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Head-Teacher and School Principal Development in Ghana: Theory into Practice

By

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Acknowledgement

… Following your dreams might take unexpected turns, but those are the interesting and memorable challenges of living the dream (my favorite philosophy).

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Abstract

This qualitative case study is based on a collaborative web-based leadership training program offered by the Commonwealth of Learning (COL), Canada, the Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland (MUN), Canada, and selected educational institutions from four English West African countries (Ghana, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, and The Gambia) in 2010. While this study focuses on the Ghanaian context, the program's general design provided a select group of headteachers and school principals in participating countries with the following: innovative knowledge and skills in school management to enhance their professional skills and effectiveness; a forum to exchange ideas and experiences for managing primary and secondary schools, and; opportunities for their continued professional development. The final objective was to develop a formal training manual that "master trainers" would use in their respective countries to train other school leaders.

Faculty from MUN provided administrative and academic expertise, including the research and theoretical basis of the program. Six local trainers who were selected from each participating country, brought their expertise and their knowledge of local context, and ensured thoughtful reflection on each of their own country's circumstances and practices. The COL provided financial support to ensure that the program was developed and implemented successfully. The program was carried out in two phases (beginning in Ghana and ended in The Gambia) leading to the development of a final training manual that master trainers would use in their respective countries to train other school leaders. Ghana started implementation of the training in 2011.

Within the last decade or so, Ghana has consistently experienced considerable decline in students' academic performance both at the basic and secondary school levels due to several

factors including leadership inefficiencies. The leadership training program as it applies to

Ghana seeks, therefore, to introduce modern leadership practices which focus on local conditions

to participating headteachers and school principals. In doing so, the aim is to improve the

teaching and learning environment within the Ghanaian school system.

The current study investigated successes and challenges that characterized the training

and implementation of skills for school leaders within Ghana. Of particular interest here, is what

the trainees (mostly headteachers and school principals) learned, the processes through which

they intended implementing the new skills, knowledge, and abilities (SKAs) to their workplaces,

and the socio-cultural factors that influenced the implementation processes. The design of this

study relies on theoretical perspectives elucidated by instructional leadership theory (Hallinger &

Murphy, 1985), transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985), distributed leadership theory

(Sheppard, Brown, & Dibbon, 2009), and the transfer of learning framework (Baldwin & Ford,

1988). The methodology used for data collection was a semi-structured, open-ended

questionnaire, followed by one-on-one, face-to-face interviews. The sample consisted of 36

respondents made up of 30 headteachers, two coordinators (one doubled as a trainer), three

trainers who participated in the manual development training in Ghana and Gambia, one faculty

member from MUN who provided expertise and contributed to the development of the training

manual, and one Ghanaian consultant who collaborated with the COL and MUN representatives

before the program started.

Findings revealed that headteachers and school principals who undertook the training

successfully developed contemporary leadership SKAs. Most trainees endeavoured to implement

what they learned in the training program at their workplaces, but factors such as resistance to

change, lack of employer support, and poor conditions of service caused a relapse in their ability

to apply contemporary leadership skills. In light of these findings, recommendations are made

for program improvement and further development in addressing issues of social content in the

adaption and implementation of skills for future trainees.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Background and Context of the Study

The Commonwealth of Learning (COL), Vancouver, Canada, and the Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland (MUN), St. John's, Canada, in consultation with selected educational institutions in four English West African countries (i.e., Ghana, The Gambia, Sierra Leone, and Nigeria) planned and implemented a web-based leadership training program for headteachers and school principals in 2010 (Sheppard, Hurley, & Anamuah-Mensah, 2010). The purpose of the program was to educate "master trainers" who would return to their respective countries and train school principals and headteachers to acquire leadership skills that reflect 21st century practices and help enhance student achievement. The program was carried out in two phases aiming at developing a final training manual that master trainers would use in their respective countries to train other school leaders and administrators. The materials in the training manual were co-developed by Canadian academics and the local trainers from each country through two five-day workshop development sessions. The academics brought their expertise, research evidence, and theories. The local trainers brought their expertise and their knowledge of local context, ensuring thoughtful reflection on each of their own country's circumstances and practices.

The first phase took place in Accra, Ghana, from 29th March, 2010 to 2nd April, 2010. Activities included the modification and development of existing materials to meet the needs of headteachers and principals of schools in Commonwealth West Africa countries. The modified materials (i.e., print, audio, and video) were initially developed by Memorial University of Newfoundland; the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration; National

Teachers' Institute, Kaduna, Nigeria; the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana; and the

Ministry of Education, The Gambia. This resulted in a drafted manual to be used for the second

phase.

The second phase took place in Gambia from 29th November, 2010 to 3rd December,

2010. The objectives were to critique the drafted manual developed in Accra during the first

phase and come out with a final web-based leadership training manual. The second session was

also aimed at developing expertise among the selected local trainers who on return to their

individual institutions would organize leadership training programs for headteachers and school

principals to improve their practices as leaders and managers of schools. Evidence suggested that

the two workshops were successful, informative, and relevant to the task of training educational

leaders (Sheppard, Hurley, & Anamuah-Mensah, 2010). Selection of participants for both

workshops was done by COL in consultation with training institutions and the Ministry of

Education in the selected countries.

Shortly after developing the manual in Gambia, Ghanaian trainers started implementing

the program in 2011 focusing on the following objectives: to disseminate innovative knowledge

and skills in school management to enhance the professional skills and effectiveness of

headteachers and school principals; to provide a forum for headteachers and school principals to

exchange ideas and experiences for managing primary and secondary schools, and; to provide

an opportunity for continuing professional development to headteachers and schools principals.

This study essentially was focused on the COL-MUN headteachers and school principals'

leadership program, which Ghana has started implementing for basic school headteachers in the

southern part of the country since 2011. Specifically, I sought to investigate and ascertain its

progress, with the aim of determining whether the master trainers successfully implemented the

program as planned and if so, how was it implemented and what did trainees learn that would be

applicable in their own working conditions. The prime objective of this research is to investigate

the successes and challenges that characterized the training, what participants learned, the

processes through which they intended implementing those concepts in the Ghanaian context,

and socio-cultural factors that influenced the implementation process.

The confluence of research confirms that quality leadership is a *sine qua non* in all

educational settings because of its influence on students' performance (Chen, Zheng, & Lo,

2011; Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008). Leithwood and associates, for instance, note that

effective leadership is the second most important factor in student achievement after the quality

of teaching. In spite of this general agreement, however, some researchers argue that the quality

of leadership provided by the school is dependent on a leader's prior training and experiences

before assumption of duty (Greenfield, 1985; Orr & Barber, 2007; Orr & Orphanos, 2011).

Along the same line, several scholars have agreed that effective principal training does make a

difference to school efficiency and improvement (Beck & Murphy, 1992; Bush, 2008; Bush,

Kiggundu, & Moorosi, 2011; Darling-Hammond, Meyerson, LaPointe, & Orr, 2010; Hallinger,

2011; Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Hallinger & Walker, 2011; Leithwood, 1994; Murphy & Louis,

1994). Similarly, Maicibi (2005) argues that schools may have first class instructional materials

and financial support at their disposal, but without the requisite leadership skills effective

performance in the school may end up being a mirage.

Even though the literature suggests leadership training is essential, Bush (2008) notes that

the traditional view in most African countries still holds that school leaders and administrators

need only to be qualified and experienced teachers. Currently in Ghana, the criteria for selecting

headteachers and school principals are based on long service, attainment of a specific rank, age

(i.e., not more than 50 years), and qualification. By extension, candidates are required to hold a master's degree, regardless of the field of study. Additionally, applicants must pass an interview organized periodically by the Ghana Education Service (GES) Council[1]. This mode of selection implies that any teacher in active service with a master's degree and a considerable number of years of teaching experience is a potential administrator without necessarily having to go through any formal leadership training. The resultant effect is an inordinate number of teachers occupying leadership positions in basic (from kindergarten to junior high) and senior high schools without prior leadership training paths - a situation some authors contend is prevalent in many (if not all) African states as well as other developing countries (Bush & Oduro, 2006; Otunga, Serem, & Kindiki, 2008). In a more recent study, Donkor (2015) affirmed the phenomenon in which headteachers' in Ghana are selected to manage schools without prior leadership training, and describe the mode as risky and an affront to school development. Donkor's (2015) assertion is based on the fact that most school leaders of both basic and senior high levels do not practice contemporary leadership skills that promote learning leading to poor student's performance (Ministry of Education, 2015). Within this context, Bush (2008) argues that leadership is a parallel, if not separate, profession and requires specific preparation. He further notes that to appoint a school leader without specific preparation is like playing a "gamble", and cautions against such practices of gambling with children's education. Some researchers have suggested that leadership training and development must be a pre-condition for appointing headteachers and school principal (Donkor, 2015; EdQual Research Programme Consortium, 2010). An investigation into this phenomenon to reveal the necessity for leadership development at this present time is thus very appropriate.

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[1] The GES Council is responsible for appointing headteachers and school principals for pre-tertiary education in Ghana.

Socio-cultural Context of the Current Study

The current study was viewed from a socio-cultural perspective because, like many other

nations in sub-Saharan Africa, leadership practices in Ghana are influenced by several socio-

cultural factors. These factors include the larger scale forces within various cultures and societies

that affect peoples' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours. Prominent among these factors are

interference in school policies, discrimination, regional differences, cross-cultural difference,

culture change, child rearing practices, and ethnic values. Other factors include family and

kinship structures, structure, religious beliefs and practices, parental attitude towards education,

teachers' attitude towards work, and general societal norms. An interplay of these socio-cultural

factors produces effects that can negatively or positively impact educational initiatives. In their

study, Elenkov and Manev (2005), for instance, conclude that socio-cultural context directly

influences leadership and moderates its relationship with organizational innovation. For the

purpose of this study, the research focuses on identifying negative effects of socio-cultural

factors.

One of the socio-cultural factors that influences leadership practices in Ghana is

government's interference in school activities. Government's interference in and control of

school policies in Ghana, for instance, occurs in different forms, but often renders educational

leaders ineffective. Such interference does not give schools the autonomy to operate in

accordance with objectives that school administrators wish to achieve. For instance, the

decentralization concept gives Municipal and District Chief Executives (MDCEs) the ultimate

power and authority to accept or reject local initiatives by school administrators within the

decentralization framework, especially at basic school levels (Ghana Education Act, 2008). The

decentralization concept requires that school development proposals from a school should be

discussed at a local level through an established School Management Committee (SMC), which

also serves as a governing body for that school (Dunne, Akyeampong, & Humphreys, 2007).

When agreement is reached by the SMC members, the proposal is further presented at a District

Education Oversight Committee (DEOC). This adds another level of scrutiny and approval. The

DEOC, mostly chaired by a district or municipal executive, exercises an oversight responsibility

for all basic schools within a district or municipality (Ghana Education Act, 2008). Proposed

initiatives already accepted by an SMC at local levels are often turned down if, for example, they

do not fall within the budget provision of the district or municipal assembly. In practice, most

school projects are initiated by the district and municipal chief executives and these

administrators ensure that such projects align with government's manifesto pledges. Instead of

allowing school authorities at local levels to participate fully in school issues and make decisions

regarding the children for whom they are responsible, decision-making regarding educational

planning and development always flows from top to bottom. The decentralized structure not only

puts a limitation on the headteacher's leadership capabilities but also generally places more

demands on local institutions and schools (Chapman, 2000).

Discrimination is another socio-cultural factor that influences leadership in the Ghanaian

context. In many societies, discrimination manifests itself in diverse forms such as gender

inequality, religious and ethnic discrimination, cultural deprivation, and so forth. In fact, the way

Africans perceive and understand leadership is quite different than in other jurisdictions. For

instance, in Ghanaian culture leadership and decision-making are prerogatives reserved for men.

Accordingly, a woman in a leadership position is often considered a deviation from the norm.

This perception creates difficulties for women in leadership positions through staff members'

resistance to change and frequent flouting of the leader's authority. Several researchers (e.g., Fu,

Tsui, Liu, & Li, 2010; Hofstede, 1997; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) have

raised a similar concern in positing that the way leadership is viewed and valued depends on the culture of the society. Specifically, Hofstede (1997) states, "In some societies women taking positions traditionally meant for men is considered very abnormal" (p. 17). This observation is highly consistent with the social context and gender norms of Ghana.

Connected to discrimination as a socio-cultural factor and the effect of discrimination on leadership in Ghana are kinship and family structures. The traditional leadership system, for instance, replicates itself in formal organizational environments and this, in turn, affects educational leadership in terms of gender. In most traditional Ghanaian societies, the overall leader is a man, the king, or the chief. Predominantly, it is the queen mother who selects the king but when it is time for decision-making she is usually excluded (Stoeltje, 2003). The queen is just a supporter of the king and always limited in her authority to relatively minor issues concerning women (Steegstra, 2009). Similarly, the man is the greater authority in the family and has the sole prerogative to decide for family members including his wife (Sudarkasa, 1986). In consequence, most women in leadership positions are often treated with disdain. As such, they do not enjoy the needed support and cooperation of staff members, nor from the society in general as would a male leader (Hofstede, 1997). The perception is that female leaders are dictatorial but the stark reality is that any leadership style women exhibit reflects the negative experiences they are confronted with at their workplaces.

Furthermore, there are several ethnic groups in Ghana, each having a unique culture comprising language or dialect, common staple foods, artifacts, folklore, occupations, music, and other unique aspects of culture (Schildkrout, 1978). For instance, ethnic groups around coastal areas engage in fishing as well as fish mongering as their main occupation. Indigenes in the Transitional Zone and forest areas are predominantly peasant crop farmers, while ethnic groups

in the Savana Zones still live as nomads with limited but improved animal husbandry practices (Schildkrout, 1978). The societies in urban centres have, however, become cosmopolitan such that many peoples with different beliefs, values, educational background, and business experiences co-exist and display a variety of traditions and cultures (Hart, 1973). These cross-cultural differences have direct influence on how children are raised in various regions of Ghana. In fishing communities, for instance, pupil truancy is prevalent especially during peak fishing seasons. People in these communities are mostly poor and rarely engage in decision-making at school level (UNESCO, 2004b). The same problem of pupil truancy can be observed in crop farming localities during planting and harvesting times of the year as most children are needed as farmhands. Parent attitudes toward education are quite different in those localities based on their ethnic values, occupation, and the level of education as compared to urban dwellers (UNESCO, 2004a).

Regional difference is another important socio-cultural factor that influences leadership in sub-Sahara Africa (SSA). In the Ghanaian context, the country is divided into ten geographic regions. Each of these geographic areas has different ethnic values, cultures, religious beliefs, infrastructure, and climatic conditions, all of which interact to produce specific effects on educational delivery in each region. For instance, there is newer and more modern infrastructure (hospitals, schools, roads, potable water, etc.) in the southern regions as compared to those in central and northern parts of the country. The colonial rulers structured the country such that people in the northern territory, by existing vegetation and resources, produced food to feed those in the south (Aryeetey & Fosu, 2003). Not only that, railway and road infrastructure were constructed to link only a few northern and central communities endowed with natural resources such as gold, diamond, manganese, timber, and others. The overarching objective was to help

transport timber, cocoa, and mineral resources from production areas to the coast where they could easily be shipped abroad. Transportation infrastructure was thus planned for the colonialists to achieve their trade objectives but not for the general interest of the country's economic and social activity (Dickson, 1961). As such, more school and health facilities are concentrated in the south seemingly at the expense of the north and other rural areas. The initial colonial developmental agenda, therefore, has created infrastructural inequality in the country with the northern sector and rural communities in the south much less supported. In consequence, teachers frequently refuse postings to those areas and the few who accept seldom show a commitment to teaching or professional development (UNESCO, 2004b). Their attitude toward work can, in certain cases, be very poor. For example, teacher absenteeism and drunkenness are common in areas lacking resources and social amenities (UNESCO, 2004b). In view of this, opportunities for educational development in these economically challenged communities are seriously hampered leading to poor student performance.

Given the above social and cultural conditions, it is often difficult to implement leadership principles that headteachers and school principals learn from in-service training (INSET) and other leadership development programs such as the COL-MUN project. There is growing need, therefore, to understand the subtleties and nuances of leadership as it is exercised in different cultures such as those described above. There are culturally-contingent attributes that can help or hinder leadership. For instance, what is deemed as a strength in one culture may be a considerable impediment in another. Again, there is a need to understand the culture within which school administrators work and how their employees understand and perceive leadership. Many educational experts have argued that leadership is not a "one size fits all" enterprise (Fullan, 2007; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Leithwood, 1994). Leadership development planners

must acknowledge this reality and thus develop individualized leadership attributes, tailored to the unique culture within which school administrators work. In some cultures, one might need to take strong, decisive action to be regarded as a leader. Meanwhile, in other cultures, consultation and a democratic approach may be the preferred option to exercising effective leadership (Elenkov & Manev, 2005). Leaders are expected to have vision, but how this is displayed differs from culture to culture. Communication skills, for example, are important to the leader, but again, how these skills are perceived differs among and within cultures. What constitutes a good communicator is likely to vary greatly across cultures. For example, American managers are more likely to provide directions to subordinates on a face-to-face basis while Japanese managers are likely to use written memos, language, as well as nonverbal cues (Hofstede, 1980). In many cultures, interrupting someone is considered to be impolite, while in most Latin cultures, interrupting conveys that one is interested in what the other person is saying (Romero, 2004).

The most successful educational establishments, in the researcher's view, will be those that not only understand the nuances that exist among different cultures, but have development organizers who train their leaders to lead in ways that demonstrate an understanding of and appreciation for distinct cultures. The contemporary headteacher's leadership style will need to be protean, changing to adapt to their social surroundings. Sensitivity to the unique culture within which a school is established may well be the most important leadership attribute for a Ghanaian headteacher or school principal.

It is within this dynamic context that the current study has been designed to investigate three interests. The first is the challenges and successes of the COL-MUN leadership development program. Second, is what the headteachers and school principals who participated

in this program learned about implementation. Third, is to identify the socio-cultural factors that influenced the implementation of those skills they learned. Achieving these objectives will provide insight as to how leadership training should be organized and modified to address the leadership limitations associated with many of the socio-cultural characteristics of Ghana.

Statement of the Problem

Since the year 2006, Ghana has experienced considerable decline in student results at the basic school level and grades obtained by high school students at the West Africa Secondary School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) are discouraging (Ministry of Education, 2015). Although there are several reasons for this phenomenon, school leadership has been identified as a major factor (Agbemabiese-Grooms, 2011; Donkor, 2015). In the previous section, attention was drawn to specific socio-cultural factors that create leadership difficulties and the social context with which leadership development programs should be familiar in other to be successful. Evidence indicates an acute need for quality leadership and school management in sub-Saharan Africa (Kiggundu, 1991; Obiakor, 2004a) in order to create positive, systemic change and to propel sustainable educational development. Within this setting, a policy was put in place in Ghana in 2007 that allows INSET programs to be occasionally organized by the GES. Such programs are intended for all newly appointed headteachers and school principals throughout the country. The objective of this policy is to aid the newly appointed school leaders to upgrade and improve their leadership skills and competences (The Ministry of Education Policy Statement, 2007). The web-based leadership training program organized by COL and MUN for headteachers and school principals, augments the existing INSET program.

Despite the existing educational leadership development interventions, effective school leadership remains a challenge (Agbemabiese-Grooms, 2011; Amakyi, 2010). For example, some scholars and government officials have recently expressed concerns about this

phenomenon citing the poor performance of students in mathematics and science (Fletcher, 2016). Parents blame teachers for students' underperformance, citing inappropriate teaching methods and lack of commitment; teachers in turn shift the blame onto school leaders for lack of support and inadequate instructional materials; while school leaders and administrators put the blame squarely at the door-step of government for poor working conditions, interference in school policy initiatives, and lack of financial and logistical support (UNESCO, 2004b).

In the context of such confusion, emanating from accusations and counter-accusations by various stakeholders, the Sheppard, Brown, and Dibbon (2009) assertion that schools function as part of a complex adaptive learning system that is composed of multiple interrelated sources of leadership (both internal and external) and that the school leader is often confined in a mid-management position trying to satisfy all stakeholders rings true. The current situation in Ghana supports the assertion made by Amakyi (2010) and Agbemabiese-Grooms (2011) that there is a leadership problem in the country which requires an in-depth investigation. The current study, therefore, aims to investigate this problem by focusing on challenges and successes associated with leadership development program implementation, what participants learn during such programs, and the socio-cultural factors that influence the implementation process. To accomplish the study objectives, the COL-MUN leadership development program that has been co-developed by Western leadership experts and English West African educational leaders and that was designed drawing on contemporary leadership perspectives was used.

