.

4.5. Similarities and differences in the approaches used by public and private universities to develop managerial competencies of academics for the role of HoD

The study showed that the public and private universities used similar approaches to develop the competencies of academics for the role of HoD. There were no differences found in the way the universities prepare academics to lead and manage academic departments. Both universities used experiential learning on the job by way of serving on Committees as the main strategy to expose academics to some of the administrative duties and procedures. In addition, the study found that in both of the universities, orientation was

organised for persons appointed to the role to socialize them and give them an overview of their job. Informal mentorship was used in both universities as well.

From the main and sub-themes that emerged from the study, it was evident that the common strategy the universities used to prepare faculty for the role of HoD, to develop their competencies for leadership was experiential learning at the workplace and socialization. Academics were assigned by their HoDs to serve on Committees. Those who got appointed to the role were given a brief orientation into the position. Informal mentorship was also used to teach faculty how to perform the administrative duties involved in job of HoD, and thus, prepare for the role should it fall to the individual.

Some participants from the two institutions said that:

“I don’t think there are any differences. We learn through experience on the job and some few trainings here and there. I should think it is the same with the other universities” (R 1)

“We are in the same sector, doing almost the same things so our ways of doing things should be similar. But because we are self-financing there may be some differences in terms of how we ensure that we get students to come to our university so that we can get money to pay ourselves and run this place. (R 4)

An analysis of the responses of R4 shows that whereas the public and private universities use common approaches for the development of managerial and leadership competencies of academics, the private universities places some emphasis on how HoDs can promote recruit of students for financial sustainability. This may suggest that context is plays an equally important role in managerial skills development as emphasised by Gosling and Mintzberg (2004).

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS OF RESULTS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the study. It gives a summary of the key findings, and in respect of the objectives of the study, and goes beyond to put the findings into context within the literature and the implications for application in the universities. The discussion is organized under three main themes, namely, core activities of HoD, managerial competencies for the effective performance of the role of HoD, and strategies used by universities to develop the managerial capacity of academics for the job of HoD.

5.3. Contextualizing the results within the literature

5.3.1. Core activities involved in the role of HoD

The multi-dimensional nature of the role shown in the results is confirmed by previous studies conducted by Cassie, Sowers, and Rowe (2006), and Berdrow (2010). Similarly, the management and leadership responsibilities of HoD as expressed by the participants is supported by Wescott (2002), and Nygen (2014). In view of the inseparable nature of the academic and managerial duties, the HoD is expected to perform. It is important that the process of appointment should have measures to ascertain the suitability of the candidate in terms of the requisite technical and managerial competencies for effective performance of the job. The study found that this is not a regular practice of the universities. The current process which is centred on the technical competencies i.e., academic qualification and university experience of a candidate is confirmed by Hickson and Stacks (1992). There is a need for the appointment process to be balanced with formally defined criteria for assessing managerial competencies to guide the process. Otherwise, it may be speculated that the factors that may influence the nomination though desirable i.e., commitment to the affairs of the department,

may not necessarily be relevant in terms of managerial capabilities for the effective performance of the job. The lack of a defined way to assess the managerial competencies of the candidate raises concerns because Bolman and Deal (1997) and, Adner and Helfat (2003) posit that managerial capacity is critical to the effective performance of the job of HoD. As suggested in their studies the effective performance of the job may be sacrificed in the process hence the justification for a structured approach to assessing the suitability of a candidate for the position holistically.

5.3.2 Core Competencies for the role of HoD

The academic or technical competencies specification of professorial and senior lecturer ranks. and in the absence of persons of these two ranks a lecturer rank was appointed to the role of HoD was in line with the requirement by GTEC, and the Handbook of Heads of Department at the University of Ghana. Relating the need for criteria to the conceptualization of competencies as espoused by Krogh and Roos (1995), the study emphasizes the importance for the universities to as much as practicable adhere to the criteria of professorial or senior lecturer for appointment to the position of HoD to ensure a knowledge-task fit. This enables the HoD to handle the academic aspect of the job effectively. However, the challenge arises where there are not many academic or senior ranks in departments as seemed to be the case in VVU. While all the HoDs from the University of Ghana were of professorial and senior lecturer rank, some of the participants from VVU were below the rank of professor. It may be speculated on the basis of participants' responses that VVU may have a limited pool while UG being the oldest university may have developed its faculty over the years hence the seemingly large pool. According to Gorsline (1996), an employee should have a mix of skills, knowledge, attitudes, and experiences that will enhance his or her performance and make the employee a value addition to the organization. This may suggest that VVU in recruiting lecturers should focus

on senior lecture and professorial ranks. The university may also grow its own faculty by providing the necessary faculty development support to academics below these ranks to enable them to improve their scholarship for promotion to the relevant ranks. Some of the strategies to achieve this may include, sponsored workshops and training programmes, formal mentorship arrangements, and reduced course load.