This study is necessary because, aside from other factors that contribute to leadership ineffectiveness in Ghana (and similar to other countries in the sub-Sahara African region), there is limited research illustrating the processes through which headteachers implement leadership concepts and skills they learn at INSET programs and factors that influence adaptation and

application of such concepts and skills within their schools (Bolden & Kirk, 2009; House,

Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Current literature touches mainly on leadership

preparation and development (e.g., Bush, 2008; M. Orr & Barber, 2007; Orr & Orphanos, 2011;

Otunga et al., 2008), but does not give insight into how trainees adopt and own the principles

they learn to suit their local conditions. Limited empirical information regarding the nature of

leadership in sub-Saharan Africa has also been noted (Bolden & Kirk, 2009). As well, much of

the literature touches on different types of leadership practices and their impact on learning

outcomes (Robinson, 2007), but does not give enough information regarding the implementation

of training processes as they relate directly to this particular type of program. Considering these

circumstances, there is a need to investigate processes through which trainees learn, implement,

and maintain leadership skills they learn to workplaces and to identify and expose related

challenging factors. Investigation of the effectiveness of the COL-MUN program in terms of its

implementation challenges and successes, what trainees learned, various strategies to implement

theories they learned, and possible socio-cultural factors that influence adaption and application

of such theories at their workplaces are paramount. Essentially, the current study serves as a

starting point to address leadership inefficiencies and to plan effective training programs in the

future. The organization of such training programs, the methodologies used, and how

participants learned and applied those theories and skills require immediate study.

General Purpose of the Study

Effective leadership processes, "must reflect the culture in which they are found"

(Dorfman, Howell, Hibino, Lee, Tate, & Bautista, 2006, p. 242). The purpose of this qualitative

case study, therefore, is to investigate the COL-MUN leadership development program to

determine the program's impact and effectiveness. Reference is made to what was organized in

Ghana and to describe the challenges participants encountered when implementing the skills and

concepts they learned during training sessions at their respective systems and schools. The objective is to explore cultural and contextual factors that have a significant part to play in leadership enactment and practices in Ghana and sub-Sahara Africa. To achieve this goal, the study investigated how the program was implemented considering challenges and successes; what participants learned and processes through which they intended to adapt and implement those concepts in the Ghanaian context.

Research Questions

To investigate the nature of adaption and implementation processes of this web-based training program, I employed the educational leadership development concepts of "blank spots" and "blind spots" by Heck and Hallinger (1999, p. 141). Blank spots refer to areas in our knowledge needing further investigation to expand our understanding. These areas are explored through important questions that can be answered through narrowly focused and sustainable inquiries. Blind spots were explained as gaps in our knowledge and understanding of a phenomenon. Through examining the blank and blind spots of INSET programs in Ghana, the study sought to address the following key questions:

1) What are the successes and challenges after the program implementation?

2) What did participants learn during this training program?

3) How do headteachers and school principals perceive the new leadership concepts they learned?

4) Through what process do participants plan to implement this learning to their schools?

5) What factors influence this implementation process?

This study is designed in such a manner that data retrieved through responses from various respondents will help answer all five key research questions.

Importance and Significance of the Study

A plethora of research in educational leadership effectiveness has shown that headteachers and school principals need training to be effective leaders (Beck & Murphy, 1992; Bush et al., 2011; Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Hallinger & Walker, 2011; Leithwood et al., 2008). Even though several forms of leadership preparation and development programs are ongoing in Ghana and other African countries, the problem of a leadership deficit continues to exist (Agbemabiese-Grooms, 2011; Amakyi, 2010; Bush & Glover, 2012; Donkor, 2015). Moreover, there is limited empirical data with respect to the nature of leadership in sub-Sahara Africa and the few studies that are rooted in indigenous culture and values are conducted by Western scholars, through Western perspectives to be consumed by Western audiences (Bolden & Kirk, 2009). In recent times, though, some indigenous scholars have taken up the challenge delving into leadership issues in Africa with the view to improving leadership practices in schools (Agbemabiese-Grooms, 2011; Amakyi, 2010; Brown & Owusu, 2014; Bush, 2008; Donkor, 2015; Wakahiu, 2011). However, findings in these studies do not give insight into the transfer or implementation of training and its inherent challenges. Consequently, the current study focuses on three crucial areas, which serve as sources of motivation for research in leadership training that is contextually sensitive.

First, the study seeks to unveil challenges associated with leadership training programs in Ghana thus helping to plan effective models in future. Next, it is intended to identify socio-cultural factors that influenced implementation of theories learned in training sessions to workplaces serving as a roadmap for future interventions. Finally, the study provides a framework for leadership development and policy formulation as well as procurement of

required logistics by the ministry of education and other authorities. With a well-developed training program underpinned by a solid theoretical base, it is anticipated that headteachers' and school principals' leadership skills will be enhanced - leading to greater efficiency and effectiveness within the educational sector.

Definition of Relevant Terms

   Basic Education/Basic school: The concept of "basic education" in Ghana denotes an education system that starts from Kindergarten through primary and ending at junior high. A basic school could be an amalgamation of these different levels at one location or established at separate places. However, the duration of student attendance should last for 11 years. By government legislation, attendance is free and compulsory and the age of students ranges between 4-15, defined as "the minimum period of schooling needed to ensure that children acquire basic literacy, numeracy, and problem solving skills as well as skills for creativity and healthy living" (GES, 2014). Basic education ends with the successful completion of the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE). The results of this examination determine which students are selected to enter Senor High schools. Kindergarten lasts two years (Age 4-6). The program is divided into six core areas: Language and Literacy (Language Development), Creative Activities (Drawing and Writing), Mathematics (Number Work), Environmental Studies, Movement and Drama (Music and Dance), and Physical Development (Physical Education). Primary school lasts six years (Age 6-11). The courses taught at the primary school level include English, Akan language and Ghanaian culture, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), mathematics, environmental studies, social studies, and French. Other courses include integrated or general science, pre-vocational skills and pre-technical skills, religious and moral education, and physical activities such as Ghanaian music and dance, and physical education. There is no certificate of completion at the end of primary school. Junior

High School lasts three years (Age 12-15). As noted earlier, the Junior High School (JHS) ends

on the BECE, which covers the following subjects: English Language, Ghanaian Language and

Culture, Social Studies, Integrated Science, Mathematics, Basic Design and Technology (BDT),

ICT, French (optional), Religious and Moral Education.

      Headteacher: Some sources refer to headteacher as the most senior teacher, leader, and

manager of a school. In the Ghanaian context, however, the term is used loosely to connote a

teacher who by his/her professional experience and rank has been assigned to manage either a

kindergarten or primary school.

      Headmaster: Unlike headteacher, the headmaster is assigned to manage either the entire

basic school of an area or a senior high school. If the basic school of a locality has a large student

population, sometimes there is a separate headteacher who manages both the kindergarten and

primary section and a headmaster who takes responsibility of the junior high section of that same

school.

      School principal: This is a school official who has been appointed to manage a college,

polytechnic, or any academic institution in-between senior high schools and universities. In

Ghana, headteachers, headmasters, and principals are all employees of the GES.

      Transfer: According to Broad and Newstrom (1992), transfer is referred to as the

effective and continuing application by trainees to their jobs of the knowledge and skills gained

in the training, both on and off the job. Even though this definition does not distinguish between

different types of training programs, it highlights several important aspects of transfer. For

example, it touches on the importance of time, implied by the term continuing. If the application

was a single-moment phenomenon without any change in work methods, one could not speak of

transfer as it is defined here. The definition is important for the current study because it makes

clear that transfer is characterized by the resemblance between learning and work situations: the greater the resemblance, the easier the transfer. This is the essence of transfer - translating acquired knowledge from one situation to another. One other consideration as far as Broad et al. (1992) are concerned is that transfer must be considered as a step between the learning process and actual job performance. For the purpose of this study, however, the term "implementation" is used more frequently instead of transfer.

Theoretical Framework

In practice, no single leadership theory can be applied strictly to manage an institution. Moreover, the type of leadership model adopted will depend greatly on prevailing circumstances and the culture of the organization. In school settings, for instance, the application of a single theory may be enough and effective in one situation, whilst a combination of models must be adapted to deal with a similar situation in another jurisdiction. If, for instance, the formal leader aims at developing technology programs, the ideal situation will require an application of several leadership and change theories to achieve the set goals. The Hofstede (2005) "culture software of the mind" configuration lends credence to this assertion, arguing that culture determines how people operate and therefore, leaders need to be aware of their own cultural influence in the organizational culture and that of the people they lead. Within this context, different leadership theories should be explored to understand, appreciate, and address the organizational dynamics. Invariably, leaders' awareness and deep understanding of emerging leadership theories helps them to choose the best leadership practices that can promote change and increase organizational effectiveness.

The following theoretical frameworks thus served as a basis for this study: *instructional leadership* (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985), a concept signifying that the leader focuses more on teaching and thus engages in activities that have greater potential to impact on school and student

outcomes; *transformational leadership* (Bass, 1985), a process by which leaders involve

organizational members to create relational connections that raise their consciousness,

commitment, capacities, self-interest, and fullest potential to contribute to the wellbeing of the

organization beyond expectation; *distributed leadership* (Sheppard & Dibbon, 2009), a model

that involves all members of the school community, rather than sole leadership approaches, or a

concept that embraces leadership from within and outside the formal hierarchy; and the transfer

of learning (Baldwin & Ford, 1988) framework, which outlines the three potential training-input

factors that are important for transfer of training, including trainee characteristics, training

design, and the work environment.

As noted above, instructional leadership places emphasis on activities that directly improve

educational outcomes. Some researchers have argued that an instructional leadership approach is

very important and most enduring in educational settings (Hallinger, 2005; Neumerski, 2013;

Smith & Andrews, 1989), and the overarching reasons assigned to justify these claims were

global standardized testing and accountability demands by educational stakeholders. In

recognition of these forces, the COL-MUN program incorporated the instructional leadership

model placing greater emphasis on the "broad" view, which encompasses all leadership activities

that affect student learning (Glatthorn, 1995; Glatthorn & Jailall, 2009; Sheppard, 1996). The

prime objective for the inclusion of instructional leadership framework was to help trainees

conceptualize and model the three categories of instructional leadership activities which

Hallinger and Murphy (1985) propounded: the leader defines the mission, manages the

instructional program, and promotes school climate.

The COL-MUN leadership training program was developed to align with the assertion that

leadership is context bound and exists within "the corridor of belief" which already exists in the

followers (Foster, 1989. p. 29). Foster argues that if leadership is to be effective it must be validated by the consent of followers. It is from this perspective that the COL-MUN program incorporated activities that generally encouraged participants to reflect on their beliefs, values, norms, principles, and respective cultures. Also, the instructional leadership framework was included predominantly to enable participants to enact leadership practices that are appropriate for their own needs and in harmony with contemporary instructional leadership principles.

Transformational leadership is a model in which the leader while performing his or her duties stimulates and inspires other members of the organization to create healthy relationships that help to achieve extraordinary outcomes, and in the process, assists the team players to develop their own leadership capabilities. The underlying assumption of transformational leadership is "raising the team players' level of consciousness and enabling them to transcend their own self-interest for the good of the organization [and] making them to aspire to attain higher-level needs" (Bass, 1985, p. 20). The COL-MUN program incorporated the transformational leadership model to raise the consciousness of participants through a systematic development and adoption of a training manual using local materials to improve teaching and learning.

Using local materials to develop a training manual that is contextually appropriate resonates with an assertion that has been confirmed by several researchers, that the transformational leadership approach is well suited to tailoring essential attributes of quality leadership to an organization (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass, 1985; Northouse, 2012; Vera & Crossan, 2003; Xenikou & Simosi, 2006). These essential elements of quality leadership include: encouraging a leader to be attentive to the needs and motives of those being led; assisting followers to develop their own potential; promoting members of the organization's values and attitudes for effective organizational transformation; augmenting a leader's desire to influence the team players to

achieve the goals and objectives, and; encouraging a leader's commitment to promote

organizational values. The COL-MUN program was developed to align with these

transformational approaches with the view to delivering relevant leadership skills among

headteachers and school principals.

The distributed leadership framework endorses the claim that schools are open systems and

cannot be viewed as a collection of parts (Hoy & Miskel, 2011). The model embraces leadership

from within and outside the formal hierarchy. Despite this firm assertion that schools are open

systems, it is obvious that parents are not able to participate in school activities as desired unless

an inviting environment is created by insider leaders. This is primarily due to the accepted norms

that have isolated schools from the community and parents. For parent and community to play

any meaningful leadership role in schools, the formal leaders especially headteachers, school

principals, and district level personnel must engage and bring such stakeholders together and

encourage them to become part of the school community. Studies have shown that, if

stakeholders are encouraged to become part of the school community and play active roles, the

prospect of school improvement is usually high (Kenneth Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, &

Wahlstrom, 2004). As well, Sheppard, Brown and Dibbon (2009) observe that for schools to

meet the learning and safety needs of all students, distributed leadership is a necessity, and

governments, schools, communities, and parents must work jointly to bring a focus on fostering

sustainable improvement in support of student learning and the provision of safe, caring schools.

Besides the above noted benefits, the COL-MUN leadership training program included the

distributed leadership framework for other reasons. For instance, the Spillane's (2008) theory of

distributed leadership highlights three essential features: leadership is enacted by multiple

players and not just the principal; it is a practice that occurs through people interacting with each

other and co-leading in different ways; and there is interdependence between leaders, followers, and the situation. Organizers of the program critically considered these features and oriented participants to the multiple leadership concept, underscoring the fact that leadership of contemporary schools involves more actors than the principal or headteacher and their deputies. Details of the above theoretical frameworks (instructional, transformational, and distributed leadership) can be found in the literature review section of this research paper.

This study was also framed around Baldwin and Ford's (1988) transfer of learning model. According to Baldwin and Ford (1988), there are three training-input factors that are important for transfer of training: trainee characteristics, training design, and the work environment. These three factors along with trainee learning and retention are believed to influence transfer. Baldwin and Ford's (1988) model informed this study because of the long-standing concern that there is a transfer of learning challenge in organizations, and the assertion that without transfer, training efforts cannot contribute to organizational effectiveness (Kozlowski, Brown, Weissbein, Cannon-Bowers, & Salas, 2000).

Even though there have been several updates and extensions of the Baldwin and Ford model (e.g., Burke & Hutchins, 2008; Ford & Weissbein, 1997), this study placed emphasis on the three basic input factors to enable the researcher to obtain insights into the organizational processes, instructional strategies, evaluation methods, and trainees' motivational level. Looking at the program through the transfer of training lens also helped the researcher to explore factors that facilitated or inhibited trainees' skills application efforts. Previous empirical study has confirmed that both trainee characteristics (e.g. cognitive ability, conscientiousness, self-efficacy, motivation, and self-esteem,) and work environment factors (e.g. transfer climate, supervisor support) are positively related to transfer (Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang, 2010). It is within

this context the researcher framed the current study along Baldwin and Ford's (1988) transfer of

learning framework.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

Purpose of Literature Review

The purpose of this literature review is to explore various ideas expressed by educational leadership researchers from the perspective of learner-centred leadership principles, leading change and school improvement, and school-based management, and to provide theoretical and research support for the present study. Even though the review of literature focuses on these thematic areas, the emphasis was placed on emerging leadership theories such as instructional, transformational, and distributed frameworks. Other areas of focus are culture and leadership challenges in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), organizational learning and change, as well as staff development principles. The main aim is to discover what researchers have concluded about professional development training along these lines and the need to build the capacity of school leaders, particularly headteachers of primary and junior high schools.

The leadership history in sub-Saharan Africa is also reviewed. This review comprises the historical models which include African traditional kinship and colonial authoritative leadership. The implications of these historical perspectives in relation to current leadership practices is discussed. Lastly, both the present leadership theories and historical leadership perspectives in Sub-Saharan Africa were integrated to conceptualize the need for an effective training of headteachers and school principals in Ghana.

The Literature Map

The research topic for the current study and areas reviewed is presented pictorially as illustrated in Figure 1. The map was adopted and modified from (Janovec, 2001).

Literature Map[2]
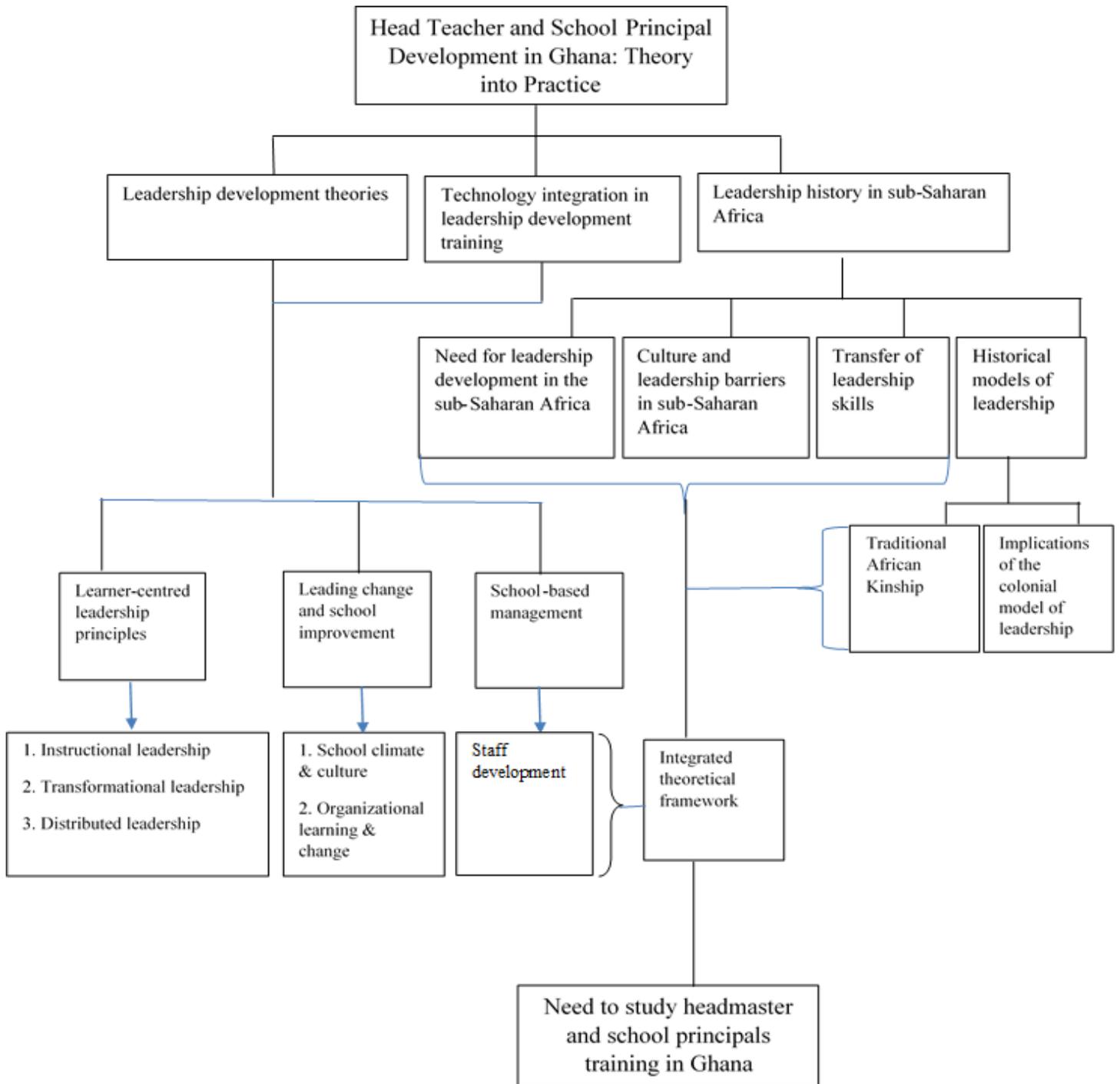
Figure 1: Literature Map for this Study

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[2] Adopted and modified from Janovec (2001)

Leadership Development Theories

The importance of leadership to organizational effectiveness has been recognized through various studies (Fiedler, 1996), and the need for strong leadership at the school level has also been supported in research around school improvement (Hallinger & McCary, 1990; Hallinger, 2011a; Louis & Miles, 1990), innovation, change, and implementation (Fullan, 1993; Hall & Hord, 1987; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). In this study, I draw upon the scholarly literature in fields broadly relating to an emerging learner-centred principles, culture and leadership challenges in sub-Sahara Africa, technology integration in leadership development training, the need for leadership development in the sub-Saharan Africa, traditional African kinship, implications of the colonial model of leadership, and transfer of leadership skills.

Learner-Centered Leadership Principles

The learner-centred leadership aspect of this study covers instructional leadership which focuses mainly on teaching and learning; transformational leadership that enlists the minds and hearts of others toward the accomplishment of a compelling shared vision; the distributed leadership, which aims at leading from within and beyond the formal hierarchy. A review of literature in these contemporary leadership frameworks is given below.

Instructional leadership

In 1979, Ron Edmonds who was a pioneer of effective schools' research published a ground-breaking article in which he stated that strong administrative leadership was a characteristic of instructionally-effective schools (Edmonds, 1979); or as Neumerski (2013) succinctly explained, "effective schools almost always have leaders focused on instruction" (p. 311). This conclusion propelled researchers across the globe to investigate what it takes to exercise instructional leadership. By the mid-1980s, professional norms deemed it unacceptable

for principals to focus their efforts solely on maintenance of the school or even on program

management. Instructional leadership then became the new educational standard for principals,

and has become the center of renewed interest in school leadership as governments in several

countries are increasingly fixated on student performance indicators (Bredeson & Kelley, 2013;

Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], 2014; Hallinger, 2011a; Le Fevre & Robinson,

2014; Lee, Hallinger, & Walker, 2012).

As the name suggests, instruction is the core technology of a school, which depends

largely on teaching strategies for the implementation of the prescribed curriculum. Thus,

instructional leadership places emphasis on activities that directly improve educational

outcomes. According to Rigby (2013), there has still not been a single agreed-upon definition of

instructional leadership. Literature, however, suggests two main views of the concept, the

"narrow" and "broad" views (Glatthorn & Jailall, 2009; Glatthorn, 1995; Sheppard, 1996). In the

"narrow" perspective, instructional leadership connotes those actions that are directly related to

teaching and learning such as classroom supervision, inspection of weekly forecast, and

monitoring of student progress. In the "broad" view, however, instructional leadership is school-

based management in nature comprising all leadership activities that affect student learning. To

conceptualize these activities, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) made three broad but

straightforward categorizations that can be observed as per the following actions by the leader:

defines the mission, manages the instructional program, and promotes school climate. In

concurrence with such broad categorizations by Hallinger et al., Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990)

observe that routine managerial behaviours contribute in the same magnitude as direct

instructional behaviours that improve teaching and learning. In relation to both "narrow" and

"broad" perspectives, Stewart (2006) argues that every instructional leader stresses enhancing

student achievement, which differentiates it from other leadership models. As a result, he described an instructional leader as someone who makes instructional and learning excellence the center of his/her actions, communications, and decisions. Such leaders, according to Stewart, frequently organize workshops for teachers with the aim of enhancing their teaching prowess.

Research evidence suggests that the instructional leadership model has inherent deficiencies that makes its sole application incomplete for student achievement (Bredeson & Kelley, 2013; Dimmock, 1995; Sheppard & Brown, 2011). Dimmock (1995), for instance, argues in relation to Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) leadership model that instructional leadership is too prescriptive and relies on a top down process of management. He asserts that schools are characterized by "loose coupling and autonomy" and a better strategy would be a bottom-up approach. He further states, "The traditional top down linear conceptions of leadership and management and their influence on teaching and learning have become inappropriate" (p. 295).

Another limitation of instructional leadership is that in many instances, principals have less expertise than the teachers they supervise rendering the framework ineffectual (Dimmock, 1995; Hallinger, 2003; Le Fevre & Robinson, 2014). In light of this observation, Le Fevre et al. (2014) suggest that instructional leaders are required to develop a strong technical knowledge of teaching and learning and to be able to promote and sustain a culture of professional learning within their respective schools. Others hold a similar view; apart from developing the aforesaid expertise, the ability of an instructional leader to be skillful in curriculum design, development, and evaluation is equally important as it helps the leader to intervene directly with teachers in making instructional improvement (Hallinger, 2003; Stewart, 2006).

Additionally, Stewart (2006) states, "Many school principals are so engrossed in the managerial and administrative tasks of daily school life, that they rarely have time to lead others in the areas of teaching and learning" (p. 6). This is consistent with the recent claim by Le Fevre and Robinson (2014) that instructional leaders have limited time to deal with teaching and learning issues after fulfilling administrative and fiducial responsibilities. In prior research, Sergiovanni (1992) argued on a similar line and maintained that instructional leadership is not needed as much in circumstances in which teachers are committed, well trained, and competent. Instead of focusing more on instructional activities, LaRocque and Coleman (1991) observe that research on emerging school leadership tends to focus on the ability of the administrator to contribute to the creation of a school ethos of collaboration, professionalism, and shared vision. Similarly, Leithwood and Menzies (1998) contend that the instructional leadership images are no longer adequate and that the transformational image is more appropriate for change processes.

Despite the above noted difficulties, researchers have argued that an instructional leadership approach is very important and most enduring in educational settings (Hallinger, 2005; Neumerski, 2013; Smith & Andrews, 1989). Several reasons have been given that justify this claim, but global standardized testing and accountability demands predominate. For instance, with the current accountability policies such as the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislature in the USA, most educational leaders have shifted and aligned themselves to the narrow view of instructional leadership (Townsend, Acker-Hocevar, Ballenger, & Place, 2013). Similarly, in trying to find out the impact of different types of leadership on students' academic and non-academic outcomes, Robinson, Lloyd, and Rowe (2008) observe that instructional leadership effects are consistently and notably larger than other leadership types. As well, Şahin (2011)

concludes that instructional leadership has a positive impact on school and classroom culture and consequently a positive effect on student achievement, despite differences among cultures.

Even though instructional leadership has become indispensable because of prevailing circumstances some of which have been noted above, some scholars contend that the vast majority of leaders are not able to practise it appropriately due primarily to a dearth of understanding of the concept and what it entails in respect of specific behaviours (Leithwood, 1994; Parise & Spillane, 2010). In order to deal with such limitations and achieve its full benefits, Sheppard (1996) recommends that instructional leadership should be an integral part of the educational administration program in all educational faculties, and professional development for school administrators should include an emphasis on the importance of the framework. In concurrence to Sheppard's recommendation, Morrison (2009) observes that the inclusion of instructional leadership in educational programs will not only help potential leaders to understand the concept but will also influence a change of their own practices towards the achievement of quality student learning experiences.

The divergent views of instructional leadership regarding its meaning and benefits have ultimately shifted the discourse to another level thereby encouraging researchers to propose varied terminologies. For instance, instead of instructional leadership, Hallinger (2011) coined the term 'leadership for learning', while Sheppard (2016) prefers to adopt a different terminology, 'distributed instructional leadership'. These terminologies are functionally similar to the broader view of instructional leadership with Hallinger (2011) suggesting that they "incorporate both a wider range of leadership sources as well as additional foci for action" (p. 126). In agreement with Sheppard (2016), researchers contend that distributed leadership should

be incorporated into the instructional leadership framework with the view of achieving its full

benefits (Kelley & Salisbury, 2013; Neumerski, 2013).

From the forgoing, it is clear that instructional leadership has an inherent propensity to

enhance student performance, if appropriately adapted and practised. However, Higgins and

Bonne (2011) assert that instructional leadership is no longer a viable leadership approach due to

complex and specialized environments that characterize the contemporary school system. The

COL-MUN program planners, in addressing Higgins and Bonne (2011) concern, considered the

cultural dynamics and complex environment that exists in selected countries and designed the

program accordingly. Essah-Hienno (2009) contends that policy makers in Ghana, as a matter of

priority, should equip leaders with the necessary instructional leadership skills in order that they

perform their duties effectively to ensure positive learning outcomes. To accomplish this

objective, my literature review has already referenced distributed leadership as an alternative

model that can be incorporated into the instructional leadership framework. Nonetheless, there

are other approaches such as transformational leadership, which need to be explored, and like

distributed leadership, can also be incorporated in the instructional model to render it more

effective and worthy of practice. The following section elaborates on transformational leadership

from that perspective.

Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is one of the emerging leadership models, which aims at

improving teaching and learning as well as the elements of organizational work (Morrison,

2009). To conceptualize its practices, Morrison notes that transformational leadership helps

practitioners to enlist the minds and hearts of others towards the accomplishment of a compelling

shared vision. This is supportive of Bass and Riggio's (2006) observation that the

transformational leader while performing his or her duties stimulates and inspires others to achieve extraordinary outcomes and in the process, assists them to develop their own leadership capabilities.

In the late twentieth century, Burns (1978) conceptualized transformational and transactional leadership as two different constructs, which have since gained currency in the educational leadership discourse. Some authors contend that transformational leaders raise the morale and motivation of their followers; encourage them to achieve performance beyond expectations; and offer assistance to transform their attitudes, beliefs, and values (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1999a, 1999b). In contrast, transactional leaders cater to their followers' immediate self-interests (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999), and view leadership as an exchange relationship between leaders and followers (Burns, 1978; Homans, 1950). In the context of Burns and Homans' assertion, Bass and Riggio (2006) conclude that leadership must go beyond exchange relationships and rather reach the point of recognizing and addressing followers' needs. Bass and his associate further conclude that leaders must consistently involve their co-workers in all decision-making processes by using effective communication strategies, and providing support, mentorship and coaching with the sole aim of achieving superior and sustainable results.

While working on the two-factor theory, Bass et al. (2006) conclude that the transformational and transactional leadership frameworks are two opposite ends of the leadership continuum. Theoretically, transformational leadership reflects a boss-subordinate healthy relationship building process as opposed to simply gaining compliance. The transformational leader portrays a unique character that inspires the workforce, and recognizes employees as precious colleagues and teammates, not just mere underlings. Researchers have mostly focused on transformational leadership with little attention given to the transactional model (Hinkin &

Schriesheim, 2008). Transactional leadership is, however, useful in certain circumstances. For example, the use of incentives and rewards may be applicable to get teachers posted to remote places where, due to insufficient and poor infrastructure, teachers frequently refuse posting. Additionally, Moolenaar, Daly, and Sleegers (2010) observe that transactional leadership is generally acceptable when attempting to maintain the status quo or for short term leadership arrangements.

Bass and Riggio (2006) identified four key characteristics usually displayed by transformational leaders: charisma, which was later renamed idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Idealized influence refers to the charismatic actions of the leader that focuses on values, beliefs, and a sense of mission (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). These actions are characterized by leaders talking about their most important values and beliefs, emphasizing the collective mission and purpose, as well as considering the ethical implications of their decisions. Consistently, leaders who exhibit idealized influence reassure their followers that challenges that beset an organization can be overcome. These attributes on the part of the leader promote respect, admiration, and trust among their followers. Idealized influence has received empirical support with respect to school climate improvement. For example, Allen, Grigsby, and Peters (2015) found a positive relationship between the idealized attributes of a leader (i.e., ability to command respect, exhibit power, emphasize on collective mission and purpose, focus on group interest, etc.) and the seven school climate dimensions (i.e., order, leadership, environment, involvement, instruction, expectation, and collaboration).

To conceptualize inspirational motivation, Downton (1973) defined inspiration as the action or power of moving the intellect or emotions. Bass (1985) restricts the use of the term

inspirational leadership to instances when a leader employs non-intellectual, emotional qualities

to the influence process. Bass notes that inspirational leaders add affective qualities to the

influence process using inspiring talks and emotional appeals. Similarly, Yukl (1981) treats

inspiration as, "the extent to which a leader stimulates enthusiasm among subordinates for the

work of the group and says things to build subordinates' confidence in their ability to perform

assignments successfully and attain group objectives" (p. 121). In clear terms, Bass and Riggio

(2006) assert that leaders who practise inspirational motivation tactics articulate a compelling

vision of the future and always try to arouse team spirit. The leader, through appeals and emotion

laden statements, motivates employees to look beyond their self-interest for the advancement of

the organization. Empirical research supports the use of inspirational motivation as a means to

positively influence student reading achievement (Allen et al., 2015). As well, Rafferty and

Griffin (2004) observe that expressing positive and encouraging messages about the organization

was positively associated with emotional attachment to a firm, individuals' confidence in their

capacity to carry out a range of proactive and integrative tasks, and the extent to which people

voluntarily helped others.

Bass and Riggio (2006) also observe that transformational leaders intellectually stimulate

their members by frequently seeking their views when dealing with problems. They actively

solicit new ideas and new ways of doing things. They stimulate others to be creative and never

publicly correct or criticize others. The effects of intellectual stimulation, according to Bass and

Avolio (1990), become apparent when followers' abilities to conceptualize, comprehend, and

analyze problems increase, and the quality of solutions they generate improves. Rafferty et al.

(2004) argue that, even though intellectual stimulation may enhance ambiguity and conflict in

the workplace, employees finally feel valued when they are encouraged to actively engage in an

organization and when their creative instincts come to bear. They contend that intellectual

stimulation may be one way in which leaders indicate to employees that their organization values

their contribution. This increases affective commitment – thus, the extent to which followers

identify with, are involved in, and are emotionally attached to an organization (Meyer & Allen,

1997). Rafferty et al. (2004) explain that when leaders encourage followers to consider problems

in new ways and to actively engage in the workplace, they experience an increased sense of

investment in the organization. In this context, they describe intellectual stimulation as

enhancing employees' interest in, and awareness of problems, and increasing their ability to

think about problems in new ways. Recent empirical studies support the assertions that

intellectual stimulation attributes of a headteacher influence the overall school climate and

impact on student achievement (Allen et al., 2015; Moolenaar et al., 2010).

Individualized consideration refers to treating followers as individuals and not just

members of a group (Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, & Spangler, 2004). This type of leadership

practice establishes a supportive climate where individual differences are respected. Interactions

with followers are encouraged and the leader is aware of individual concerns (Bass, 1999). The

prime aim of the leader in this respect is not only to recognize and satisfy the needs of the

followers, but also to mentor and coach them to reach their full potential. This is done by

ensuring that the organizational climate is redefined as a supportive one that promotes new

learning opportunities for all members of the organization. Studies have shown that

individualized consideration attribute exhibited by a school leader helps to enhance student

success and promote conducive school climate (Hauserman, Ivankova, & Stick, 2013; Leithwood

& Jantzi, 2005).

Just as transformational leadership practices can be conceptualized through any of the aforementioned behaviours, transactional leadership is characterized by the following constructs: contingent reward and management-by-exception. Bass (1985) suggests that praise for work well done, recommendations for pay increases and promotions, and commendations for excellent effort are examples of contingent rewards. However, the context within which leaders portray such actions is an important factor to consider when differentiating between the two approaches. For instance, Goodwin, Wofford, and Boyd (2000) claim that the negotiation of rewards for good performance represents a form of transactional leadership, but rewarding followers based on their performance represents a transformational process as followers and leaders have a personal investment in the vision.

Contrary to early claims that transformational leadership was a predominantly powerful source of leadership in military settings, research has shown that it is essential in many sectors of our society (Bass & Bass, 2009). For instance, Sergiovanni (1992) contends that transformational leaders build consensus among staff, promote teamwork, and place emphasis on the need for shared organizational values and culture. Similarly, McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) found that transformational leaders have a positive impact on follower's sense of optimism, which facilitates group performance. Fuller, Morrison, Jones, Bridger, and Brown (1999) conclude in their study of nurses that follower empowerment mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Research conducted in Tanzania by Nguni, Sleegers, and Denessen (2006) shows that the group of transformational leadership behaviours have strong to moderate positive effects on value commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, and job satisfaction. Similarly, Finnigan and Stewart (2009) found that transformational leadership had an indirect influence on student achievement. Empirical study of

corporate and educational leaders reveals that effective transformational leaders has a great effect on student achievement when they are more attuned to the specific behaviours that influence teachers (Onorato, 2013), lending credence to the fact that school leaders, although are not directly involved in classroom instruction, can impact positively on students' outcome.

Despite the above noted positive effects of transformational leadership, researchers have drawn attention to its inherent difficulties and advise practitioners to be warry of its adaptation and practices. For instance, Bass (1999) notes that an organizational culture has the tendency to pose a challenge in practicing transformational leadership. For example, if workers are not motivated and the necessary support is not given, the formal leader finds it difficult to promote and sustain an all-inclusive leadership. Additionally, researchers have suggested effective and inclusive communication as a tool for successful transformation practice (Leithwood, Jantz, Earl, Watson, Levin, & Fullan, 2004). Gender issues in relation to transformational leadership have also been documented (Acker, 1992; Bass, 1999). Similarly, Robinson et al. (2008) assert that even though transformational leadership has its positive side, it still needs further investigation to ascertain the best procedure that will help improve student performance. This is because there is still a dichotomy between classroom practices in general and particular practices that actually lead to greater student achievement; practices that a leader needs to identify and nourish (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006).

School leaders and administrators are generally not involved in the direct delivery of instruction. However, studies have shown that the behaviour of leaders, especially when supportive, collegial, and not overly restrictive, can have positive effects on student achievement through the impact their behaviours have on school climate and stakeholder involvement (Tschannen-Moran & Tschannenen-Moran, 2011). The foregoing discussion shows that

transformational leadership is an important framework in relation to school improvement and

student achievement but should be exercised alongside other leadership styles. The following

section provides a detailed review of distributed leadership that has been recognized as an

emerging learner-centered framework and that can be incorporated in the transformational

leadership model.

Distributed leadership

The concept of distributed leadership started around 1984 when Murgatroyd and

Reynolds stressed that "leadership can occur at a variety of levels in response to a variety of

situations and is not necessarily tied to possession of a formal organisational role" (cited in Law

& Glover, 2003, p. 37). Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, several studies were conducted to

develop teacher leadership that were contrary to previous practices where leadership rested on

the principal and his or her assistant (Lieberman, Saxl, & Miles, 2007; Louis, Marks, & Kruse,

1996; Weiss & Cambone, 1994; Wheatley, 1999). This led to the concept of 'teacher leaders'

where teachers worked together as a team. Since then, several studies on this subject have led to

the conclusion that distributed leadership is central to the teaching and learning process in the

school, and that leadership involves all members of the school community, not just principals

and their lieutenants (Duignan, 2007; Spillane, 2008). For instance, Spillane's (2008) theory of

distributed leadership highlights three essential features: leadership is enacted by multiple

players and not just the principal; it is a practice that occurs through people interacting with each

other and co-leading in different ways, and; there is interdependence between leaders, followers,

and the situation. In the same vein, Duignan (2007) observes that "the idea of sharing leadership

responsibilities more widely in schools is desirable because leadership of contemporary schools

is too much for any one person" (p. 3). These two lines of research agree that leadership happens

in a variety of ways throughout the school and is centred in the interactions between people. The Duignan (2007) report also distinguishes between the impact of headteacher leadership (typically 5–7%) and total leadership (27%). This finding provides much of the empirical underpinning for the current interest in distributed leadership.

In agreement with Spillane and Duignan's views and on the basis of reiterating the need to ensure meaningful and sustained transformation processes in schools, Sheppard, Brown, and Dibbon (2009) argue that there must be a "recognition that schools are just one component of a complex adaptive learning system that is composed of multiple dynamic interrelated subsystems that interact to influence student learning" (p. 102). In earlier discussion, Schlechty (2005) emphasized the importance of systemic change and posits that before embarking on any educational changes, we must understand how the structure and culture of schools and school systems "affect the behaviour of teachers and students in classrooms, and how this behaviour is related to what and how students learn in schools" (p. 1). Since then, several studies have been conducted in an effort to put the distributed leadership into its desired perspective and to address misconceptions associated with its meaning and application (Harris, 2009; Humphreys, 2010; Sheppard et al., 2009). For instance, Harris (2009) contends that distribution does not equate with delegation in a functional sense. She notes that distributed leadership is a process of shared leadership activity, mutual discussion, and dialogue, differentiating the concept from delegation, which refers to the routine dispensation or receiving of tasks.

Veritably, the concept of distributed leadership varies in meaning to different people (Humphreys, 2010; Ritchie & Woods, 2007). Humphrey, for instance, defines distributed leadership as, "the operation of participative leadership throughout the school in a manner which enables people to work together to improve teaching and learning" (p. 45). Harris (2010) refers

to distributed leadership as, 'the expansion of leadership roles in schools, beyond those in formal leadership or administrative posts' (p. 55). Sheppard, Hurley, and Dibbon (2010) treat distributed leadership as a shared leadership responsibility of both formal leaders (i.e., school administrators) and informal leaders (i.e., teachers) in a non-hierarchical and inclusive style that fosters collaborative and ethical practice. Simply put, in distributed leadership, the work of leaders is performed separately but interdependently (Duignan, 2007; Spillane, 2008). For instance, an assistant principal as part of his or her duties visits classrooms and give formative evaluations, while the principal occasionally make a formal visit and give a summative evaluation.

The foregoing discussion of the literature makes it amply clear that the distributed perspective focuses on how leadership practices are dispersed among formal and informal constituents of an organization with the overall objective of creating an inviting environment that supports student learning. It is a form of collective movement incorporating the activities of many individuals in the organization who work at mobilizing and guiding other members. Taking the school into context, Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2001) persuasively point out that in distributed leadership, various groups within and outside the school support each other in the process of instructional change all in effort to achieve a predetermined goal. This resonates with Sheppard's (2012) assertion that headteachers or principals and their deputies, teachers, and staff may be encouraged and empowered to be innovative and creative and to work collaboratively with colleagues, parents, and other members of the school community. According to Sheppard, there is an element of both instructional and transformational leadership concepts when practising effective distributed leadership.

In recent times, researchers such as Hallinger and Heck (2011), Sheppard and Dibbon, (2011), and Spillane (2012) reiterate the need for leadership distribution within the school system to ensure optimum student learning. In a study to explore how educational leadership practices and the factors that influence these practices interact to impact student learning, Sheppard and Dibbon (2011) confirm the concept of schools as professional learning communities and underscored the need to engage multiple sources of leadership in the facilitation of a school's focus on teaching and learning. They stress that without such a leadership scheme, both the promise of professional learning community and sustained improvement in student learning outcomes are likely to fail. Similarly, Sheppard (2012) concludes that for schools to meet the learning and safety needs of all students, distributed leadership is inevitable. His claim is based on the premise that the constituents of the school system have a vital role to play through collaboration with the aim of fostering sustainable improvement and ensuring safety environment that supports student learning.