For managerial competencies, the results are in alignment with the studies by Woodall and Winstanley (1998), which gives a multidimensional perspective to competencies required for managerial duties and defines them as the skills, knowledge, and understanding, qualities and attributes, sets of values, beliefs and attitudes which lead to an effective managerial performance in a given context, situation or role (Woodall & Winstanley, 1998 cited in Garavan & McGuire, 2001). The findings are further supported by various studies including Wolverton, Ackerman, and Holt (2005) who suggest that interpersonal, conflict management, and collaboration skills are the most critical competencies needed for department heads. It is also confirmed by Spendlove (2007) who found from his studies that interpersonal skills of communication, team building, and negotiation were among the key competencies needed for leadership at the department level.

The managerial competencies for the role of HoD as identified by the respondents depict the job as one that is linked to the entire university environment making the role interdependent as suggested by Bolman and Deal (1997), requiring the HoD to have the set of academic and managerial competencies to be successful. Finally, the competencies identified by the participants fit into Adner and Helfat (2003) managerial framework of three key competencies categorizations i.e., managerial human capital, managerial social capital, and managerial cognition. The implication of these results for application by universities may be that institutions should take deliberate steps, including regular training programmes and workshops to enhance the managerial leadership competencies of academics. Not only

will this prepare persons for a possible leadership role, but it will also help them to contribute more effectively to the administration and management of their departments and the university as a whole.

5.3.3. Strategies for managerial competencies development for the role of HoD

The study found that the universities had no structured or formalized approach for building the managerial competencies of academics towards the job of HoD. The finding is in agreement with studies by Wolverton, Akerman & Holt, (2005), Spendlove (2007), and Cassie, Sowers, and Rowe (2006). The importance of managerial competencies in the effective performance of the role of HoD as already established in the research suggests the need for the universities to have a structured way of determining competencies needed, and to have a planned approach to filling the gap. This is particularly important because while some academics may have acquired some relevant competencies before joining the universities as indicated by a participant, others may have not. Identification of training needs is critical to determining the appropriate interventions to develop needed capacity. The implication for universities is to assess the competencies of academics in regard to employment history, especially managerial roles prior to joining the department. Such an assessment should inform the appropriate learning interventions the individual should be exposed to in order to acquire the requisite knowledge and skills relevant to the university administrative systems and procedures. The researcher suggests that this approach may result in an effective way of assignment of academics to serve on Committees which is the common strategy used for the development of managerial competencies for academic leadership in both the private and public universities.

5.3.3.1 Serving on committees as an approach to building managerial competencies

The exposure of faculty to committee work to learn through experience and socialization as the result showed resonates with previous studies by Gmelch (2000) which suggest that more than 90% of appointees to the role of HoD come to the position without preparation for managerial leadership and learn through socialization. Furthermore, the strategies used by the universities were in alignment with the literature on socialization which recognizes such interventions as a way to enhance the capacity of the individuals as it allowed them to gain “mastery of critical skills required for effective performance, as well as the assumption of the attitudes that must accompany these activities” (Forgarty, 2000, p.13).

The study found that there was consensus in the responses that serving on Committees was the predominant tactic employed by the universities to equip academics with the requisite knowledge and practice of the managerial role of the HoD. Continuous professional development after the assumption of the position was equally through experiential learning as the HoD is an automatic member of various Committees at the school and university level, including the School Management Committee, Committee of HoDs, and the Academic Board. Despite the emphasis on the importance of serving on committees to the development of managerial competencies for the role of HoD, the study found that there appeared to be an absence of a systematic way of assigning faculty to Committees at the department level which is supposed to be the primary training ground. The assigning of a faculty to serve on which Committee seemed to be at the discretion of the sitting HoD. This may suggest that a lecturer can only get to serve on a Committee at the department or institutional level if the individual is afforded the opportunity to do so to develop managerial capacity for academic management. The study further showed that a lecturer can influence their chances of being noticed and getting assigned to serve on Committees by demonstrating certain key personal attitudes such as readiness, availability, dependability,

commitment to the work of the department by getting involved in the activities like attending meetings and seminars, invigilation, making contributions and volunteering to do things at the department. The research also showed that while service was one of the criteria for promotion some lecturers were not available to serve on Committees as they focused on their research publication because it is a key requirement of the university for promotion to the next level in order to remain in employment.

The findings are supported in the literature by Billet (2001), and Valsiner and van de Veer (2000), who emphasized the impact of the two key factors of affordance and agency in the development of the capacity of the less competent and inexperienced individual. The involvement of a lecturer in the affairs of the department plays a key role in the individual getting noticed and possibly being afforded the opportunity to serve on a committee to enhance their leadership competencies. The results also agree with Vygotsky's (1978) theory of ZPD, as expanded by Eu (2019), to recognize and incorporate the institution as a critical factor in staff development due to the control of affordances, especially training programme available to the inexperience and less competent individuals to help them to move from low to high levels of their potential. In this regard, the provision of formal training by the universities in addition to experiential learning is necessary for the development of the managerial leadership capacity of academics for the role of HoD.

5.3.3.2 Mentorship of HoDs

The study showed that mentorship was one of the ways through which some of the faculty were prepared for the job of HoD. It was not a formal or deliberate approach instituted by the universities, but rather relationships that emerged from daily social interactions between a faculty and the HoD where the latter who is normally more knowledgeable in the university administration shares and guides the former to learn through the ropes. This resonates with the

definition by Mazerolle et al. (2018) that “internal mentoring is more informal, as the exchange of advice, knowledge, or support is causal and viewed as a peer or collegially based.” (p.265-266). In the relationship, the need for someone with knowledge and experience of the role before cannot be over-emphasized (Williams, 2014).

The research further found that in all the cases the mentorship developed because the incumbent HoD was looking for someone to delegate work to, and the faculty was available, and accepted to take up the assignment. The relationship was sustained by the commitment demonstrated by the faculty in executing the assignment and his or her willingness to accept constructive criticism from the more experienced colleague. Another important contributory factor to the successful relationships was because faculty and HoD had shared interest in terms of vision and growth of the department, research, etc. of the HoD, and were interested in helping realize it. The identification of common views and interests as key factors in a positive mentorship relationship is supported in the literature (Barrett, Mozerolle & Nothingham, 2017) as well as ZPD theory (Eu, 2019). In sum, the relationship was built on reciprocity, motivation, and availability of both the mentor in the case of HoD and mentee i.e., the lecturer. Notwithstanding, it may be concluded from the findings that the burden of growing an effective relationship appears to be more on the faculty whose attitude towards the department’s needs should be positive enough to catch the attention of the incumbent HoD in particular.

The study revealed divergent views on who should be mentored. While some participants recognized the benefits of mentorship to developing the managerial capacity of academics and suggested that incumbent HoDs should identify individuals to groom for the position, others disagreed on the basis that the next academic to be HoD could not be determined as there was no succession plan. As explained earlier, the candidate(s) was nominated and voted for by their peers in the department and the candidate with the highest votes was presented to the appointing authority for consideration for appointment. Thus, the person to occupy the position was known

only when the appointment process was completed. The counter-opinion argued that all faculty should be given the needed managerial skills training to give equal opportunity to everyone to compete when the position is vacant. The researcher agrees with the second view and argues that because every faculty is a potential HoD, it is important for the university to have a formalized approach to ensure that there is a competent pool of academics who are eligible for the job in the absence of a succession plan. The need for academics to be exposed to the processes and tasks prior to appointment aligns to Berdrow's (2010) definition of role socialization as "the process of learning expected values, attitudes and behaviours associated with a position in an organization as well as learning the tasks and interpersonal relationships" (p.501).

5.3.3.3. Orientation of HoDs

The study showed clearly that a formal programme of orientation was organized for HoDs upon appointment to give them awareness about basic functions of their job; the administrative structures and official communication channels and how to go about it. The duration of the programme ranged from three to five days. It was found that at VVU that the orientation organized every year for newly appointed HoDs also provided an opportunity for refresher training to those already in office. The topics discussed included leadership, communication, and people management in general. The use of orientation to enhance managerial competencies of academics is confirmed by the literature (Fogarty, 2011; Mullen & Forbes, 2000; Lichty, 1999) as one of the frequently used strategies by higher education institutions to socialize faculty into not just their new environment but also new roles (Berdrow, 2010). Though the participants were not newcomers in their universities and went through orientation on appointment as a lecturer, it was necessary for them to be socialized into the leadership role of HoD to which they were new. The duration of the orientation though may appear short is

meant to complement prior knowledge, skills, and experience that the appointee should have acquired from serving on Committees.

5.4. Similarities and differences in the approach used by public and private universities for the development of managerial competencies for the role of HoD

There were no significant differences in the two universities' approaches to preparing the academics for the leadership and management role of HoD. None of the institutions had in place a structured approach and academics learned to lead and manage through experience by serving on Committees. People learned administrative systems and procedures as well as routine administrative operations involved and the procedures to follow through experiential learning. The approaches were similar to the public and private universities. It may be conjectured that UG as the premiere university is often the reference for the other universities in the country hence the similarities in the approaches used for the development of the leadership capacity academics for the role of HoD.