Studies have shown that the principal's authority is severely limited as s/he occupies a middle management position that involves trying to satisfy the various school stakeholders, thereby making her/his impact on student performance most often indirect (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Harris, 2009; Leithwood, Patten, & Jantzi, 2010; Sheppard et al., 2009). Within this context, Sheppard and Brown (2011) observe that an all-inclusive approach that allows principals to engage other constituents of the school as leaders had a large effect on the extent to which their study schools focused on student learning. They conclude unequivocally that relying "on only one or two sources of leadership is likely to lead to disappointment" (p. 136).

It is obvious based on the above review of literature that distributed leadership is one of the emerging frameworks that has drawn attention and interest among researchers. However,

most of these researchers have expressed genuine concern regarding the distributed leadership

concept and its application. For instance, despite the acknowledgement that sharing leadership

responsibilities more widely in schools is desirable, because leadership of contemporary schools

is complex and too much for any one person to handle, Duignan (2007) in critiquing the concept

asks what has to be distributed and to whom. Similarly, Harris (2004, 2014) criticizes the

literature which is not clear on 'the exact form' that distributed leadership takes. She thus asks

two important questions regarding the nature of distributed leadership: How is leadership

distributed, and who distributes leadership? Adding a similar question, Bush and Glover (2012)

wonder what is it that must be distributed. As an indirect response, Hurley and Hurley (2015)

argue that responsibility for making decisions is what is shared, emphasizing that decision

making is very important in administration. Consequently, it is the aspect of leadership practice

that is most often shared.

The above noted discussion is connected to the assertion that, "some leadership functions

need to be performed by those in particular positions or with special expertise, not just anyone in

the organization" (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004, p. 14). Correspondingly,

Halverson and Clifford (2013) observe that, "knowing who acts as a leader is the first step of a

distributed leadership analysis; and knowing what leaders do and, more importantly, how they

shape the context of practice completes the picture" (p. 390). In prior discussion, Elmore (2000)

notes that in any organization people will have different skills and competencies that are related

to their predispositions, interests, aptitudes, prior knowledge, and specialized roles. Within this

context and to address some of these questions, Duignan (2007) contends that responsibilities for

distribution varies from country to country and can be curricular, pedagogical, pastoral, or

administrative. An analysis based on statistics from the first PISA study (OECD, 2008) shows

that by far the greatest responsibilities distributed to teachers, including department heads, are

around curriculum and student policies. Responsibility for human resources or financial

resources is not generally distributed to teachers; they are more likely to reside with the board

and/or the principal because of accountability requirements. However, Bush and Glover (2012)

observe that trust and a sense of shared values are key factors to consider as regards to what is

distributed. They report that these characteristics facilitate the distribution process, inspire

leaders to empower other members to lead on certain issues and take independent decisions

without excessive reporting or intrusion, and permits collaboration among the leadership team

devoid of accountability mechanism.

       With respect to how leadership is distributed, Court (2003) and Bush Glover (2012)

provide fascinating insight that merits consideration. For instance, Court (2003) observes that

schools that practise distributed leadership most often "scheduled time together for professional

dialogue" (p. 34). Distributive leaders also devote considerable time to team meetings that

promote shared leadership as well as providing opportunities for the co-leaders to "report on

activities for which they have responsibility" (Bush & Glover, 2012, p. 34). Despite these

provisions, Bush and Glover note that the formal leader preserves considerable residual power,

which indirectly answers Harris's question, who distributes leadership? As mentioned earlier,

formal leaders play central roles in deciding what is distributed and how distribution is

accomplished, partly due to accountability demands that persist in many countries. In line with

this, Thomas (2009) points out that most school leaders show "strong leadership within a team

framework" (p. 2), supportive of Gronn's (2010) concept of 'hybrid' leadership, which illustrates

a combination of solo and distributed elements.

There is an emerging perspective that takes the distributed leadership discourse to another level. This perspective does not restrict the teachers' engagement to pedagogical issues but broadens the scope of their leadership to decision-making in the overall operation of the school. The concept of shared decision-making and the democratization of schools is apparent in several studies, albeit with varied findings (Greenleaf, 1966; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Weiss & Cambone, 1994). Greenleaf, for example, found a positive effect on teacher efficacy and levels of morale; Hallinger and Heck, found a paucity of evidence linking distributed leadership to improved student outcomes; while Weiss and Cambone found that teachers' involvement in whole-school change could detract them from classroom teaching.

In spite of any leadership style adopted, Halverson and Clifford (2013) note that the work of a school leader is to establish an enabling environment to ensure optimal teaching and learning. In light of this, Sheppard (2016) states, "drawing upon the already well-developed theories of transformational, instructional, and distributed leadership, irrespective of nomenclature, shows much more promise than the continued search for yet another one best theory" (p. 14). The various leadership frameworks discussed so far overlap in different circumstances while dealing with school issues, and such overlapping phenomenon facilitates the achievement of desired educational goals. The effects of standardized testing and accountability demands, for instance, have influenced several leaders to focus seriously on the instructional model with limited focus on others (Paulsen & Moos, 2014; Sheppard, 2012, & Zhao, 2014). Nonetheless, Sheppard (2016) concludes insightfully that school leaders who have a rich understanding of other leadership frameworks and apply them accordingly will most likely succeed in their leadership endeavours.

Distributed leadership has gained currency in contemporary leadership discourse. Researchers are advocating for its practice in school settings with leaders at all levels being encouraged to master both the leading and learning environments and judiciously apply the different leadership frameworks using distributed leadership as a focal point. It is a framework that allows for individuals to participate in leadership and contribute to the effort of disentangling sub-Sahara Africans cultural enmeshment.

Culture and Leadership Challenges in Sub-Sahara Africa

School climate and culture are key factors to consider when planning school improvement programs in educational institutions, or when adopting a leadership approach. This, however, cannot be discussed without considering the broader perspective of culture and leadership challenges in sub-Sahara Africa of which Ghana is a subset. Sub-Sahara Africa is a geographical term referring to areas of the continent of Africa that lies south of the Sahara. It basically contrasts with North Africa, which is considered a part of the Arab World. The region is made up of people with different ethnicities and heritages. There are also different languages alongside intra-ethnic parlances, cultures, kinship ties and structures, and an array of ethnically allied lifestyles (Gyekye, 1997; Lucas, 2001; Odhiambo, 1995). Despite the diversity, Africa is similar in many areas that define the "Africanness" of the people. Awedoba (2007) describes the similarities within the sub-Saharan Africa peoples as having a "special configuration of various features and cultural patterns that may be encountered in the study of African models of livelihood, beliefs, attitude, behaviours even in languages and artistic expression" (p. 21). Similarly, Etounga-Manguelle (2000) notes that there is "a foundation of shared values, attitudes, and institutions that bind together the nations south of the Sahara" (p. 67). A telling example is that most African countries claim related historical and colonial struggles that require coalition to

augment development. This cultural configuration can be used as a source of unity to forge change and development in the region.

Even though there are similarities in terms of beliefs, behaviours, cultures, and so forth, there are different values which ought to be considered in leadership development projects. Taking individual countries in perspective, and Ghana for example, the people hold onto some values and norms that inform the educational agenda of the country. In comparing the views of novice and relatively experienced principals from South Africa and Canada to determine what is required for pre-appointment preparation, Mentz, Webber, and van der Walt (2010) note that leadership development is a construct that depends on its settings and recommend that all leadership training should be value-oriented. They further recommend that leadership training be much more focused on people skills rather than on organizational knowledge. Considering the complex nature of every society, exposure to a variety of relationships in the form of informal mentoring and networking during and after training programs thus becomes indispensable. As well, Mentz et al. (2010) assert that the impact of informal networks on training and preparation of people as future leaders should not be underestimated. Again, they maintain that formal training will always remain useful and important but should be augmented by informal training. This is consistent with the Lumby, Crow, and Pashiardis (2008) assertion that the leadership preparation stage is very complex and does not only take place through formal programs but through the entire socialization process.

Researchers describe Africa as composed of collective societies because of the strong community ties that exist within clan, community, and family (Gyekye, 1997; Hofstede, 1980; Tutu, 2000). The spirit of interdependencies is innate within African communities and is

propagated by a concept referred to as ubuntu[3]. Thus, "the essence of being human" illustrated as "a person is a person through other persons" (Tutu, 2000, p. 31). Culturally, Africans perceive humans as belonging to a bundle of life. This innate tendency makes Africans embrace hospitality, care about others, and go the extra mile for the sake of others. The belief of a typical African is that a person is a person through another person; that one's humanity is caught up, and bound up inextricably with the other neighbour. Accordingly, a person with ubuntu is open and available to others (Mbiti, 1999; Tutu, 2000). Additionally, the concept of harambee[4] is preferred in numerous community situations. Whenever an individual is in need, harambee is quickly organized ensuring that resources are pooled together to bail out the individual in question. In support of these collective and interdependent perspectives, Linquist and Adolph (1996) posit that Africa societies tend to be classless within age groups but ranked between age groups. Therefore, it can be argued that African leadership has specific cultural details, such as consensus and teamwork that are vital in leadership techniques and preferable in Africa.

Even though, the traditional leadership in Africa is characterized by a strong and quality interdependence, unity, similarity, and consensus, it does not necessarily mean that leaders in various organizations practise democracy. Mangaliso (2001) cautions against the indiscriminate acceptance of all African customs and practices because it may conceal many variations. Rather, awareness of the cultural view might provide significant understanding for leadership development techniques to integrate African and global leadership models for a cohesive "best fit" in the sub-Saharan situation. In Ghana, for instance, to become a successful leader demands active communication, effective delegation, and assurance that guarantees befitting

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[3] Ubuntu: is an ancient African word meaning "humanity to others." It also means "I am what I am because of who we all are".
[4] Harambee: is a Swahili version of pulling together, signifying community self-help events such as fundraising.

responsibilities for all members of the organization. The differential power distance between

leaders and subordinates in the Ghanaian situation is pervasive due to the existing cultural

heritage (Hofstede, 1997). It is inappropriate and disrespectful, for instance, to talk while an

elderly person is talking in Ghanaian context. This situation sometimes discomfits leaders when

it comes to disciplinary matters. However, there are significant differences among various ethnic

groups each of which requires a unique and pragmatic leadership style.

It is worth noting that several variables have contributed in no small measure to the

breakdown of cultural leadership values in clans and ethnic communities. Some examples are

colonial invasion, introduction of western religions, and migration. All these have dismantled the

cultural fabric and the result has had both positive and negative implications (Bude, 1983;

Obiakor, 2004b). It is important to be familiar with these cultural differences and their

accompanying challenges in order that future leadership training programs are tailored to address

them effectively.

Technology Integration in Leadership Development Training

Technology integration in leadership development training is a key issue because

globally, technology has been accepted and used in almost every facet of human life. In schools,

for instance, it has gradually become a routine part of how teachers and students live, socialize,

communicate, and work in school and at home (Alshehri, 2013; Sheppard & Brown, 2014). This

view is in support of Selwyn's (2009) assertion that the youth nowadays are engulfed with

technology and are willing to apply it everywhere in their lives.

The wide use of technology has caused many educational institutions to integrate it into

their curriculum. Accordingly, school management at all levels invest hugely to ensure absolute

realization of full benefits of these emerging technologies. Regrettably, there is growing

evidence suggesting that irrespective of such heavily invested resources, technology integration

in curriculum has not meaningfully transformed classroom teaching and learning processes

(Harris, Mishra, & Koehler, 2009; Means, 2010; Sheppard & Brown, 2011). Researchers have

attributed this phenomenon to several factors including but not limited to inappropriate

leadership frameworks (Sheppard & Brown, 2014); forceful government policies (Yeung,

Taylor, Hui, Lam-Chiang, & Low, 2012); inadequate teacher preparation and lack of support

(Archambault, DeBruler, & Freidhoff, 2014; Barbour, 2012; Levine, 2006); methodological

flaws, and; inappropriate instructional designs (Loughran, 2013; Mayer, 2010; Tapscott &

Williams, 2010). This review, however, highlights the leadership concerns, and focuses

essentially on the usefulness of incorporating technology in leadership development programs.

Studies suggest that leadership has absolute influence in relation to teaching and learning

especially if perceived from a distributed leadership perspective (Sheppard, 2016). For instance,

restructuring of the entire school system and its impact on student learning becomes possible if

leadership is effectively distributed (Sheppard & Brown, 2011; Sheppard & Dibbon, 2011). Be it

technology integration or otherwise, Sheppard and Dibbon (2011) contend that leaders within the

newly distributed leadership structure are able to "influence policies and practices and exert a

direct influence on how teaching and learning is manifested in school classrooms" (p. 7). In this

context, some researchers argue that technology integration in leadership training is essential

because, it helps potential leaders to understand the concept of technology application and

adaption, and provides strong leadership support by giving the adoption clear priority besides

focusing on individual user's cognitive absorption of the change (Lapointe & Rivard, 2007).

Research shows that if technology is integrated into leadership training programs, it encourages

potential leaders to learn, spend time with the technology implementation team, and attend team

meetings because of their prior exposure to technology integration (Solimeo et al., 2013).

The importance of technology integration in leadership development programs does not apply only in educational milieus. In a study to investigate difficulties associated with the implementation of e-health initiatives in the health sector, for example, the investigators observed that new technology was most likely to normalize where implementers perceived that it had a positive impact on interactions between professionals and patients and between different professional groups, and fit well with the organisational goals and skill sets of existing staff (Murray, Burns, May, Finch, O'Donnell, Wallace, & Mair, 2011). From the above noted findings and in the context of distributed leadership perspective, the initial exposure of technology integration at leadership trainings sessions is essential in order that leaders within the leadership structure are able to function effectively. The North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (2010) affirms this and points out that technology integration in leadership development programs is beneficial not only in increasing educational productivity, but also in improving school administrative effectiveness.

Aside from technology training, there are other issues that call for immediate expansion of technology in the educational sector starting from leadership. For instance, literature makes it amply clear that in sub-Sahara Africa, the population of 5-to 14-year old is expected to grow by more than 34 percent over the next 20 years, and the region will need to respond to the educational demands of 77 million new students (Provost, 2011). The United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2011) reports that currently, only 36 percent of those who want to enroll in secondary education in sub-Saharan countries can find seats in schools. A year earlier, Allen (2010) noted, "globally, of those 20 or younger, 30 million are qualified to attend university, but there are no places for them and this number increases to 100 million by 2020" (p. 103). This trend seems quite alarming and demands that online

education and other forms of virtual learning ought to be integrated in the school system in order

to deal with the situation. However, success and effective integration of technology in school

curriculum depends largely on the versatility and techno savvy of school administrators.

Sheppard and Brown (2014), for instance, argue that an appropriate leadership framework is

essential for successful integration of emerging technologies in schools. Interestingly, there are a

number of digital initiatives in Africa but what is required currently, as per the assertion of

Sheppard and Brown (2014), is an appropriate leadership framework for their utilization in order

to bring technology integration efforts into reality. A few of such initiatives are outlined below.

The African virtual university which began in 1997 as a pilot study in sub-Saharan Africa

by the World Bank has transformed into an independent non-profit organization headquartered in

Nairobi, Kenya. Its mission is to increase access to educational resources throughout sub-

Saharan Africa and promote quality higher education in the most critical areas of economic

development. It started with 57 learning centres in 27 African countries working to support

economic development, and offers various programs leading to certificates, degrees in Business

Administration and Computer Science (African Virtual University, 2009; Kumi-Yeboah, 2010).

Additionally, in the connect Africa Summit: Bridging the Digital Divide (2007), 43 African

governments agreed to connect villages to broadband by 2015, adopt key regulatory measures

that promote affordable, widespread access to ICT services and support the development of a

critical mass of ICT skills (UN Commission for Africa, 2007; Wright & Reju, 2012). Besides

these initiatives, the Virtual University for Small States of the Commonwealth (VUSSC) is also

an important network of small countries committed to the collaborative development of free

content resources for use in an educational context. Given the aforesaid initiatives, what is

lacking is the commitment to leverage these efforts in assuring that the continent joins others in

achieving the rewards of global interconnections. There is no doubt that leadership is required in

this regard to guarantee the commitment and subsequent rewards.

As noted earlier, technology as an instructional tool and its related pedagogy have taken

deeper roots in our school system. The onus is on leaders to prudently integrate technology into

the curriculum such that its innovations not only transform student learning environments, but

also equip them with the critical competencies and dispositions to succeed in a knowledge

economy. To accomplish this, however, technology integration into leadership development

training must be a priority such that potential leaders' technology skills would be enhanced

thereby helping their respective schools to use ICT innovatively to bring us closer to achieving

the desired educational goals. The following section touches on leadership history in sub-

Saharan Africa with the emphasis placed on whether or not leadership development in sub-

Saharan Africa is necessary.

Need for Leadership Development in Sub-Saharan Africa

'Leadership development' is frequently used as a generic term for both pre-service and

in-service leadership training. For the purpose of this study, the term will be used to connote all

forms of training before or after someone becomes a leader in both private and government

institutions and encompasses entry qualifications and other forms of training.

On many of the international platforms, the development in sub-Saharan Africa has been

a key subject of discussion (World Economic Forum, Davos, 2005; G8 Summit at Gleneagles,

2005; G8 summit in Germany, 2007; G8 summit in Japan, 2008). The focus of these discussions

has been on the need to bring a real change in sub-Sahara Africa and how economic growth and

development will be sustained. For example, the World Bank Report (2010) states that about half

of all new projects in relatively poor regions are directed to "support primary education and

include interventions such as teacher training, school based management, community

involvement in schools, and attention to marginalized populations" (p. 16). Other world bodies

have raised concern about the bleak outlook for development in African countries. The United

Nations Conference on Trade and Development (2004), for instance, expresses a similar concern

and describes the trend as unfortunate and catastrophic.

The poor growth in African countries has been blamed on various factors. For instance,

studies in the effectiveness of Africa organizations have been based essentially on three broad

frameworks comprising socio-cultural, historical, and psychological (Zoogah, Peng, & Woldu,

2015). Researchers who adopted the socio-cultural frameworks attributed the ineffectiveness of

African organizations to the cultural beliefs, values, attitudes, and behaviours that condition

African managers and workers to poor attitudes to work, low motivation, excessive religiosity,

and low productivity (Eze, 1995; Onyemelukwe, 1983; Osuji, 1984; Roberts, 1990). On the other

hand, those who relied on the historical perspectives argue that the practices of colonial

enterprises were not oriented toward enhancing effectiveness of African organizations (Blunt &

Jones, 1992; Decker, 2010; Dia, 1996; Nyambegera, 2002). The remaining researchers who used

the psychological models claim that poor leadership undermine the performance of workers and

effectiveness of African organizations (Munene, 1991; Roberts, 1990; Seriki, Martin, &

Parboteeah, 2010; Ugwuegbu, 2001). Besides these three broad areas, there are other assertions

that Africa's poor economic performance can be blamed on institutional and structural flaws

(Edoho, 2007; Killick, 2001; Kuada, 2010), insufficient attention and performance in private and

public sectors (Richards, 2001), inefficient leadership and management in both public and

private sectors (Bolden & Kirk, 2009; Kiggundu, 1991; Kuada, 2010; Obiakor, 2004). For

example, Carlson (1998) states "indicators of growth in Africa are pointing downwards and the

organizations have become the center piece of the discussion and the problems of inefficiency

have become much worse, particularly within the public sector" (p. 14). Interestingly, these researchers allude to the fact that leadership development at all levels may be a starting point for the entire Africa transformation. There is general agreement that effective leadership can ensure security that is essential for opening up investment and job creation prospects that enhance human and social capital investment.

Kiggundu (1991) and Safavi (1981) contend that the scarcity of leadership studies and incapacities of some leaders characterize the African leadership challenge. In a review of 57 countries in Africa, Safavi (1981) disclosed that "the inability of African nations to train capable managers for major institutions has been the main inhibitive factor to real economic and social development" (p. 319). In the same vein, Kiggundu (1991) asserts that deficiency in top-management competencies is the reason for Africa's slow development in social, economic, and political growth. In a straightforward expression, Zoogah, Peng, and Woldu (2015) state, "marked by fast growth, limited growth, or no growth at all, Africa's business, government, and civil sectors all need world-class management" (p. 8). The above noted studies suggest that Africa and its businesses are deficient in comprehensive strategies for leadership development, technological innovation and adaptation, and healthcare qualities that are significant for a healthy and competitive nation.

Most of these researchers believe sustainable economic growth in Africa requires proactive and pragmatic leaders who can endure the emerging developmental challenges that the continent faces. Culture and leadership barriers in sub-Sahara Africa (SSA) have also contributed to the poor development in almost all sectors of the economy. The following section is devoted to the discussion of this claim. It is also intended to shed more light on the historical models of leadership in SSA with emphasis on traditional African kinship.

Traditional African Kinship (TAK) and Contemporary Leadership

Kinship ties were central in the life of Africans and continue to be functional in some quarters of social life (Lalngaihawmi, 2001). It is a concept that fostered unity among community members during colonial struggles. Kinship leaders cooperatively worked with the people to offer advice, to criticize, and to help the clan to address general community matters. In the African tradition, a leader was viewed as "someone who is a servant to a clan, tribe, community, or group" (Masango, 2003, p. 313). Even though traditional leaders are considered servants, the people accord them a special reverence that cannot be compromised. In Ghana, for instance, because traditional leaders, particularly the kings and queens are held in high esteem, the 1992 constitution forbids them from engaging in active partisan politics partly for fear that they would be publicly vilified. As well, they are not permitted to participate in outdoor games, all in an attempt to preserve their dignity and social reverence. Over the years, kinship leaders promulgated laws, norms, rules, and regulations that they adhered to in adjudication of cases, though unwritten. Communalistic life is central to African individuality (Edoho, 2001), and strong cultural and ethnic identity was evident in many African societies because they provided the foundation of cohesive ethnic communities in arbitration.

Given the characteristics of the TAK model, it is instructive to note that presently the ethnic aligned leadership is no longer well-organized because of both migration and mingling of the people and interference from the colonialists. However, the model persists in most institutions and organizations in different forms, but it is shrouded in activities perceived as a team-based and participative leadership approach. Aside from having a link to the societal norms and traditions, most of such activities have tribal connotations with the tendency to negatively affect modern leadership practices. For instance, in almost all the tertiary institutions in Ghana, it is easy to find different types of unions each representing a microcosm of what pertains to their

respective cultural settings. This tribal grouping concept has some advantages, but in the final

analysis may create strange cliques and rival factions, which if not well managed could

degenerate into serious ethnic conflicts in organizations and institutions creating difficulties for

the leader. In fact, tribalism has been defined as a cancer and a demoralizing challenge that is

corrupting African moral fiber and society because it renders some leaders ineffective (Ayittey,

1992; Miguel, 2005).

Many leaders are unable to implement effective policies because of nepotism and tribal

affiliations. For example, in research on the consequences of tribalism in higher education

institutions in Nigeria, Moriba and Edwards (2009) found that tribalism has diminished quality

leadership in government and institutions hampering ethical decisions-making processes. In most

African countries, the norms of tribal leaders are still evident where clan arbitration in disputes is

highly respected (Gordon, 2002; Salvaterra, Wakahui, Farr, & Safino, 2009). In serving justice in

the instance of the "Yavcxa-Na[5]" murder quagmire, for instance, a powerful arbitration

committee composed of eminent chiefs was formed. Even though the case has not completely

been resolved, the volatile situation in that region in Ghana has returned to normalcy due to

effective and tactful dealings by these eminent chiefs. In the face of these dynamics within the

traditional leadership landscape, a new leadership training approach that helps in propagating a

united front, by integrating both cultural and modern values, is required (Mentz, Webber, & van

der Walt, 2010). A body of literature confirms that leadership is a culture-specific phenomenon

(Bass, 1997; Hofstede, 2005; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005) and leadership

behaviours vary within various cultures (House et al., 2004). In research conducted in 53 cultures

of the world, Hofstede (1980, 2001) found that individual cultures play a significant role in the

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[5] Yaa-Na: is a title bestowed on the paramount chief in the Northern part of Ghana.

model and leadership style adopted by the individuals in the organizations. Similarly, Yukl (2002) contends that leaders, as a matter of necessity, should understand how people of different cultures view and interpret their leadership styles.

While leadership is a widely-studied concept in the developed nations (Bass, 1985; Bennis, 2003; Senge, 2006), there is limited research on leadership development related to the sub-Saharan Africa leadership approaches (Bolden & Kirk, 2009; Ndongko, 1999; Zoogah, 2009). Although a few studies have examined leadership behaviour in organizations (Awedoba, 2007; Jackson, 2004; Ugwuegbu, 2001), most restrict their investigation about leadership to those leaders in the top-management supervisory roles. Jackson (2004) and Bolden and Kirk (2009) argue that most of the leadership studies conducted in Africa focus on western leadership models. In view of the emerging global village propelled by increased technological networks, an understanding of global leadership is paramount to broadening the Africans' perspective to design their own theories and establish leadership approaches that are contextually appropriate.

The few available studies conducted in the African context ignore cultural specificity, which is essential for leaders to understand in order to avoid pitfalls and promote an integrated approach to organizational leadership. In this regard, leadership studies that are relevant to the sub-Saharan situation are needed. Moreover, training the sub-Saharan African leaders on ways to apply the knowledge and skills in their cultural, economic, social, and political context is crucial. It is important to note that African leaders rarely abandon their traditional perspectives on being a leader (Hofstede, 2005) and the majority adhere to practices that incorporate the belief systems, normative values, and acceptable behaviour within a specific cultural setting (Edoho, 2001; Maathai, 2006). Therefore, modern leadership styles might offer vital lessons to tone down any disconnect between informal, indigenous, and formal institutions. Juxtaposing the cultural

implications on leadership styles, the next section is devoted to look into colonialism and related leadership practices in sub-Saharan Africa.

Implications of the Colonial Model of Leadership

Understanding the implications of the colonial model of leadership is essential in order to situate leadership models exhibited in sub-Saharan countries and organizations and in order to design programs that integrate desired leadership models. At various times in history Great Britain, France, and Belgium claimed vast portions of East and West Africa and established colonial rule (Diallo, 2003; Fafunwa, 1982; Uzoigwe, 2002). They established colonial rule by the assimilation method, making the colonized country a part of the colonialist nation by extension (Betts, 2005). These colonial dictators introduced some forms of education and government systems similar to those in their mother countries. By 1950, for instance, over 40 percent of school aged Gold Coast (now Ghana) children were attending school, and the Gold Coast was the most educated part of West Africa (Hallett, 1974). These education systems in some ways side-lined the traditional rulers, removing their participation in policy formulation. Traditional chiefs, for instance, retained limited power and took their instructions from British administrators when Ghana was under her colonial "Masters" (Swaffield & MacBeath, 2013). More often than not natives supplied labour in agriculture production and mineral exploitation (Hopkins, 2014; McElroy, 2005). The community members were made to do all the menial jobs with no opportunity to complain. As a matter of fact, the colonial model of leadership was overtly authoritarian in character and thrived on the principle of "do before complain".

Colonial governments confined Africans in villages and assumed an autocratic style of leadership by use of a "divide and rule" strategy, thereby disintegrating African ties (Onodiwe & Ibelema, 2003). Africa was demarcated into countries under the colonial sphere of influence by superimposing boundaries that often have been the source of division and conflict in the region

(Gordon, 2002; Spears, 2007). The colonial suppression diminished Africans' sense of self-esteem by breaking family ties and the unity of kinship and clan leadership models characterized by shared responsibility and guidance in resource management. Instead, the new colonial order revolved around ruling by threats, punishment, and exacting control over the indigenous peoples.

It is however worth noting that the sub-Saharan woes cannot solely be blamed on colonialists. Even after independence, African leaders emulated the colonial model by perpetuating autocratic leadership styles in the institutions (Akata & Renner, 2009; Obiakor, 2004). Perhaps, it was the only kind of leadership that could resonate with them, and so they modeled the style as and when it became necessary. Surprisingly, forty years after most of these countries attained independence, endemic leadership, organizational and management wrangles still persist in the region (Nyambegera, 2002). For example, Ochola (2007) in his book, leadership and Economic Crises in Africa, points out that some African leaders are ineffective and adopt poorly the demands of an increasingly complex globalized economic system. Similarly, in describing leadership in sub-Saharan Africa, Gordon (2002) contends that subsequent political leaders initiated control, pillaging of the treasury, and radicalism to build their political castles. For instance, in a study about the crisis of leadership in Africa, Odhiambo (1995) established that "leaders and managers are authoritarian, autocratic, inflexible, and insensitive, concluding that leadership tends to be ethically linked and not skill or merit based, resulting in a state of ineptitude and mediocrity" (p. 15).

This kind of leadership manifests itself in despotism, leaders resisting change, the incarceration of human rights activists, eccentric characters, and improper resource management. Even though some African countries have opted to practise democracy and thereby periodically elect a president, continued tyranny allows some of these elected leaders to perpetuate the

hierarchical order that generates top-down models of leadership and practices (Ardichivili, Cardozo, & Gasparishvili, 1998). The top-down model of leadership has been criticized because it assumes leadership as power and a capacity to influence (Northouse, 2012). In sub-Saharan Africa, the authoritarian leadership model has had far-reaching negative effects on the peoples because of corruption, totalitarianism, tribalism, social and economic struggle, and managerial incompetence endure, resulting from time to time in civil agitation.

In line with this, providing leadership skills that enhance community participation is undoubtedly important for sustainable development in every aspect of the economy in SSA. Instead of pointing fingers at the colonial model of leadership and the contemporary model of failing political leadership regimes, providing a model that can be replicated in organizations and community development programs is indispensable. This study, inter alia, intends to explore and understand ways in which participants in the COL-MUN leadership training program can own and implement theories they learned in their own local conditions without any tyrannical tendencies to their workplaces. The following section discusses these implementation processes in detail, drawing on existing literature.

Implementation of Leadership Skills

Over the years, human resource development (HRD) scholars have expressed concern over the implementation of training problems leading to vigorous studies in this subject. The reason might be due to a high investment associated with training programs and other considerations. For whatever reasons, Baldwin and Ford's (1988) model triggered off most of the learning transferability investigations, in an effort to find solutions to the skills and knowledge implementation issues.

Transfer has been defined as the effective and continuing application, by trainees to their jobs, of the knowledge and skills gained in the training, both on and off the job (Broad &

Newstrom, 1992). Even though this definition does not distinguish between different types of

training programs, it highlights several important aspects of transfer. For instance, it touches on

the importance of time, implied by the term continuing. In effect, if the application was a single

moment phenomenon without any change in work methods, one could not speak of transfer on

the basis of the Broad et al's. (1992) description. Additionally, their description of transfer fits

perfectly into the objective of this study because it makes it abundantly clear that transfer is

characterized by the resemblance between learning and work situations. Thus, the greater the

resemblance, the easier the transfer, and that precisely is the essence of transfer - translating

acquired knowledge from one situation to another. In this context, transfer must be considered as

a step between the learning process and actual job performance. From an interpretivist point of

view and for the purpose of this qualitative case study, a key goal of any leadership training

program is to effectively implement and sustain knowledge and skills trainees learned.

Again, Caffarella (2002) defines transfer of learning as "effective application by the

program participants of what they learned as a result of attending an education or training

program" (p. 204). In simple terms, transfer has been described as the 'endgame' of training

(Salas, Tannenbaum, Kraiger, & Smith-Jentsch, 2012), meaning that for any leadership training

to be beneficial, the implementation of the skills and concepts that trainees learn should be a

priority. As (Kozlowski et al., 2000) note, without successful implementation and sustainability

of skills, training efforts cannot contribute to organizational effectiveness.

Studies indicate that only 10% to 15% of what is learned in training is actually

transferred back to the job, implemented, and sustained (Baldwin & Ford, 1998; Ford &

Weissbein, 1997; Grossman & Salas, 2011; Kontoghiorghes, 2014). Researchers have attributed

these low learning implementation figures to several factors, including: program design (Baldwin

& Ford, 1988; Caffarella, 2002); content of the program (Dorfman, Howell, Hibino, Lee, Tate, & Bautista, 1997; Hezlett, 2005); organizational set up and performance (Saks & Burke-Smalley, 2014); interference from immediate work environment (e,g., work and time pressure), inadequate equipment or facilities, and insufficient authority (Broad & Newstrom, 1992); community or social and environmental factors (Russon & Reinelt, 2004); pressure from peers to resist change (Broad & Newstrom, 1992; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012), among several others. To alleviate such implementation barriers, program planners are required to design training programs such that the implementation of newly learned skills and knowledge to workplaces as well as the return of training investments are not compromised.

Baldwin and Ford's (1998) model, which provided direction for later transfer and implementation studies, stipulates that trainee characteristics, training design, and the work environment are important training-input factors that facilitate implementation of training. They contend that the aforesaid factors along with trainee learning and retention influence knowledge implementation and sustainability. A further study along this line affirmed that both trainee characteristics (e.g., cognitive ability, conscientiousness, and motivation) and work environment factors (e.g., conducive climate for implementation, supervisor support) are positively related to implementation of training skills (Blume et al., 2010). Trainee characteristics and work environment factors have received empirical support. For instance, Noel and Schmitt (1986) found that trainees with high job involvement were more motivated to learn and implement skills to the work setting.

More recently, research on environmental supports such as provision of a chat room where trainees could actively engage in discussion and share training ideas, deliberate on barriers to implementation, and receive positive reinforcement help to improve training implementation

(Homklin, Takahashi, & Techakanont, 2014). Similarly, Eddy, Glad, and Wilkins (1967) observe that a successful implementation of skills learned at training is highly contingent on factors in the trainee's work environment. Studies have also shown that managers in favorable organizational climates (i.e., with freedom to set goals and a supportive environment) are more likely to apply new knowledge to work setting (Baumgartel & Jeanpierre, 1972; Baumgartel, Reynolds, & Pathan, 1984).

In recent years, there has been empirical research on the importance of co-worker support regarding implementation and sustainability of training knowledge and skills. For instance, Homklin et al. (2014) contend that in order to enhance implementation of training organizations should focus more on creating environment that enhances co-worker support, at least in the short term, and in the longer term improve the quality of other types of support. In a more recent study, Hegazi (2015) observes that supervisor support was the most important factor that affects implementation of learning, followed by peer support, while supervisor sanctions emerged as the factor that least significantly influenced implementation of learning. Aside from trainees' characteristics and environmental factors, some scholars have also emphasized the need for an improvement in the design of training programs through incorporation of the basic learning principles, comprising identical elements, teaching of general principles, stimulus variability, and various conditions of practice, among others.

The notion of Identical Elements (IE) was first proposed by Thorndike and Woodworth (1901) stating that the degree of implementation of learning between two tasks is a function of the number of elements that the two tasks have in common. Empirical research has confirmed that the use of identical elements in teaching enhances the retention of both motor (Cormier & Hagman, 2014; Gagne, Baker, & Foster, 1950) and verbal behaviours (Underwood, 1951). Other

studies have also concluded that the use of identical elements as a learning approach can facilitate implementation and help achieve other objectives. For example, Tracey and Mandel (2012) argue, "the more elements (i.e., content and procedure) of one situation are identical to the elements of a second situation, the greater the implementation, and thus the easier learning in the second situation" (p.44).

Teaching of general principles has also received growing attention to enhance skill and knowledge implementation. Proponents of teaching through general principles argue that the learning structure should be varied such that trainees can learn, not just applicable skills, but also the general rules and theoretical principles that underpin the training content (McGehee & Thayer, 1961). Empirical study has found the principle to be useful and effective in varied situations for students' achievement (Abrami et al., 2015).

Stimulus variability involves deliberate change in attention drawing behaviour of the trainer in order to secure and sustain trainees' attention to what is being taught. Proponents of stimulus variability maintain that a positive learning result is maximized when a variety of relevant training stimuli are used (Ellis, 1965). With respect to leadership training, the trainer's ability to provide several examples of the concept to be learned stimulates the trainees, increase their active participation, enthusiasm, spirit of study, and strengthen their understanding, thereby helping trainees to see the applicability of a concept in a new situation (Ellis, 1965). The principle of stimulus variability has received empirical support regarding training outcomes. For example, Antoniou and Wong (2016) observe that phonetic training of non-native phonetic features resulted in the best learning outcomes when only the relevant phonetic feature varied and the irrelevant feature was held constant. In a previous study, Shore and Sechrest (1961)

found that using a moderate number of varied examples that were repeated a few times each was more effective in enhancing learning than using one example repeatedly.

Conditions of practice involves an array of specific design issues such as massed or distributed training, whole or part training, feedback, and overlearning. Massed versus distributed design concerns a situation where training is organized into one long session without breaks, compared to sessions spread relatively far apart in time or dividing learning into segments. The benefits of distributed practice have been reported in several studies, albeit with divergent findings (Briggs & Naylor, 1962; Mackay, Morgan, Datta, Chang, & Darzi, 2002; Son & Simon, 2012; Son, 2010). For instance, Mackay et al. (2002) observed a benefit for distributed practice over massed practice in surgical skills training; Son and Simon (2012) found spacing more helpful when trainers emphasize the importance of long-term retention and transfer; while Son (2010) reported two contrasting results. According to Son, when the distributed technique was used, college-aged students' final test performance was improved, compared to elementary school-aged children whose performance only improved by using massed practice. The important lesson here is that adults benefit from distributed practice while children's performance increases with massed practice. Evidence also suggests that trainees achieve higher performance at difficult and complex tasks, especially in sports training, when massed techniques are used first in training sessions, followed by shorter sessions with more frequent rest intervals (Holding, 1965).

Regarding whole versus part training, the instruction focuses on learning material either in its entirety or one part at a time. It is a model that can be used at both the program design and lesson design levels, and is suitable for different types of training, ranging from technical to managerial. Recent research has shown that Part-Task Training (PTT) can be successful if the

integrated parts are varied in the priority they are given to the learner (Wickens, Hutchins, Carolan, & Cumming, 2013). For complex multitask skills, Wickens et al., proposed that program designers should strive and minimize the number of part-task trials, otherwise alternative techniques can be sought. They also caution program planners that selection of a training strategy is not a one-size-fits-all business, but consideration of individual factors, such as experience and skill types should weigh on decisions.

Feedback refers to information provided to trainees about their performance. Research on learning from feedback has produced unclear guidelines for training design. Some researchers have advocated minimal feedback (e.g., Schmidt & Bjork, 1992), whereas others have claimed that a more extensive feedback highly supports performance (e.g., Sweller, 1988). To help resolve this ambiguity, Kelley and McLaughlin (2012) investigated how individual differences play a part in learning through feedback and found that, even though "all participants benefited from increased feedback support, those who received higher feedback support learned more than did those who received less support" (p. 33). They concluded that feedback requirements may be affected by the cognitive ability and prior experience of trainees. The Kelley et al. (2012) finding is considered relevant in this study because the previous experience and motivational levels of headteachers were determining factors in the selection process.

Overlearning refers to the process of providing trainees with continued practice far beyond the point when the task has been performed successfully. Empirical studies support overlearning as a useful strategy for retention of the trained materials (Hagman & Rose, 1983; Mandler, 1954). The plan of setting a web-based learning mechanism in place for trainees to continuously learn and discuss their experiences with peers, trainers, and consultants invariably complies with the overlearning concept.

Given the above learning principles, organizers of INSET programs and other leadership training arrangements like the COL-MUN initiative should strive and incorporate much of these principles both in the program and instructional designs. Mentz, Webber, van der Walt (2010) recommend that future training programs for headteachers and school principals be tailored to equip participants with conflict resolution skills and other approaches that help to deal with cultural challenges. Conscious development of leadership training programs taking these learning principles into consideration undoubtedly would facilitate learning and application of skills and knowledge relevant to practically handle cultural related issues. A quality leadership program must endeavour to implement skills that enhance and create competent leaders who are willing and able to turn the SSA into a more superior milieu that supports student learning and economic development. As Moxley and O'Conner-Wilson (1998) suggest, an organization's leadership development program needs to focus on the effective operational skills that can be implemented within its organizational setting. Thus, leadership development programs that fail to align the program with the real organizational environment can create difficulties for skills implementation and practice. The above review, gives insight as to how leadership development programs could be organized to enhance the implementation agenda.

Integrated Theoretical Framework

The complexity of education necessitates an efficient integrated theoretical framework that incorporates divergent views and talents in the process of problem solving and analysis (Mullen & Jones, 2008; Sheppard & Dibbon, 2011). In the last decade or so, researchers have suggested quite a number of integrated theoretical frameworks that have been empirically tested and proven to be workable, citing the distributed leadership framework as a classic example.

In light of this and to lay emphasis on the distributed leadership concept of Sheppard et al. (2009), Leithwood (2008) did not mince words by claiming that leadership requires

individuals to adopt a collaborative approach that includes building a sense of community with

internal and external stakeholders. This encompasses cultural diversity challenges, since schools

are generally recognized as social systems composed of varied people with different cultural

backgrounds and dispositions. Furthermore, the numerous changes in our traditional leadership

landscape demand training using new approaches to leadership and propagating the integration

of both cultural and modern values in leadership development programs as espoused by Mentz et

al. (2010). A modern leader, according to McCollum and Kajs (2009) must have professional

development acumen in eight dimensions, which characterize educational leadership efficacy.

These comprise "instructional leadership and staff development, school climate development,

community collaboration, and data based decision making aligned with legal and ethical

principles." Others include "resource and facility management, use of community resources,

communication in a diverse environment, and the development of a school vision." (p. 31).

Additionally, in the wake of current accountability pressures, school leaders are expected

to have a firm grip of curriculum, teacher instruction, and delivery of information. To exacerbate

this apparent pressure, school managers have been held liable for improving the academic

achievement of all students and to identify and turn around public schools that are noted to

perform abysmally in terms of student achievement. Not only that, leaders are expected to offer

support for students who are in poverty, demonstrate poor performance, have special learning

requirements, or are second language learners. Leaders are also expected to inspire teachers to

participate actively in team efforts and share educational goals (Orr, 2008).