5.5. Summary of Chapter

The results discussed show that the objectives of the studies were addressed. The core duties involved in the role HoD were multidimensional and in two broad categories, academic and administrative. The HoD had key responsibility to lead and manage faculty, staff, and students as well as operations of the department from day-to-day to achieve the set goals of the department. While the criteria for determining academic competencies for the role were defined i.e., the rank of an academic, there was no clarity on the managerial competencies needed for the effective performance of the role. This was in spite of the fact that sometimes those appointed have no prior experiences as managers or administrators and come from disciplines that may not be related to leadership or management. The criteria for academic competencies

were common to the two universities because the activities and functions of an academic department are guided by the requirements of GTEC. Similarly, the results showed that two universities had no structured approach or planned training programmes for the development of managerial capacity for the role of HoD. Serving on Committees and informal mentorship were used in the two universities to prepare academics for leadership at the department-level. This was complemented by a formal orientation on the appointment of the individual which was usually for a period not more than five (days) to introduce them to their key functions. The major implication of the results for the universities is that, while the existing strategies of experiential learning are relevant to the development of leadership capacity of academics for the role of HoD, there is a need for a deliberate assessment of the competencies gaps, and an establishment of a blended model and structured approach to the use of the strategies, to achieve maximum results from HoDs.



CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the thesis and major findings of the research as well as the conclusions on the various research objectives. In addition, it focuses on the contribution to knowledge and makes recommendations on how to improve the development of managerial competencies for academic leadership for the role of HoD in private and public universities in Ghana. The study's implications for Adult Education and Human Resource Studies were clearly stated.

6.2. Summary of Study

The academic department is the nucleus of the university where the bulk of work of Schools, Faculties, and Colleges is carried out. The HoD plays a dual role of leader and manager with responsibility for academic management at the department. Thus, the managerial competence of a HoD is an important factor in contributing to the success of every School, Department, Faculty, College, and University as a whole. Yet the literature suggests that HoDs often do not have prior leadership preparation and a clear understanding of the demands of their role. The researcher believes that effective performance in any field, including academic management, demands advanced preparation through training and practice as well as continuous relevant capacity development when the person occupies the role. The study, therefore, sought to find out how universities in Ghana develop the managerial competencies of academics for the leadership role of HoD. As part of this broad objective, the study explored the core activities involved in the role of HoD to identify the competencies that are relevant for the effective performance of the role and the strategies used by the universities to prepare academics for the job.

The whole research was conducted through the interpretivist paradigm. In accordance with the norms of the interpretivist paradigm, the qualitative research design was used to sample participants, collect and analyze data. The study population consisted of HoDs in public and private universities (University of Ghana and Valley View University), representatives of human resource departments in the two universities, and the Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC).

A total of thirteen (13) participants were purposively selected and interviewed for the research. They included one (1) representative each from the human resource departments of the two selected universities, one (1) representative from GTEC, and five (5) HoDs from each of the universities. A purposive sampling technique was used. In-depth data was collected through face-to-face and telephone interview methods. An interview guide was used as a data collection tool. The interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. The data was analysed in accordance with Strauss and Corbin (1990) seven steps to carry out a thematic analysis.

6.3. Major findings of the study

The main findings of the study include:

- i. The core activities involved in the role of HoD are in two broad categories of academic and administrative and they are interlinked.
- ii. The HoD role is both leader and manager of the academic department.
- iii. While the main academic competencies required for the role are qualification, rank, and university experience, the managerial competencies needed are mixed and several.
- iv. Universities have no structured approach to determining the leadership and managerial competencies of academics for appointment to the position of HoD.

- v. Universities have not instituted formalized training programmes to develop the leadership and managerial competencies of academics for the role of HoD.
- vi. Strategies the universities used to equip academics with managerial competencies are serving on committees and informal mentorship.
- vii. Formal orientation for a period ranging between three (3) to five (5) days is organized for appointed HoDs to give them an overview of their functions, management structure, and basic management training.
- viii. Formalized training in leadership and management was recommended in addition to experiential learning to prepare academics for the role of HoD.

6.4. Conclusion

Based on the main findings the study concluded that:

- i. The core activities involved in the role of HoD are academic and managerial. The two functions are interlinked and performed concurrently. This means that the HoD should have the requisite competencies for a multidimensional role.
- ii. The requirement of regulatory agency GTEC, as well as appointment processes of the universities, paid more attention to the academic competencies to the neglect of the managerial competencies of the candidate.
- iii. The competencies needed for the effective performance of the job of HoD included leadership skills, people management skills, supervisory skills, communication skills, interpersonal skills, human relations, team building, how to conduct meetings, and understanding of the administrative structure.
- iv. Universities do not have a structured or formalized approach for preparing academics for leadership at the department level because there is no succession plan that identifies, and it is not automatic that an individual will occupy the office at a particular time. Rather the appointment to the position depends on

the outcome of a process of nominations by lecturers in the department. This makes it difficult to prepare an individual for the position.

- v. On-the-job learning by way of serving on Committees and informal mentoring were the common strategies used by the universities to develop the managerial competencies of academics for department-level management. It was assumed that the individual by participating and following proceedings at the Committee will acquire relevant knowledge and skills in various aspects of the university administration. The strategies were used often in an Ad-hoc manner as an assignment to committees was at the discretion of the incumbent HoD. Lecturers who demonstrate commitment to the work of the department were those likely to be assigned by the HoD to Committees and thus affording them the opportunity to develop, or enhance their leadership, and managerial competencies.
- vi. Though some formal orientation programme was organized for HoDs when appointed it was meant to complement knowledge and skills acquired before the appointment. The newly appointed individual was presumed to have leadership and management competencies before assuming the role.

6.5. Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusion above, the following recommendations are made:

- i. The GTEC as well as the universities' requirement for the appointment of HoD should give equal attention to the academic qualification and leadership and management competencies needed for the effective performance of the core duties of the role by including in the appointment process, criteria for assessment of managerial and leadership competencies.

- ii. The relevant managerial competencies for the role of HoD should be defined by the University, and the process of appointment should include an assessment of the candidate's abilities, and in this regard to ascertain a person's capability for the performance of the dual role of academic leader and manager of the department.
- iii. Universities should have a structured way of preparing academics for the managerial duties involved in the role of HoD. They should provide management and leadership courses for inexperienced academics to enhance their leadership and management skills. In addition, academics should be encouraged by the Human Resource Department to spend some time at administrative units to learn some basic management practices. This could be done during vacation.
- iv. While serving on Committees and mentorship are recognized experiential learning strategies to expose faculty to academic administration, there should be clear learning objectives of the expected outcomes in terms of the relevant knowledge, skills, and attitudes the academic should achieve. The individual's performance on the Committee including his or her leadership skills, quality of tasks performed, and demonstration of relevant soft skills should be assessed to provide feedback and guide further mentoring in preparation for a leadership role.
- v. Assignment to Committees should be structured and not left to the discretion of the HoD. All academics in the department should be assigned to Committees on a rotational basis. This will allow everyone to learn the administrative duties across the Committees and not be limited to one Committee.
- vi. Mentorship should be formalized, and more experienced faculty should be paired with inexperienced ones to mentor in both academic and administrative roles. Some senior professional administrators should be roped in by the Deans in

collaboration with the Human Resource Directorate to provide training in functional areas where required.

- vii. The socialization into the role of HoD should go beyond the usual one (1) week orientation programme to include a deliberate plan for the existing HoD to share the knowledge and experience gained with an incoming HoD before exiting the scene and should be available to mentor him or her. This is important for a smooth transition and should not be left to chance. The Human Resource Department in collaboration with the Dean of the School should ensure that this is done.

6.6. Implications for Adult Education Practice

The research findings will enable the Adult Education department to promote leadership and managerial training throughout the university. It will help adult educators to plan and design a comprehensive curriculum for faculty development. Such a curriculum will focus not just on academic competencies, for example, teaching and assessment, research and publication, and grant writing skills but also leadership and managerial competencies. For example, organization of workshops on leadership and managerial skills development, financial planning, budgeting, interpersonal skills, human relations emphasising to work with subordinates and seniors.

6.7. Implication for human resource management practice in universities

The findings of the study provide insights for rethinking of human resource management practice at universities. It will help the human resource department to develop management training courses to equip academics with general management and leadership skills. This will prepare a pool of competent candidates for the university to select from when the need arises. Refresher courses could be organized during the course of the tenure of HoD to enable them to handle issues where they may be experiencing challenges. An assessment of leadership and

managerial competencies should be included in the process of selecting candidates for appointment to the position of HoD. The research unit at the human resource departments should be strengthened by acquiring the needed capacity to conduct skills needs assessment of academics to address their unique skills gaps.

There should be a structured plan by the Human Resource Department to guide the assignment of faculty to Committees at the department level to minimize any possible personal bias on the part of both the appointing authority and the faculty being assigned. Faculty should be assigned to Committees on two years rotational basis. This will ensure equal opportunity to all lecturers in the department to broaden their knowledge and skills in the administrative duties involved in leading and managing an academic department.

6.8. Contribution to knowledge

The findings of the study will enrich the literature on academic leadership development in Ghana and form the basis for future studies in the subject area.

6.9. Contribution to the theoretical literature

The researcher's construct of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) theory provides insightful explanations of how important it is for the institution to afford opportunity for academics to develop leadership and managerial competencies through formal and experiential learning. It also highlights the agency of the inexperienced academic as a key factor in the development process that determines the progression of the less competent to a high level in the competency's development.