There is no doubt from the above that leadership plays a central role in the process of

managing and leading organizations. To conceptualize this notion, Bryant (2003) concludes that

leading an organization requires conscious effort at all levels of the organization to lead three

key processes: creating, sharing, and developing individuals' knowledge. In addition, leaders provide vision, motivation, systems, and structures at all levels of the organization that facilitate the conversation of knowledge. It is noteworthy to acknowledge that the role of the educational leader, as an administrator of a school or district, is complex and relies upon the varied skills, educational experience, and background of the individual who pursues the position. Increasingly, expectations for school leadership are changing significantly, and leaders involved are expected to manage organizational processes, facilitate change, and as noted previously, be held accountable for student outcomes. Leaders are expected to use appropriate skills to inspire, encourage, and empower individuals to perform at a high level of effectiveness and efficiency. Leading a school to accomplish such numerous tasks is too complex to rely exclusively on one theoretical framework.

As Halverson and Clifford (2013) conclude, the work of a school leader, in spite of any style adopted, is to establish an enabling environment that ensures optimal teaching and learning. In this context, Sheppard (2016) adds that, "drawing upon the already well-developed theories of transformational, instructional, and distributed leadership, irrespective of nomenclature, shows much more promise than the continued search for yet another one best theory" (p. 14). The effects of standardized testing and accountability demands, for instance, have influenced several leaders to focus seriously on the instructional model with little attention given to others (McCann, 2012; Paulsen & Moos, 2014; Sheppard, 2012). Partly serving as a solution to this problem, Sheppard (2016) concludes that school leaders who have a rich understanding of other leadership frameworks and apply them accordingly will most likely succeed in their leadership endeavours.

In conclusion, based on literature evidence about colonial effects on leaders, cultural subtleties in sub-Saharan Africa, kinship with its historical antecedent in Africa, and several other factors, educational leaders at all levels are advised to continually master both the leading environment and the learning environment through careful analysis, and accordingly, apply an integrated leadership approach in their dealings. This objective, however, can be achieved by not only taking leaders through such an integrated leadership approach, but also exposing them to practices that help to address socio-cultural challenges.

Summary

Research has shown that leadership is second only to classroom teaching in its impact on student learning (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006). Within this context, and the increasing demands for higher student achievement and the related need for professional growth of teachers, several theories have been developed over the years, with new models emerging and established approaches being redefined and further developed. This study is based on instructional, transformational, and distributed leadership models. The above review covers each of these three models in detail, and this is summarized below.

As outlined above, instructional leadership focuses more on teaching and thus engages in activities that have greater potential to impact on school and student outcomes. A typical instructional leader is perceived as the main source of knowledge for developing and supporting school programs. Critics, however, believe that instructional leadership stresses teaching more than learning (Bush, 2013); and is "focused too much on the principal as the centre of expertise, power, and authority" (Hallinger, 2003, p. 330). The latter weakness tends to underplay the important roles played by other members of the school organization. Literature revealed that other staff and teachers of the school can equally share the instructional role (Hallinger, 1992, 2011), an observation that led to "the emerging notion of distributed instructional leadership"

(Bush & Glover, 2014, p. 566). In order to overcome such inherent limitations and to yield the beneficial effects of instructional leadership, incorporation of other models has been considered necessary (Lambert, 2002; MacBeath & Dempster, 2009).

In a transformational approach, the principal frequently seeks to enlist support from teachers and other stakeholders to address school priorities. The underlying assumption is that leadership ought to focus more on the commitments and capacities of organizational members. It is often contrasted with the transactional approach, which dwells mostly on exchange relationships between leaders and teachers for valued resources. Even though transformational leadership promotes commitment and harmonious relationships, there have been some opposing views regarding its application. Critics argue that the model can be used as a conduit to manipulate teachers who are required to support the leader's vision and values (Bush & Glover, 2014), and more likely to be accepted by the leader than the led (Chirichello, 1999). As well, the term "transformational" can be used ostensibly to allow governments secure the implementation of centrally determined policies (Bush et al. 2014). Bush (2011) states, "When 'transformation' is a cloak for imposing the leader's values, or for implementing the prescriptions of the government, then the process is political rather than genuinely transformational" (p. 86). A transformational leader should thus aim at promoting real commitment through the development of shared vision. In this respect, the aims of the leader and his or her followers will coalesce to such an extent that it may be realistic to assume a harmonious relationship and a genuine convergence leading to agreed decisions. When transformational leadership works well, it has the potential to engage all stakeholders for the achievement of educational objectives (Bush et al. 2014).

With emerging recognition that the role of a school leader is complex and relies upon a variety of skills, educational experience and background, and in consideration of the diverse nature of the school system, distributed leadership has become the normatively favoured model. It involves all members of the school community, rather than sole leadership approaches. However, as school contexts vary significantly, it is not feasible to rely on a blueprint for effective distributed leadership. As consequence, the model can be used in different ways, and to varying extents, reflecting the diverse complexity of school organizations (Spillane, 2012). Despite its focus on collective leadership, the literature suggests that the formal leader retains a central role partly because of emerging accountability framework within which schools operate (Hartley, 2010). Distributing leadership has become popular in the twenty-first century not only to ensure that all leadership activities are handled competently, but also ensuring that the collective talents and experience of teachers and stakeholders of the school are deployed to best effect. A convincing caution, however, is that leaders who practise distributed leadership must find an appropriate balance between singular and distributed leadership.

The effect of colonial leadership in SSA is apparent. In SSA, and Ghana in particular, there are significant differences among various ethnic groups. All these factors require a unique and pragmatic leadership style to deal with. It is instructive to note that training and development take place for all school leaders to deal decisively with such diverse situations. Understanding leadership theories and applying them appropriately, undoubtedly, provides fertile grounds for which holistic educational goals can be achieved.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

Research Questions

The following questions guided the study:

1)   What are the successes and challenges after the program implementation?

2)   What did participants learn during this training program?

3)   How do headteachers and school principals perceive the new leadership concepts they learned?

4)   Through what process do participants plan to implement this learning to their schools?

5)   What factors influence this implementation process?

It is important to explain that the terms "successes" and "challenges", as used in question one, are used advisedly to mean successes achieved and challenges encountered during the training sessions of the COL-MUN program organized in Ghana and its implementation by trainees but not the outcome of or reference to the program on school performance. To be able to determine successes, Creswell (2012) recommends that the objectives of the program ought to be explored first. COL-MUN leadership training program had three clear objectives:

• To disseminate innovative knowledge and skills on school management that will enhance the professional skills and effectiveness of headteachers and principals of schools.

• To provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and experiences of managing primary and secondary schools for headteachers and school principals; and

• To provide an opportunity for continuing professional development to headteachers and school principals.

Once the questions have been formulated and the researcher is clear in mind of what to look for, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010) suggest that the researcher should consider the most diverse array of methodological tools available to answer those questions. Within this context, I adopted a qualitative inquiry approach for this study using a semi-structured, open-ended questionnaire, followed by one-on-one, face-to-face interviews to elicit relevant answers to the above stated research questions. The semi-structured, open-ended questionnaire and the follow-up interviews were designed to provide participants with an opportunity to give detailed explanations and personal perspectives through their responses. A full explanation of the suitability of research design used (i.e., semi-structured, open-ended questionnaire, followed by one-on-one, face-to-face interviews), and the type of methodology employed for this research is given in the following section.

Qualitative Approach

Qualitative research involves collecting information and trying to comprehend it in a particular context (Smith & Glass, 1987). It is all about exploring issues, understanding phenomena, and seeking to answer questions of concern. Fundamentally, qualitative research is interpretive, emerging, and not tightly prefigured (Breacher & Murphy, 2005; Creswell, Hanson, Plano Clark, & Morales, 2007). In consequence, as the researcher proceeds, the questions may change or be fine-tuned to gain an in-depth knowledge and understanding of the problem of interest. This is especially true if an unstructured interview method is adopted. According to Creswell (2009), qualitative research is a means of exploring and understanding an individual's perspective of a social phenomenon. This is done by observing or interviewing the participants at the natural setting of the phenomenon, analyzing the data inductively (i.e., building from specifics to general themes) and consequently interpreting the data to formulate well-founded answers to research questions. Qualitative research mostly takes place in natural settings and is

often characterized by broad involvement of participants in data production (Creswell, 2009;

Rossman & Rallis, 2011). Furthermore, qualitative researchers do not aim at generalizing results

across populations but seek to identify and explore socio-cultural trends and to provide a

"detailed understanding of a central phenomenon" (Creswell, 2012, p. 16). It is often the case

that the researcher may not begin with knowledge of all the variables and factors involved in the

study and will need to explore further within the research context. From a leadership perspective,

it has been recognized that leadership is a complex interaction between the leader and the social,

and organizational environments - a lesson which is frequently ignored in leadership training

programs (Fiedler, 1996). In view of this, adopting a qualitative research approach, using a semi-

structured, open-ended questionnaire, followed by one-on-one, face-to-face interviews helps

identify and provide insight into these complex social and organizational factors. Participants'

responses thus provide insights into possible factors that inhibited or facilitated the transfer of

leadership skills as acquired by headteachers and school principals during training sessions.

Qualitative research per se is not a single research approach, but rather has a variety of

sub-approaches, which the researcher can choose from, usually based on the nature of the

phenomenon under study (Patton, 2002). As a result, I employed case study methodology to

investigate the nature (i.e., progress, successes, and challenges), and theory transfer strategies of

the COL-MUN program that was developed collaboratively with English West African

educational leaders. Studies have shown that a case study as a research methodology is common

in sociology, psychology, education, social work, political science, and business (Creswell,

2009; Doolin, 1996; Yin, 2013). For instance, Yin (2009) affirms that case studies have been

made on decision-making, programs, implementation process, and organizational change.

Qualitative case study as a research methodology has been described 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 (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 2009). The unit of study (case) in this

circumstance was the COL-MUN leadership development program. Studying the COL-MUN

program as an entity provided broad insights on the program implementation process, leadership

concepts and skills trainees learned, transfer of skills, and factors that influenced the transfer

process.

Employing a case study in the current research was based on several considerations. For

instance, the method aided in providing an in-depth examination, description, and scrutiny of the

context, perspectives, and details of the activities (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2013).

The approach was considered important because it yielded insightful glimpses into the

discernible facts about the implementation process, the transfer of skills, impact of the training

program on trainees, and the socio-cultural factors that influenced adaptation and application of

leadership theories learned. The approach was also considered the best fit to provide a

perspective on the logical sequence of the consultants, instructors, and trainees' activities that

links the data to research questions and conclusions. Aside from the aforesaid reasons, the case

study methodology guided the researcher in the process of data collection, analysis, and

interpretation. Studies have shown that a case study design is a useful step towards applying

research findings to a larger context (Stake, 1995, 2006; Yin, 2013). Consequently, the rich

description of this case study makes findings derived from the research readily available for

application to similar development programs.

Yin (2009) states that case studies can be exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory. The

exploratory aspect of this study examined the instructional design, methodology, evaluation

strategies the trainers adopted, and local conditions that influenced adaptation and sustainability

of the leadership initiatives. A descriptive case study recounts the process of a study aiming to provide a complete picture of the phenomenon under investigation (Merriam, 2009). The current study employed a descriptive case study approach to describe the in-depth program processes, participants' leadership experiences and professional details, the co-developed program manual, and skills transfer strategies. The purpose is to provide an understanding on the impact, effectiveness, and sustainability of the program in the context of socio-cultural factors. The explanatory approach seeks to provide reasons and illustrations vividly to support the interpretation of an occurrence (Creswell, 2012). The explanatory aspect of this study was evident in the way the investigator delved deeply into the experiences of all parties involved in the development of the program and collating the importance and meanings they attached to the program. In concurrence with Yin's (2009) process description of a qualitative case study, findings derived from this study illuminated the best practices for leadership skills among headteachers and school principals that may be applied to future leadership development programs.

　　　Having considered the case study as the best methodology for this research, a semi-structured, open-ended questionnaire, followed by one-on-one, face-to-face interview technique was employed for data gathering. Geographically, the selected participants for this study were dispersed - making travel not only expensive, but also time consuming. However, the semi-structured, open-ended questionnaire, with one-on-one, face-to-face interview technique was chosen chiefly because of rapport and comradeship the researcher wanted to establish with participants. Creswell (2012), in discussing the advantages of interviewing notes, "one-on-one, face-to-face interviews are ideal for interviewing participants who are not hesitant to speak, who are articulate, and who can share ideas comfortably" (p. 218). In this study, participants were

mature teachers who were willing and able to share their thoughts and experiences. Additionally,

I had previously worked with some of these headteachers or school principals as a teacher in

both junior and senior high schools in Ghana. I, therefore, considered participants as colleagues

or members of the same profession with similar objectives. Moreover, I felt comfortable by

engaging participants in one-on-one face-to-face interviews as it provided an opportunity to meet

them personally and in a natural environment. I further recognize myself as someone with an

insider perspective (Patton, 2002; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003), though I approached the study

with an open mind, Creswell et al. (2007) argue that any researcher who adopts the strategy of

open mindedness understands better the research problems and questions. In addition, this

approach helped me to build rapport and credibility with participating headteachers, school

principals, trainers, and consultants.

As stated earlier, participants were mature teachers with reputable academic

qualifications who were able and willing to express their views independently in written format,

and had an equal opportunity to demonstrate that they possessed the required skills and

experience for the job. The methodology employed helped to obtain all the initial demographic

data as well as professional details required. Finally, this study was designed to retrieve data

differently from different groups of participants comprising trainees (headteachers and school

principals), trainers, coordinators, a representative from MUN, and the Ghanaian consultant.

Each of the target groups received different questions based on the kind of information the

researcher sought from them (see Appendixes C - G). For instance, questions developed for the

Ghanaian consultant differed from that of the MUN representative. Another strategy was that

each respondent in the same category (e.g., the three trainers) was asked the same set of

questions in the same order and in the same way. The purpose for adopting this pattern was to

increase the reliability and consistency of the interviews and, thereby, the trustworthiness of the findings.

Research Design

To explore the views of headteachers and school principals regarding the training modules - what they learned, their perception and willingness to adopt the new leadership concepts and transfer processes, and the barriers they faced during implementation - this study employed a qualitative case study methodology with the main data collection accomplished by means of semi-structured, open-ended questionnaires and interviews. The reason for employing the semi-structured, open-ended approach was to allow participants to freely choose and describe their own examples in the context within which the program was developed, implemented, and strategies trainees adopted to transfer the theories they learned.

Each participant was provided with a questionnaire that I had specifically developed for each participating group (i.e., the Ghanaian consultant, MUN representative, coordinators, trainers, and trainees). It is important to reiterate that questionnaires differed from group to group meaning what was given to the Ghanaian consultant differed from that for the MUN representative and other participants. On the questionnaire, every question item had ample blank space for each participant to fill out with the needed responses. Where spaces provided were not sufficient for the participant to give enough information, supplementary sheet of papers were provided. Again, during the time a participant was completing the questionnaire, I remained present to answer questions from the participant for clarification, or to reframe a question, when it became necessary. Completion of a questionnaire followed by an interview after the investigator had reviewed responses provided on the questionnaire. The overarching aim of the interview was to elicit responses from selected participants in order that in-depth information pertaining to the research questions would be obtained. The follow-up interview took place in a

friendly conversational way such that the respondent was given an ample opportunity to express

his or her thoughts verbally while I took notes.

Population and Sample Recruitment

The sampling unit comprised the following five groups of people:

- The Ghanaian consultant and initiator of the program.

- A representative from the academics who came from Memorial University of

    Newfoundland and who guided the development of the training manual.

- Two selected persons from the home university who coordinated activities and helped

    to implement the program.

- The six master trainers who were involved in the development of the training manual,

    and who took part in the entire training sessions in Ghana.

- All headteachers and school principals who participated fully in the training

    program.

The Ghanaian consultant

The Ghanaian consultant and originator of the program, Dr. Jophus Anamuah-Mensah,

was a Vice Chancellor of the university that helped to implement this leadership training

program (University of Education, Winneba [UEW]). He has contributed immensely to the

development of education in Ghana and other countries. For instance, he chaired the committee

whose recommendation prompted the 2007 educational reform in Ghana, and is currently a key

member of a committee, charged by the government of Ghana, with the responsibility of drawing

up a 20-year strategic educational plan. Furthermore, he was selected as a consultant for the

training program when the idea was conceived by personnel at the COL office and selected

faculty members at MUN. From the onset, the Ghanaian consultant played an active role in the

development of the training manual, and assisted the COL in getting the desired team for the

master-trainers' workshops that took place in Accra, Ghana, and Banjul, Gambia, in March and

November 2010 respectively. In this respect, the program initiator was selected for an interview

with the objective of investigating what motivated him, and to find out the kind of leadership

framework that existed in the sub-Sahara African region in general and Ghana, in particular,

before this leadership program began. Knowing the type of leadership styles that were in

existence, and comparing them with the leadership models that emerged following this web-

based leadership program, enabled me to draw accurate conclusions and to suggest a leadership

framework that was contextually appropriate.

Memorial University of Newfoundland representative

The academics from Memorial University of Newfoundland (MUN) who contributed to

the development of learning materials and the final training manual (Dr. Bruce Sheppard, Dr.

David Dibbon [deceased], Dr. Noel Hurley [who replaced Dr. Dibbon following his death], one

was purposefully selected and interviewed. These academics brought theories that underpinned

the training, even though with a clear objective that each country team modify the learning

materials to suit their own context. Consequently, the final training module was co-developed by

all participants from each of the four participating countries. The prime aim for including a MUN

representative in this research was to establish details of what leadership approaches they

included and why they were included.

Coordinators

In Ghana, the Centre for National Distance Learning and Open Schooling (CENDLOS)

located within the University of Education, Winneba (UEW) hosted and coordinated all activities

involved in the implementation process. The centre also liaised with the Ghana Education

Service (GES), private institutions, and the Ministry of Education (MOE). In this study, a staff

member from this institution who participated by coordinating the training activities was

purposefully selected. One of the trainers also doubled as an administrator, complementing the

effort of the coordinator. This trainer/coordinator, therefore, completed two different sets of

questionnaires - one for serving as a trainer and the other as a coordinator. Interviewing the two

coordinators was considered essential because they offered valuable information and insight into

the successes, challenges, and concerns that characterized the training sessions. Their inclusion

helped me understand the extent to which the educational ministry and the GES contributed to

the success or failure of the training. Like other participants, the coordinators were invited and

consented to take part in the study.

Instructors/Trainers

Instructors play a vital role in programs of this nature, first by implementing exhaustively

the learning materials as outlined in the training manual and second, by teaching critical skills to

facilitate skills transfer and the performance of trainees at their various workplaces. Out of the

six master trainers who participated in the development of the training manual, it was confirmed

that during the implementation stage in Ghana only three participated as per a progress report

obtained from the COL office. I interviewed all three of these trainers because they were

accessible, motivated to pursue the program, and highly supportive of the research. Their

addresses were available in the initial training report and again appeared in subsequent report

obtained from the COL office. Interviewing these three instructors was considered an essential

component to this study because it allowed for identification of the best instructional practices to

encourage transfer and skill implementation for trainees. As well, their inclusion helped to

provide insights into the teaching methodologies and strategies they used to encourage the

participants to practice the skills and overcome the challenges they encountered throughout the

training sessions.

Trainees

For the trainee participants in the program, selection criteria included completion of the

one-week training program and uninterrupted attendance at the five-day workshop. Any trainee

participant who for some reasons did not complete or missed some sessions was not eligible to

be interviewed. In all, thirty trainees fully participated in the entire sessions and were trained

with this leadership module. Ghana is geographically divided into 10 regions and 216 districts.

This number of participants however, covers only 5 regions constituting only 15 districts that

benefited from the training program. In total, 28 trainees out of the thirty were interviewed

bringing the participation rate to approximately 93% of those trainees who fully participated in

the program. One of the two trainees who did not take part in the study was taking care of her

sick and infirmed husband in a hospital and therefore could not participate in either a face-to-

face interview or telephone conversation. The remaining trainee could not be traced because she

had retired and relocated to an unknown address.

Data Collection Procedure

Researcher bias

 Interviewing for research demands that the interviewer become the main instrument of

data collection because that individual is charged with the responsibility of directing the entire

interview process. The interviewer must also recognize that s/he is an active participant in the

research. As a result, craftsmanship, good communication, and competency are essential

qualities that an interviewer must possess (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In this respect, I was

extra cautious about personal biases as they may affect data collection and subsequent

interpretation. I acknowledged that I was once a teacher who had worked with some of these

headteachers thereby having a considerable knowledge and interest in the issues being

investigated. Additionally, I examined, and identified personal interests, values, and biases

before, during, and after data gathering, analysis, and interpretations about the successes,

challenges, concerns, and skill application difficulties that characterized the entire training

program. Finally, to further acknowledge expressing or recording personal interests and biases, I

refrained from discussing my opinion about a situation or passing judgement whenever probing

questions and discussion took place between me and the interviewee.