6.10. Limitations of the study

The whole study was conducted using a qualitative research process in terms of its sampling, data collection methods, and analysis. In view of the subjective nature of the methodology, the findings from qualitative studies are not generalized but restricted to and appreciated within the study population, or geographical location, or organizational setting. Accordingly, the findings of the study were limited to core activities and managerial competencies development issues of heads of departments in the University of Ghana and Valley View University. Notwithstanding this limitation, the in-depth understanding of the work of HoDs and the philosophies of competencies development related to the academic leadership and management at the department level were explored during the research and would be relevant to researchers, policymakers, and practitioners who are interested in getting understanding of the phenomenon.

Another limitation is that the study focused on one out of 21 public universities and one out of 98 private universities in Ghana. The subjectivity in the selection excluded 20 public universities and 97 private universities. This means that HoDs in the excluded schools were denied the opportunity to share their experiences of how they were prepared for the multidimensional roles that they assumed on appointment. Thus, the findings of the study may be of less importance to HoD in those universities. However, the functions involved in the role of HoDs are common to universities in Ghana, and the competencies required i.e., leadership and management competencies should apply generally. Additionally, both public and private universities are subjected to regulatory framework of GTEC with similar requirement for the appointment of HoD universities. Therefore, the findings of the research should be relevant to HoDs in the universities outside of the scope of the study.

Furthermore, most of the works cited by the study were based on research conducted on academic leadership development by higher education institutions in advanced countries. The

findings of the study will add to scanty literature on academic leadership development in universities in Ghana.



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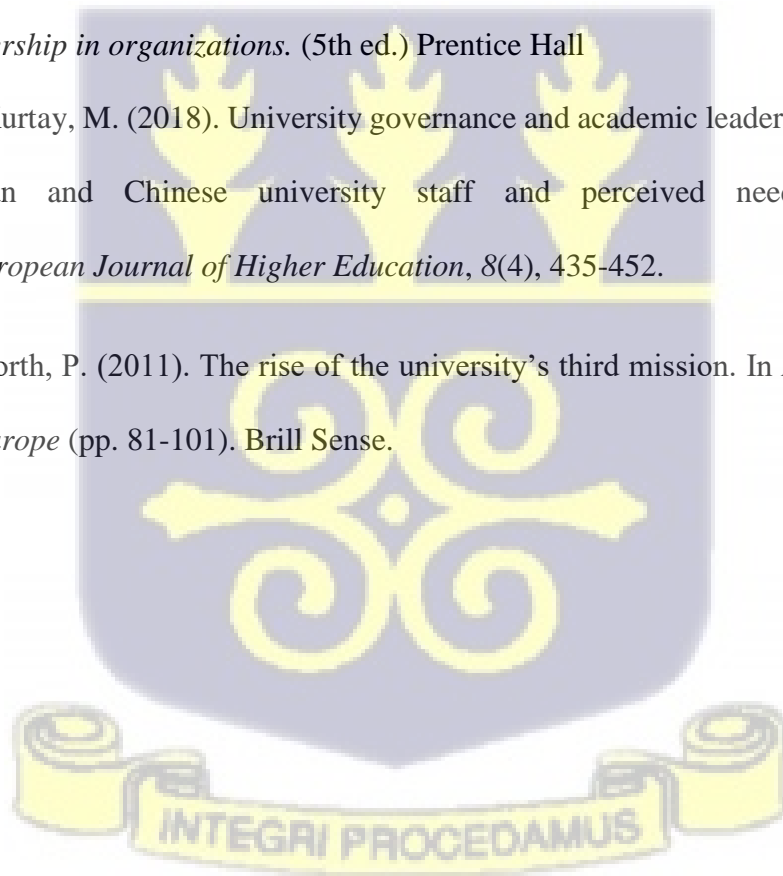
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Consent Form

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

Official Use only



Protocol number

Ethics Committee for Humanities (ECH)

PROTOCOL CONSENT FORM

Section A- BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Title of Study: Development of Managerial Competencies for Academic Leadership:
Experiences of Heads of Departments of Selected Universities in Ghana

Principal Investigator: Victoria Mwinsumah Kunbour (Mrs.)

Certified Protocol Number

Section B- CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

General Information about Research

The purpose of the study is to find out how universities in Ghana develop the managerial competence of academics for the leadership role of head of department (HoDs). I will be speaking with a sample of HoDs. I am inviting you to participate in the study to share your experience on what managerial training you received from your university to prepare you for your role as HoD. The interview will last between forty (40) to sixty (60) minutes. You will be expected to provide information prompted by an interview guide I will be using while allowing you flexibility to explain your response. You do not have to answer any question that makes you feel uncomfortable. In order to make our discussion move faster, I will be recording you, so that I can type out your response after the interview.