Instrumentation

Semi-structured, open-ended questionnaires were developed for this study that allowed

participants to freely choose and describe their own examples in the context within which the

program was developed, implemented, and strategies trainees adopted to transfer the theories

they learned. Each of the target groups received different questions based on the kind of

information the researcher sought from them (see Appendixes C - G). For example, questions for

the master-trainers or instructors were structured to elicit responses about challenges associated

with planning and implementation of the training program, and reactions they observed during

training sessions. The coordinators got different sets of questions that were intended to measure

the level of support the ministry provided as well as plans that ensured that participants

transferred theories they learned to their workplaces. The trainees, on their part, answered

questions relating to the understanding of what they learned, their leadership background, and

working environment. The questionnaires were designed to ascertain more about the different

cultures and other factors that may inhibit or facilitate transfer of theories. There were follow-up

questions or probes to elicit more information during the interview, as is expected within a semi-

structured interview context.

Interview procedure

Data were gathered differently from different categories of participants through questionnaires, followed by face-to-face interviews and, in a few cases, through telephone interviews. Three headteachers granted telephone interviews because they had been transferred to remote locations that were extremely difficult to reach within the limited interview period. Following a pre-interview discussion and request, the three participants agreed to be interviewed via telephone. Before the interview, invitation letters (see Appendix B) were sent to potential participants in person and/or through emails. Participants who were interested and chose to participate signed and returned the invitation letter through the same mode they received it. Date, time, and venues were also arranged by me well in advance, and in keeping with a detailed and organized interview schedule (see Appendix I).

On the set date and time, I met each participant at the chosen venue. Before the survey began, a consent form (see Appendix H) was given to the respondent to review and to ask questions for clarification, when deemed necessary. When the respondent was satisfied with the answers and agreed to participate, the researcher signed the consent form to indicate that he had given enough explanation and that the conditions were met. Participant also signed to show his or her consent and a copy was given to each for record keeping purposes. After that, a set of semi-structured, open-ended questionnaire which constituted the main instrument for the study were given to the participant to complete. Participants were required to provide a written response on the hard copy instrument, or on supplementary sheets of paper for those who requested them. In all cases, after having reviewed participant's written responses, I asked probing questions to clarify their assertions. All this happened the same day the survey took place. Also, while the follow-up interview was ongoing I concurrently took comprehensive notes to emphasize salient respondent statements.

In the case of MUN representative, an email was sent to him requesting the mode in which he preferred to receive the interview questions. The representative at the time was off campus and therefore agreed to receive the interview questions via email. Upon receipt, he completed the questions and attached sufficient materials that provided more detail relating to each of the questions, and returned them through email. None of the data from all participants were recorded and transcribed.

Data processing and analysis

Data processing was carried out immediately after collection. Saldaña (2015) posits that coding and qualitative data analysis with a software program can be overwhelming especially for novice or small-scale studies. He recommends manual coding on hard copy printouts for first-time researchers or small-scale studies, instead of using complicated computer programs. Similarly, Creswell (2012) suggests that in analyzing a qualitative research data involving questionnaires and interviews, the notes must be read thoroughly multiple times, and salient statements that pertain to phenomena being investigated underlined and extracted. In view of this, I adopted simple manual coding technique. To begin, both the written responses from individual participants and the comprehensive notes taken by me during follow-up interviews were typed for further processing and analysis using a Microsoft word processor program. The objective was to get the data well organized by way of preparing a transcript for individual respondent and to obtain precision, coherence, consistency, and clarity from the data gathered. To ensure credibility of research findings, Bernard and Ryan (2010) suggest that each participant ought to be given the opportunity to read the final transcript to be sure that it faithfully represents their views. Within this context, and to ensure anonymity and confidentiality, after preparing a transcript for each participant, I sent it through appropriate and safe means (e.g., by email, expedited mail or postage with registered returned envelopes; in

person by me) to individual participants for member cheching and to ensure that the description represents the views they expressed.

Following completion of the above noted processes and before data analysis began, I read through the final transcripts meticulously and multiple times making sure that the salient points were noted. In the process of reading and re-reading the transcripts as if soliloquising, I engaged in a reflection and conversed with the data aiming at understanding it in its entirety. This enabled me to identify emerging trends in the data. In this process, the data were divided and grouped as meaningful analytical statements grounded on common and repeated themes or concepts.

Theorists suggest that data processing should provide thoughtful insights and decisions regarding the findings based on the knowledge, methodological options, ethical implications and consequences of researcher choices throughout the entire interview process, data collection, and analysis (Creswell, 2009; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In view of this, the following analytical procedures were followed leading to a creation of core concepts that addressed the research questions. First, responses to questions were read thoroughly, in order. After that, common statements derived through responses of a particular question and that provided answers to the research questions were identified and coloured using a highlighter. Common themes and sub-themes were developed from these highlighted statements. The same procedure was followed to create themes or core concepts from trainers' responses as well as respondents of remaining groups. This first step of organizing the thematic responses from all participants into categories and sub-categories brought the analytic procedure to a second stage.

The second phase involves open-coding and axial-coding. Bogdan and Biklen (2003) define open-coding as, "the analytical process through which concepts are identified and their properties and dimensions are discovered in the data" (p. 101). Axial-coding has been referred to

as "the process of relating categories to subcategories by linking categories to the level of

properties or characteristics" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 123). I followed the two processes by

creating a five-column table using a Microsoft Excel program. Each column of the table was

labelled to represent a group of participants with their corresponding core concepts

systematically entered under them. I then compared the core concepts across and matched those

that were common and provided answers to the research questions. If interesting concepts

emerged but were not common amongst the different groups, I still wrote them down and created

separate core concepts. In the end, groups of thematic statements were labelled into categories

and sub-categories based on what I was looking for and following the directions of enquiry as

suggested by the basic research questions. Relevant themes and sub-themes were developed and

presented diagrammatically as illustrated in **Error! Reference source not found.** in the findings

section.

Rossman and Rallis (2003) explain the term theme as a phrase or sentence describing

more subtle and tacit processes, emotions, and values of participants. The above described

theming method has been touted as effective and useful especially for small data sets. Saldaña

(2015) recommends that for novice and small-scale studies, a datum must be initially and, when

needed, secondarily coded manually to discern and label its content and meaning according to

the needs of the inquiry. Adaptation of this method enabled me to relate the core concepts and

categories to the three main objectives of the COL-MUN leadership program and the research

questions. The themes and sub-themes have been used as a foundation for discussing this study

and further recommendation for future leadership development studies. Besides providing

answers to the research questions, the themes and sub-themes were assessed against the backdrop

of theoretical frameworks that informed this study and themes developed from a review of

relevant literature. Taken together, these processes provided a sense of how the data resonated with the research questions and relevant theoretical frameworks. As such, possibilities were revealed for new criteria, strategies, and roadmaps for developing better models of school-leadership development in sub-Saharan African regions.

Data management

Descriptive data were used to describe the participants' demographic sample and pseudonyms were used instead of their real names or schools. Participants' contacts and information were entered into Microsoft Excel program for organizing and storage. Data from participants written responses and notes taking by the researcher during follow-up interviews were typed using a Microsoft Word processor program. The software copy of this information was stored on a flash-drive and the original version deleted from the computer. The paper versions of questionnaires and notes taken by the researcher during follow-up interviews, the flash-drive, and other useful study materials were put together in an envelope and sealed for storage in a locked cabinet at Memorial University of Newfoundland (MUN). It is meant to be kept for five years before they are destroyed in accordance with protocol set out by the MUN Interdisciplinary Committee on Ethics in Human Research (ICEHR).

Ethical Issues

Adherence to ethical principles in research work cannot be over emphasized (Fahy & Spencer, 2004; O'Neill, 2011). To begin, my study was preceded with a thorough scrutiny by the Interdisciplinary Committee on Ethics in Human Research (ICEHR) at MUN. Thus, the proposal was submitted for ethical assessment and clearance was obtained (see Appendix A). The guiding principles outlined by the Tri-Council Policy Statement on Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Human 2 (TCPS2) was followed. For example, all participants were given informed consent forms to sign (see Appendix H). This form detailed all issues pertaining to their rights

such as the right to participate voluntarily and to withdraw at any time without prejudice; the purpose of the study and procedures; the right to ask questions and researcher's signature and theirs agreeing to such provisions (Ethical Standards of the American Educational Research Association, 1992).

In addition to following formal standards, other protocols were also observed. Participants were treated with dignity and respect during the interview. Respect for privacy and confidentiality was also maintained (Memorial University of Newfoundland: Ethics of Research Involving Human Participations). Verbal appreciation messages were given to all participants after the interview via telephone calls. Participants who could not be reached by phone were given appreciation texts and "WhatsApp" messages.

Anonymity of Participants and Confidentiality of Data

It was stated in the informed consent letter that participants' anonymity would be protected as well as the confidentiality of data they provide. Where applicable, pseudonyms were used instead of names. For instance, Trainer 'A', Trainer 'B', and Trainer 'C' were alternatives used to represent the three trainers. Also, the headteachers and principals were referred to by their district names such as, "A headteacher from Takoradi district" or "School principal from Cape Coast district", and so forth. "Consultant G" and "Consultant M" were adopted in the analysis and results obtained from the study to represent the Ghanaian consultant and faculty from MUN respectively. Participants were assured that data they provided would not be divulged to any party or used for any purpose other than the intended research. In this regard, data was kept safely in a locked briefcase during data collection and later, after data collection and analysis were completed, was stored in a locked cabinet at MUN to be destroyed five years.

Methods Verification and Trustworthiness

In qualitative research, verification is essential so that the quality, trustworthiness, and integrity of the research is established. Verification, according to Creswell (1998) represents the various procedures that take place throughout the data collection, analysis, and reporting of a study, "and standards as a criteria imposed by the researcher and others after a study is completed" (p. 164). Since qualitative study is grounded in interpretive analysis rather than scientific objectivity, Lincoln and Guba (1985) propose using substitute terms for the constructs of internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity commonly used in quantitative research. In line with this, the alternate term commonly used in qualitative research is trustworthiness.

Trustworthiness denotes a standard that is used to judge the quality of a qualitative study and whether it is meaningful to the audience (Schwandt, 2001). The process of trustworthiness is essential due to its inherent benefit of establishing the quality, thoroughness, and soundness of qualitative study and the capacity to confirm the dependability of the findings therein (Lincoln & Guba, 1986; Stake, 1995). Lincoln and his associates argue that trustworthiness espouses four crucial elements comprising credibility, transferability or implementation in the context of this study, dependability, and confirmability.

Credibility connotes the accuracy and interpretation of the research findings based on a logical, observable, and documentable inquiry process (Denzin, 2001; Schwandt, 2001). To achieve credibility requires that the researcher adopts varied data collection procedures such as extensive verification achieved by participant or 'member checking' of transcripts. Within this context and to ensure credibility of the research findings, each participant was given the opportunity to review the description after I had finished with the data analysis to be sure that description faithfully represented their views. The transcript was sent to interviewees through

their email accounts, and for those without connectivity, they received it through "WhatsApp" format. In addition, follow-up telephone calls were made to participants that helped to clarify and verify the interview transcript.

Transferability of a research finding is crucial because, even though it does not involve broad claims, it invites readers of research to make associations between elements of a study and their own experience. In qualitative study, transferability seems to be an obvious, natural, and crucial way of utilizing research results and findings. Lincoln and Guba (1986) describe transferability as the degree to which the results of a research can apply or transfer beyond the bounds of the project. This study was designed to investigate the kind of leadership skills headteachers learned, how they intended to practice those skills at their workplaces, and the barriers they encountered with changing practices. The study was grounded on four theoretical frameworks, instructional leadership (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985), transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), distributed leadership (Sheppard et al., 2009), and transfer of learning (Baldwin and Ford, 1988) to recommend a model that can provide the best practice and perhaps fit into similar local conditions. To ensure transferability of this study, the boundaries of the research was clearly expressed detailing the number of participants interviewed, where they were selected, data collection techniques, and the period over which the data was accumulated. The approach adopted for this study can be replicated in future leadership development investigations. However, Lincoln and Guba (1986) advise readers of research to be mindful of the fact that results cannot always be transferred. They argue, for instance, that a result which happens in one situation is not going to necessarily occur in an identical situation. For that reason, they advise researchers to consider variations between situations and customize the research process appropriately.

Dependability implies the extent to which research can be relied on with respect to the quality of data collection procedures, analysis, and findings (Denzin, 2000). In other words, dependability is an evaluation of the quality of the integrated processes of data collection, data analysis, and theory generation. It could be looked at as the researcher's account of the changes built into any setting in addition to changes to the research design as learning unfolded. Qualitative researchers recognize that reality is socially constructed and constantly changing. Dependability originates from capturing the changing conditions which appear in the setting and the study design as a result of this reality (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). As noted by Lincoln and Guba (1985), a dependable study needs to be accurate and consistent. To enhance dependability of this study, one-on-one, face-to-face interview technique was included in the process of data collection. I also shared the interview transcript with individual participants for vetting and to ensure that it faithfully represented the views they expressed. Additionally, four different groups, the Ghanaian consultant, trainers, coordinators, and trainees who interacted in the leadership training program implementation were interviewed. Their involvement was essential because of the invaluable contributions they made with respect to the instructional process, transfer of skills, and practice helped to illuminate the findings. Finally, the study was customised to suit the Ghanaian context in terms of specific ways data were gathered, analyzed, and clear interpretation of results. This tayloring of methods and sharing of interview transcript with interviewees were unique ways of guaranteeing dependability of this study.

For qualitative research every investigator usually provides a distinctive perspective to the study (Creswell, 2012; Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Confirmability in qualitative research is an inherent quality that readers use to confirm the accuracy and integrity of such distinctive perspectives. It is founded on the acknowledgement that the research is never objective.

Confirmability has thus been described as the degree to which the findings could be confirmed or corroborated by other people and how the researcher recognizes and acknowledges the biases in the research (Denzin, 2000; Schwandt, 2001). A crucial criterion for confirmability is the degree to which the investigator confesses his or her own predispositions. Beliefs underpinning decisions made and techniques used must be acknowledged in the study document. Explanations for favouring one particular method when others could have been used must be explained and weak points in the methods admitted. As stated in the outset of this chapter, I was a teacher and familiar with the organization being studied. Consequently, there was a high possibility for bias in the process of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. To overcome such a familiarity syndrome in one part, and to achieve confirmability and credibility on the other, the researcher adopted pragmatic measures in the process of data collection, analysis, and reporting. This was done by being present during interviews to rephrase or explain some questions to improve understanding for interviewees and sought clarity relating to interviewee responses when it became necessary. Second and as with dependability, the investigator shared the transcript with individual participants for vetting and "member checking" to ensure that it faithfully represented the views they expressed. Third, a process of reflexivity was applied. Reflexivity is a technique of critical reflection on the researcher's biases, theoretical disposition, and preferences (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998; Schwandt, 2001).

Stake (1995) suggests that data triangulation is appropriate for ascertaining validity, dependability, credibility, and confirmability in research. Triangulation is a process applied in qualitative research to reduce the possibility of misinterpretation (Yin, 2013), especially if different groups of people are looking at the same phenomenon. Even though data were retrieved from different sets of respondents (i.e., headteachers, consultants, coordinators, and trainers), the

triangulation method was not used due to financial and time constraints. Instead, a table was

drawn by the lead researcher with headings depicting the various categories and sub-categories

developed following open-coding and axial-coding. This procedure helped to verify and confirm

responses from these different groups for consistency in the interview transcripts. For example,

concepts identified in trainees' responses were reviewed thoroughly multiple times, compared

with other responses and in the process, themes and core concepts were developed. The same

process was carried out for the trainers, coordinators, and the consultants leading to the

development of common themes out of the previous ones derived from the groups. This method

of comparing views from the different sets of respondents provided an opportunity for the

researcher to examine and interpret the findings based on different theoretical perspectives which

underpinned the leadership training program. For instance, core concepts such as financial

secrecy, sole decision making, and repressive attitudes that were established from headteachers

responses were interpreted as lack of transformational leadership principles.

 Altogether, trustworthiness in this research was ascertained by the combination of

processes ensuring credibility, dependability, and confirmability of the data and its analysis. As

such, this study represents a trustworthy depiction of the participants' thoughts, feelings,

intentions, perceptions, and experiences in the leadership program as they clearly described

through their experiences. The pattern of matching assertions, statements, and meanings as a

strategy to establish core concepts (Johnson, 1997) involved comparing the interview transcripts

among the various participants. These strategies enabled the findings to be checked for accuracy,

and by so doing, demonstrate the trustworthiness and potential transferability of the study.

Summary

 This chapter provided the research questions, a description of the methodology adopted,

the research design, population and sample recruitment, data collection procedures, data

processing and analysis. It also presented the process of data verification to ascertain validity, credibility, dependability, and trustworthiness of the research and findings. The processes herein served as a foundation and guide, both to shape and organize the research activity and to produce findings of value to the field of leadership studies.

CHAPTER FOUR

Findings

The purpose of this study is to investigate how the COL-MUN program was organized considering challenges and successes. A second purpose is to determine what the headteachers and school principals who participated in this program learned and the processes through which they intended to own and implement those concepts in the Ghanaian context. The third purpose is to identify the socio-cultural factors that influenced implementation of those skills they learned. Achieving these objectives will provide insight as to how leadership training should be organized and modified to address the leadership limitations associated with many of the socio-cultural characteristics of Ghana. The underlying assumption is that by introducing and implementing a well-developed training program, underpinned by solid theoretical bases, and developed in a culturally sensitive environment, the leadership skills of headteachers and school principals would be enhanced. Considerable research suggests that improved, efficient, and effective leadership practices influence student learning (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; Robinson, 2007). This chapter begins with a description of the participants, followed by a summary of demographic data obtained from participants. The focus of the chapter is to identify and discuss overarching, emerging core concepts that address the central research questions.

Trainees

Participants for this study consisted of 36 educators including 30 trainees, three trainers, two coordinators, one leadership expert from MUN, and the Ghanaian consultant. One of the two coordinators also served as a trainer. Trainee participants were selected from five regions, which

formed the southern sector of Ghana comprising: Western, Central, Greater Accra, Eastern, and

Volta. The selection of trainees covered a total of 14 districts out of the five

regions. When plans were well developed enough for the program to commence, one of
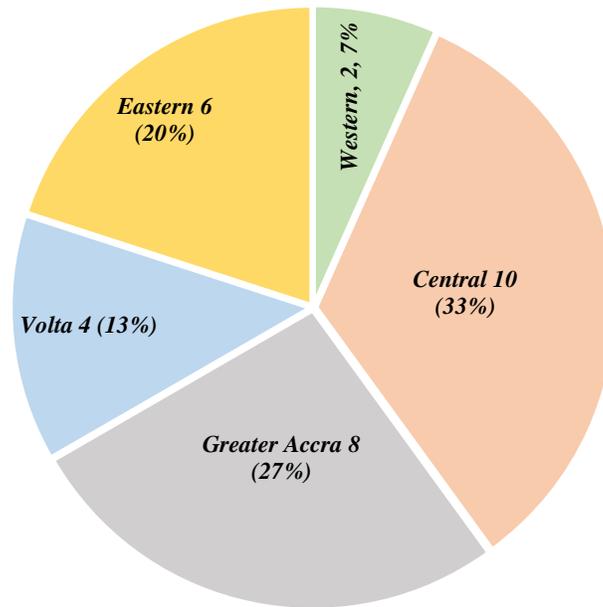
Figure 2: Regions and Respective Number and Percent Trainees Interviewed

the coordinators sent standardized letters to various regional directors of education asking for

each Director to nominate at least two headteachers to participate in the training. Figure 2

illustrates regions and the corresponding number and percentage of headteachers enlisted from

each of them.