Benefits/Risks of the study

There are no direct benefits to you for your participation in the study. However, the information that will be obtained from you will contribute to knowledge on the development of managerial capacity of HoDs. It will unearth heads of departments' experiences of how they were prepared by their universities to perform the core duties involved in the role of HoD. The research will also shed light on the approach(s) used by higher learning institutions in Ghana to develop managerial competencies for the effective performance of academic departmental leadership role and how it may be improved. Additionally, it will benefit the human resource department of the universities as they have the responsibility for capacity development of staff to equip them with the relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes to perform their various duties effectively. It will also contribute to the literature on capacity development for academic management and leadership generally.

In the light of the foregoing, there are no known hazards or risk associated with this study.

Confidentiality

Please note that participation in this study is voluntary. All the information you provide will be treated as confidential. Your name will not appear anywhere in the document. The data will be coded by numbers and separated from your name or anything else that will identify you. Whatever information you provide will be used together with other data and the results will be presented in an aggregated form. Thus, it cannot be traced to you. The researcher is under a code of ethics that does not allow for information gathered for this research to be used for any other purpose. The following individuals and agency will have direct access to the research record: the investigator and the University of Ghana. By signing or thumbprinting this written consent form, you or your representative is authorizing such access.

Compensation

There will be no compensation for participants who take part in this research unless it has become necessary.

Withdrawal from Study

Though your full participation is needed till the end of this research, you are free to decline to participate or later opt out at any time and you will not be required to provide any reason or suffer any negative consequence.

Contact for Additional Information

If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant in this study you may contact the Administrator of the Ethics Committee for Humanities, ISSER, University of Ghana at ech@ug.edu.gh or 00233- 303-933-866.

Section C- PARTICIPANT AGREEMENT

"I have read or have had someone read all of the above, asked questions, received answers regarding participation in this study, and am willing to give consent for me, my child/ward to participate in this study. I will not have waived any of my rights by signing this consent form. Upon signing this consent form, I will receive a copy for my personal records."

Name of Participant

Signature or mark of Participant

Date

If participant cannot read and or understand the form themselves, a witness must sign here:

I was present while the benefits, risks and procedures were read to the volunteer. All questions were answered, and the volunteer has agreed to take part in the research.

Name of witness

Signature of witness / Mark

Date

I certify that the nature and purpose, the potential benefits, and possible risks associated with participating in this research have been explained to the above individual.

Name of Person who Obtained Consent

Signature of Person Who Obtained Consent

Date



Appendix 2: Interview Guide for Heads of Department

Warm-up and Ice-breaking Questions

1. Greetings

Participant's background information

1. Please if you don't mind, could you tell me about yourself (your background etc.)?
 - a. How long have you worked in this university?
 - b. What do you do here currently?
 - c. What is your rank?
 - d. What is your age bracket - 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60-69?

Preparatory question

1. Please share with me your experience working as head of department (HOD) in your university.

Knowledge of Core duties of HOD

1. What are some of the core duties of HoD?
 - a. Probe on academic duties
 - b. Probe on administrative, managerial and leadership duties

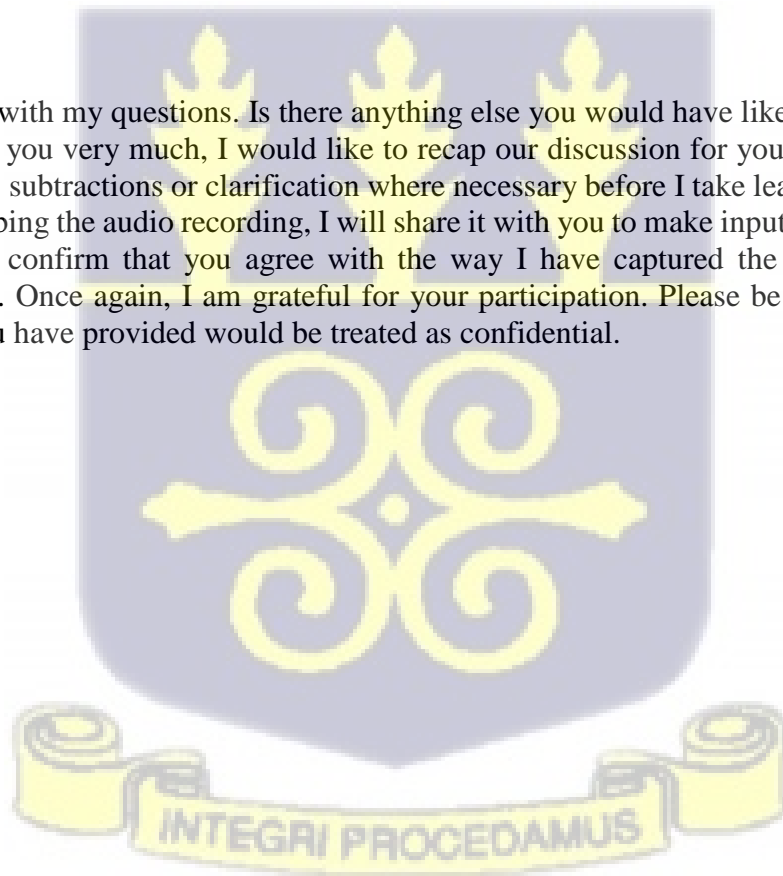
Competencies needed for the role of HoD

1. Who qualifies to be HoD?
 - a. Probe on academic qualification
 - b. Probe on rank
 - c. Probe on administrative, managerial leadership experience
2. What competencies are needed for the performance of the core duties involved in the role of HOD?
 - a. Probe competencies for academic duties
 - b. Probe competencies for administrative, managerial and leadership

Strategies used by universities to develop managerial competencies of academics for the role of HoD

1. How did the university prepare you to enable you to perform the administrative managerial duties of HoD?
 - a. Probe formal training programme or workshop.
 - b. Probe the duration of the formal training programme or workshop
 - c. Probe the structure of the formal training programme or workshop
 - d. Probe the content of the formal training programme or workshop and the facilitator
 - e. Probe informal training or on-the-job training and knowledge and skills acquired
 - f. Probe experiential learning and the knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired
 - g. Probe relevance of formal and informal training and experiential learning to the developing the capacity of HoD
 - h. Probe preferred approach to develop managerial competencies for the role of HoD

I have finished with my questions. Is there anything else you would have liked us to discuss? Thank you very much, I would like to recap our discussion for you to enable you to make additions, subtractions or clarification where necessary before I take leave of you. When I finish transcribing the audio recording, I will share it with you to make input where necessary and for you to confirm that you agree with the way I have captured the information you provided to me. Once again, I am grateful for your participation. Please be assured that any information you have provided would be treated as confidential.



Appendix 3: Interview for Human Resource Managers of Selected Universities

Warm-up and Ice-breaking Questions

1. Greetings

Participant's background information

1. Please if you don't mind, could you tell me about yourself (your background etc.)?
 - a. What is your position currently?
 - b. How long have you worked in this university?
 - c. What is your age bracket - 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60-69?

Objective 1: To find out the core duties involved in the role of HoD

1. What are the core duties involved in the role of HoD?
 - a. Probe academic duties
 - b. Probe administrative, managerial and leadership duties

Objective 2: To identify the managerial competencies needed for the role of HoD.

1. Who qualifies to be HoD?
 - a. Probe academic qualification
 - b. Probe rank
 - c. Probe administrative, managerial and leadership experience
2. What managerial competencies are needed for the performance of the core duties of HoD?
 - a. Probe administrative, managerial and leadership competencies

Objective 3: To identify the strategies used by universities to develop the managerial competencies of academics for role of HoD

1. What preparation does the university give to academics to enable them to perform the managerial duties involved in the role of HoD?
2. What structures are in place to enable academics to develop managerial competencies for the role HoD?
3. What formal management and leadership training programmes or workshops are available for academics to enable them to prepare for the role of HoD?

4. How does being a public university or private university influence or does not influence the development of managerial competencies of academics for the role of HoD?

I have finished with my questions. Is there anything else you would have liked for us to discuss? Thank you very much, I would like to recap our discussion for you to enable you to make additions, subtractions or clarification where necessary before I take leave of you. When I finish transcribing the audio recording, I will share it with you to make input where necessary and for you to confirm that you agree with the way I have captured the information you provided to me. Once again, I am grateful for your participation. Please be assured that any information you have provided would be treated as confidential.



Appendix 4: Interview Guide for representative of Ghana Tertiary Education Commission

Warm-up and Ice-breaking Questions

1. Greetings

Participant's background information

2. Please if you don't mind, could you tell me about yourself (your background etc.)?
 - a. What is your position currently?
 - b. How long have you worked in this university?
 - c. What is your age bracket - 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60-69?

Objective 1: To find out the core duties of the role of HOD

1. What are the core duties involved in the role of HoD?
 - a. Probe academic duties
 - b. Probe administrative, managerial and leadership duties

Objective 2: To identify the managerial competencies needed for the role of HoD.

1. Who qualifies to be HoD?
 - a. Probe academic qualification
 - b. Probe rank
 - c. Probe administrative, managerial and leadership experience
2. What managerial competencies are needed for the performance of the core duties involved in the role of HoD?
 - a. Probe administrative, managerial and leadership experience

I have finished with my questions. Is there anything else you would have liked us to discuss? Thank you very much, I would like to recap our discussion for you to enable you to make additions, subtractions or clarification where necessary before I take leave of you. When I finish transcribing the audio recording, I will share it with you to make input where necessary and for you to confirm that you agree with the way I have captured the information you provided to me. Once again, I am grateful for your participation. Please be assured that any information you have provided would be treated as confidential.