The questionnaire for trainees to complete as part of the data gathering was structured to

solicit their educational background. Accordingly, all trainees reported their highest level of

professional qualifications as either Diploma in Basic Education (DBE), Bachelor of Education

(B.Ed.), Master of Education (M.Ed.), Master of Arts in Educational Administration (MA), or

Doctoral degree (PhD). Some of the headteachers explained that they attained their present

qualification after they had successfully completed the leadership training program. Some of

them confirmed that the motivation they had from the training prompted them to pursue further studies. Almost one-half of the trainees (47%) had upgraded from DBE to B.Ed, followed by 27% who had obtained an M.Ed, 20% reported holding an MA in educational administration, and 3% apiece was reported for trainees who had DBE and PhD as illustrated in Figure 3.
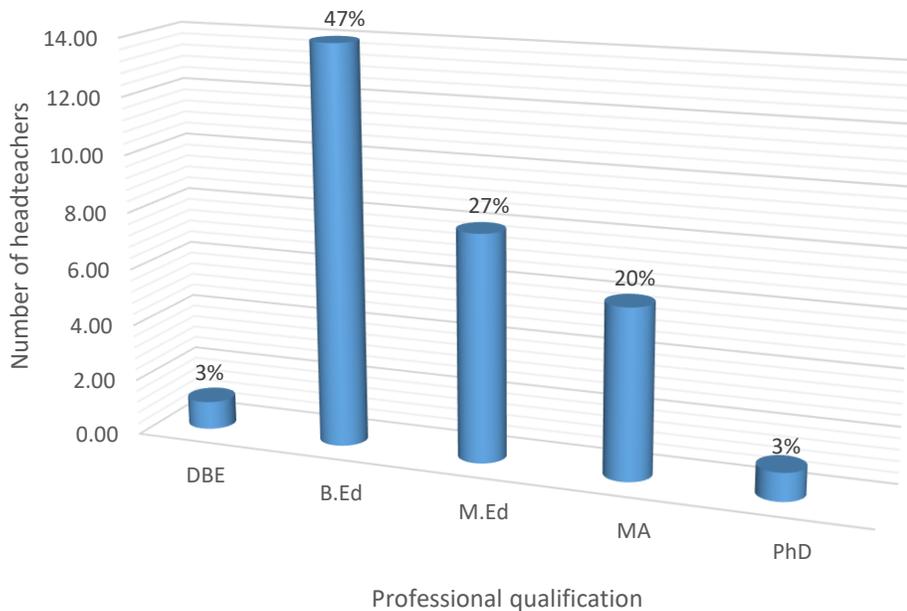
Figure 3: Number of Trainees and Their Qualifications

Trainee participants managed different levels of schools within the basic education system. In Ghana, the basic school concept denotes an amalgamation of kindergarten (KG), primary, and junior high (JH) at the same location. Out of the 30 participants, two headed only KG (7%), four managed primary and KG together (13%), six headed junior high only (20%), and 18 administered the entire basic school (60%), as illustrated in **Error! Reference source not found.**.
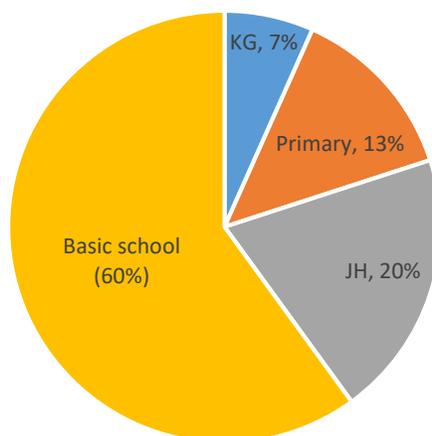
Figure 4: Percent Trainee and Level of School Managed

Six trainees had retired but were interviewed. These retirees took part in the leadership

workshop and applied the knowledge and skills they learned in their respective schools for some

years before they retired. One out of the six lived in Takoradi district where she had managed a

basic school, two were in Greater Accra region and reported that they had managed junior high

schools, two lived in Volta region, and the remaining one resided in the Eastern region. The

regional distribution pattern of gender and retirees in addition to other demographic data of

trainees are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic Data of Trainees

Region	Nº of trainees	Nº of Districts	Gender		Retirees
			Male	Female	
Western	2	1	1	1	1
Central	10	4	4	6	
G. Accra	8	4	3	5	2
Volta	4	2	2	2	2
Eastern	6	3	4	2	1
Total	30	14	14	16	6

The number of teachers supervised by individual trainees varied considerably. At KG

level, the average number of teachers a trainee supervised was five plus two support staff

members. On average trainees at the primary section supervised 10 teachers in addition to two

support staff members, and those at the JH level were responsible for between 8 to 21 teachers

depending on the number of streams the school runs. For the entire basic level, the span of

control was extremely wide even though much depended on the number of streams that existed.

On average, each basic school headteacher supervised 18 teachers, plus 2 ancillary staff

members. Figure 4 shows school categories in the basic system and the average number of

teachers supervised by trainees in each category.
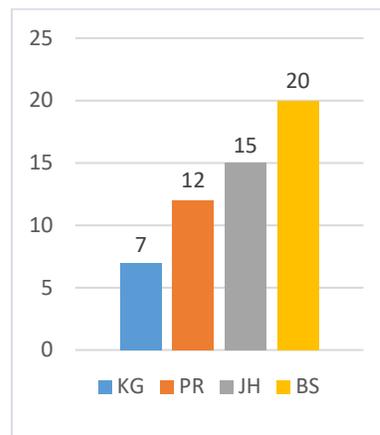
Figure 4: School Category and Average Number of Teachers Trainees Supervised in Each

Trainers

Trainers were personnel holding top management positions and who were enlisted from

different training institutions including the Ministry of Education (MOE), Ghana Education

Service (GES), and the University of Cape Coast (UCC). One trainer was a university professor

and a director at the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) in UCC.

IEPA instructs educational planners and administrators at the graduate level as well as providing

in-service instruction to various categories of educational practitioners. Another trainer was a

Metropolitan Director of Education (MDE) in Cape Coast and oversaw educational

administration and management within the Cape Coast metropolis. The remaining trainer was a

principal in Amedzofe College of Education (ACE) in the Volta region of Ghana. The trainers,

therefore, brought the leadership program a high degree of expertise and experience through their long service as teachers and school managers.

Identification of Core Concepts

Interpretation and subsequent analysis of data following the completion of type-specific participant questionnaires and one-on-one, face-to-face interviews produced six overarching core concepts, which relate to the central questions driving this research. Each core concept is discussed in relation to the question it addresses. The individual concepts are characterized as: meaningful pedagogical strategies, functional leadership knowledge and skills, perceived leadership concepts, transferability strategies, responsiveness to change, and sustainability challenges. **Error! Reference source not found.** shows each of the six overarching core concepts as characterized by me.

Figure 5: Core Emergent Concepts

Core Concept One: Meaningful Pedagogical Strategies

To be able to determine successes, (Creswell, 2012) suggests that the objectives of the program ought to be explored first. Referring to the COL-MUN leadership training program organized in Ghana, the objectives were: to disseminate innovative knowledge and skills on

school management that would enhance the professional skills and effectiveness of trainees; to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and experiences of managing primary and secondary schools for trainees; and to provide an opportunity for continuing professional development to headteachers and principals of schools.

To answer the research question: *What are the successes and challenges after the program implementation?* information obtained from the questionnaire and one-on-one interviews provided ample evidence regarding progress of the training scheme, challenges the organizers faced during implementation, and successes achieved at the end of the program. Three sub-themes relating to the core concept, *meaningful pedagogical strategies,* were identified and provide insights into how successful the program was and challenges the implementers encountered. These sub-themes are: (a) resource mobilization (b) instructional design, and (c) evaluation strategies.

The ensuing discussion on sub-themes will provide insight as to how the training progressed, how successful it was, difficulties the organizers encountered, and whether the program objectives were achieved. Discussion of these sub-themes will further expatiate important statements that suggest trainees were fully satisfied with the leadership training program.

Resource mobilization

Resources in this context encompass financial arrangements that made it possible for the program costs to be covered, teaching and learning materials deployed for trainees and trainers, training centre arrangement, accommodation and custodial facilities, internet connectivity, qualified trainers, and transportation. Analysis of participants' questionnaires and interview transcripts revealed that the workshop was well organized, ended successfully, and was

positively appraised by attendees. All trainees (100%) reported that it started on Sunday and

ended Saturday with accommodation and training resources orderly provided. One trainee

described her experience as follows:

> I reported on the training site on Sunday evening of 27th November, 2011. I was given an
>
> accommodation at the Windy Lodge Hotel in Winneba, which is very close to the
>
> Winneba beach and 15 minutes walk away from the training center. On the closing date,
>
> colleague headteachers who came from the host region (Central) left immediately after
>
> the closing ceremony but those of us from afar slept and left early morning the next day.
>
> It was a wonderful experience!

 Another trainee reinforced the positive nature of the leadership program:

> On the closing date, our certificates were not ready for distribution so we were asked to
>
> leave and that it would be sent to us later via our respective district directors. Our
>
> traveling and transportation allowances were paid before we left. Everybody was happy
>
> and satisfied with the workshop.

The two coordinators played significant roles with respect to resource mobilization as one of

them explained:

> Owing to unforeseen challenges, …, the workshop was organized later than originally
>
> planned, from 28th November to 2nd December, 2011. I arranged for the venue at
>
> techAIDE centre, and delegates were all accommodated at the Windy Lodge Hotel, both
>
> in Winneba, Central Region… Most trainees reported a day earlier and after the final
>
> closing ceremony, those from distant regions were permitted to sleep in the hotel and left
>
> the following day… The techAIDE centre where the training was organized was the
>
> outcome of COL's past support to young beneficiaries of COL-PROTEIN which was

won by one young man. The centre provided all the Information Technology (IT) support

required for the workshop with the technical hands by Micap Institute of Technology

(MIT). I ensured that everything was well organized.

The remaining coordinator asserted that different institutions, departments, and agencies

contributed invaluably to the success of the program by providing material and financial support

as illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2: Institutions and Type of Support Offered

Institution	Support offered
Centre for National Distance Learning and Open Schooling (CENDLOS).	Provided Information Technology (IT) facilities and office stationery.
Micap Institute of Technology (MIT).	Information technology (IT) support.
techAIDE Centre.	Training centre.
Ministry of Education (MOE).	Approval and exercised supervisory role.
Ghana Education Service (GES).	Oversight responsibility.
University of Education, Winneba (UEW).	Host university.
Commonwealth of Learning (COL)	Provided financial support.

In terms of what motivated these organizations and institutions to support the program,

one of the coordinators had this to say:

All of them supported the program in one way or the other with two main reasons. First,

to help realize the vision for education in Ghana and second, to achieve relevant and

quality education to ensure functional literacy and high productivity leading to economic

growth.

Another coordinator recalled some of the main duties performed in support of the program:

Being the director at CENDLOS, I ensured that sufficient workshop materials were

printed for all participants and facilitators. Again, I signed the invitation letters to trainees

and instructors and made sure that the letters were endorsed by the Director-General of

the Ghana Education Service of the Ministry of Education before dispatching to each

delegate. Most trainees brought a personal laptop computer so I negotiated with my

institution (CENDLOS) for an internet connectivity. I ensured that trainees who did not

bring personal laptop computers had desktops at their disposal. At the end of the

workshop, participants were assured of a certificate each for participation.

The Ghanaian consultant notes:

The whole program started through a partnership involving COL, MUN, and the MOE,

spearheaded by me … I was involved in the development of the training materials and

was part of the team that conducted the Training of Trainers (TOT). Additionally, I was

responsible for selecting qualified trainers and ensured that sufficient resources required

for the program to be implemented successfully were secured.

Taken together, these statements reinforce that the leadership training was organized successfully

and the required material and fanatical resources were in place for achieving the overarching

learning objectives of the program.

Instructional strategies

Findings related to the sub-theme of *instructional strategies* shed more light on the

research question, *What are the successes and challenges after the program implementation?*

Leadership skills implementation was a major objective of the COL-MUN program because

without such skills trainees could not implement or bring about a change to their schools. To

achieve the objective of skill implementation, the approach adopted by instructors was an

important factor the investigator considered. Studies indicate that the goal of making training

transferable and sustainable rests on identifying the trainee implementation needs, providing

interventions through action plans, mentoring, and matching content to the trainee settings (Lim,

2000; Lim & Morris, 2006). A number of studies (e.g., Reinelt, Foster, & Sullivan, 2002; Van

Velsor, McCauley, & Ruderman, 2010) also affirm that knowledge acquisition is the first step in

obtaining the necessary leadership skills. Relatedly, Rogers (2003) asserts that in leadership

development programs applicable instructional approaches that connect to the trainee

implementation needs needs must be employed as much as possible. However, the skills gained

during training sessions may not be sufficient to change an individual's leadership behaviour

and practices unless those skills are practiced (Rogers, 2003). Analysis of participants'

transcripts revealed that trainees acquired new skills by effectively participating in the learning

process because of support and methodologies the trainers employed. It was also discovered that

trainees attempted to practice the skills relevant to their daily school management practices. Most

trainees described instructional strategies and materials that helped them to learn and implement

the skills to their work settings. In Table 3, strategies that elicited desirable skills in the trainees

are summarized.

Table 3: Sample Instructional Strategy and Skills Stimulated in Trainees

Training method	Examples of skills elicited
Practical group work	Communication skills, idea sharing, consensus building, writing skills, analytical thinking, teambuilding.
Case study	Sharing of ideas, problem-solving skills, critical thinking, creativity, and analytical thinking.
Role play	Teambuilding, communication skills, interpersonal skills, negotiation skills, and collaboration.
Simulation	Communication skills, problem-solving, teambuilding, negotiation, and interpersonal skills.

Lecture	Listening skills, understanding of theoretical concepts, application of knowledge and skills, ability to transfer concepts to real situations, and actualizing new ideas.

Recognizing the program setting as a complex social environment representing headteachers from different social and educational backgrounds, the trainers employed diverse instructional strategies that facilitated learning of the requisite leadership skills. The methods used provided the ideal environment for trainees to create their own knowledge and understanding, and to do so interactively. The three trainers noted that instructional strategies they used enabled trainees to conceptualize the basic leadership theories introduced and link them to their working needs. As a trainer reported, "Taking diverse culture into account, we used teaching methodologies that helped the headteachers to acquire relevant leadership capacities, and broadened their awareness on multiple perspectives to deal with cultural issues in schools."

Evaluation strategies

The third emergent sub-theme *evaluation strategies* reflect the COL-MUN leadership training program challenges and successes. The theme relates to research question one, *What are the successes and challenges after the program implementation?* A core objective of the program was to improve the leadership capacity of headteachers and school principals. However, data analysis showed that there was no formal evaluation system in place to systematically assess impacts of the training on participants or their schools. Evaluation strategies that were adopted were only meant to provide feedback in support of determining the various skills trainees acquired, the challenges encountered during program delivery, trainee concerns about the program itself, and to solicit recommendations for improving the programming. Table *4* illustrates evaluation strategies trainers adopted and possible outcomes they sought to assess and achieve.

Table 4: Sample Evaluation Strategies and Outcomes Measured

Evaluations strategies	Training outcomes to assess
Group presentation	Presentation skills, communication skills, teambuilding capacities, listening skills.
Questioning	Clarify concepts, listening skills, comprehension, communication.
Written assessment	Check understanding of ideas and concepts, construction of ideas, application of practical skills, writing skills, time management.
Open forum	Express concerns, make recommendations.
Case studies	Elicited analytical skills, critical thinking, problem-solving skills, linkage to reality.

The Ghanaian consultant of the COL-MUN leadership program when interviewed confirmed, "No formal evaluation has been carried out to find the impact of the training except the usual assessment procedures interspersed in training sittings and those carried out at the final plenary wrap-up session." All three trainers affirmed that questioning was used as an evaluation tool to ascertain whether trainees understood the leadership concepts taught." One trainer noted, "Throughout the workshop and in our last meeting, we allowed time for questioning. Responses trainees gave affirmed that the program learning objectives were achieved. Participants also used the opportunity to ask questions for clarity and brought up some recommendations." Trainers unanimously concurred that they incorporated case studies in their evaluation plan with the view to eliciting and assessing critical thinking, problem solving, and analytical skills in trainees.

One of the program objectives was to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and experiences of managing schools, and to provide an opportunity for continuing professional development to trainees. Proponents of skills-based training (e.g., Ellis, 1965; McGehee & Thayer, 1961) suggests that properly designed and implemented leadership programs play not only a valuable role in competency development but also in the outcomes and impacts that are

realized thereafter. Findings indicated that no formal or systematic evaluation and support

strategy was set in place to provide such an opportunity for continuing professional development.

The anticipated post-workshop online support centre that would have allowed trainees to access

information or link up with instructors and consultants both in Ghana and overseas also did not

materialize. The Ghanaian consultant affirmed, "Evaluation carried out during workshop

sessions provided ample evidence that the program was informative, even though there has not

been any follow-up evaluation machinery in place."

Core Concept Two: Functional Leadership Skills

As outlined earlier, the purpose of this study is to investigate and understand how

headteachers implemented theories they learned at the COL-MUN leadership training program to

their respective workplaces. The objective of the program was to help headteachers improve

their leadership skills to enable them and their schools to function more effectively. To realize

this objective, the study explored how the program was implemented considering challenges and

successes; what participants learned and processes through which they intended to own and

implement those concepts in the Ghanaian context. The research questions were formulated

towards accomplishment of these objectives.

To answer the research question: *What did participants learn during this training

program?* analysis of trainee transcripts provided two sub-themes that relate to the core concept:

functional leadership skills. These include (a) leadership capability and style, and (b) resource

deployment capacity. A discussion of these sub-themes provides insights into how trainees

demonstrated contemporary leadership knowledge and skills after the program, and how they

exchanged school management ideas that reflected on local circumstances. Rohs and Langone

(1993) notes that acquiring leadership skills broadens the individual leadership perspective and

amplifies problem-solving ability. In this study, findings indicate that headteachers acquired

relevant leadership skills which they intended to practice at their respective workplaces. Table 5

highlights such management and leadership competencies trainees learned during training

sessions and how they exhibited them at their various schools after the program. Table 6 further

illustrates, in percentage terms, the commonly cited skills trainees reported acquiring.

Table 5: Samples Management Competences and Practices

School management skills acquired	How trainees demonstrated skills and knowledge acquired
Transformational leadership	Coaching skills, emotional appeals, stimulate enthusiasm, teambuilding, soliciting new ideas, stimulate creativity, ability to conceptualize and comprehend problems, analyzing ability, mentoring.
Distributed leadership	Co-leading, sharing ideas, collaboration, negotiating, promote interdependency, collective decision making.
Instructional leadership	Classroom supervision, inspection of weekly forecast, records keeping, monitoring ability, team building, framing school goals, communicating skills, coordinating, time management.
Accommodation	Accepting people's opinion, ability to listen to irate parents, accepting teachers' excuses, provide support for students and teachers, show empathy.
Change in value	Recognition that every teacher is important, awareness about leadership flaws, good relationship building, affable, teachable, self-confidence, self-correction, team building, modelling, resourcefulness, human resource and financial management, conflict resolution, knowledge sharing, open-door administration, persuasion, attention to individual problems.
Empowerment	Engage in collective decision making, delegate duties and responsibilities, sharing of learning experiences with staff, educating

	teachers about bad practices, participatory leadership.
Communication	Encourage staff participation in meetings, capacity to express ideas in public, ability to arbitrate in staff disputes, write memos, organize agenda, present papers at leadership training grounds, investigate and advise staff.
Relationships	Networking with headteachers, principals, district, and regional education directors; collaboration in school projects and activities, draw close to community.

The Ghanaian consultant affirmed and described the authoritarian, top-down leadership model that existed before the COL-MUN program was initiated, "The leadership models practiced in schools were mostly authoritarian. Only in few places can one find collaborative leadership style." The leadership consultant further explained:

The old leadership models had inherent deficiencies … For example, headteachers lacked knowledge on the strengths of their followers; …, no attempt to address deficiencies or weaknesses of members; headteachers did not see others as colleagues; poor at information sharing; and non-involvement of members of the school in aspects of management.

Findings revealed that the COL-MUN leadership development program organized in Ghana in 2011 enabled headteachers to correct most of these deficiencies in understanding current leadership theories. The majority dealt with and discarded personal penchants, patterns, and behaviours inconsistent with good leadership skills and took on significant skills germane to their work place. Table 6 shows 19 commonly cited leadership competencies and skills that trainees reported gaining.

Table 6: Competencies and Skills Trainees Gained

Knowledge and skills	Frequency	%
Leadership capability and style		
Delegation	30	100
Leadership	28	93
Communication skills	20	67
Conducting meetings	30	100
Networking	30	100
Public presentation	21	70
Motivational skills	25	83
Conflict management	28	93
Teambuilding	26	87
Listening skills	30	100
Modelling	22	73
Relationship building	26	87
Resourcefulness	15	50
Resource mobilization capacity		
Human resource management	26	87
Hiring procedures	16	53
Financial management	29	97
Planning skills	30	100
Time management	30	100
Negotiation skills	28	93

Presented below in greater detail are the two major sub-themes shown in Tables 5 and 6,

which are (a) leadership capability and style, and (b) resource deployment capacity. Even though

there had not been any formal or systematic assessment strategies in place to evaluate the

program, analysis of interview notes revealed that the COL-MUN leadership program was

successful. Findings in this study indicate that the program provided opportunities relevant to the

task of re-tooling headteachers and principals in the five regions to recover their practices as

leaders and managers of schools. Previous research has suggested that leadership skills training

heightens administrator commitment towards problem solving and broadens their leadership

perspective (Dubrin, 2015). In this study, the common leadership skills trainees reported

developing were effective delegation of duties and responsibilities, improved personal

communication skills, networking within community and district educational directorates, effective meeting arrangements, and relationship building.

Leadership capability and style

In this study, headteachers and school principals who participated in the training unanimously reported that they developed a capacity for self-awareness, and moved beyond the authoritative and repressive styles that maintained the status quo at their schools. They further claimed a new leadership approach of engaging all stakeholders in the collective administration of formal education. Foster (1989) argues that if leadership is to be effective it must be validated by the consent of followers. In Greater Accra district, a headteacher narrated his transformational experience:

> I was highly dictatorial in my administration and did not involve anybody in decisions I took, but after the training I realized that when colleague workers are not satisfied with your leadership style they don't give off their best. With this recognition, I changed my style and always tried to make them happy by involving them in all activities. This time, whether I am around or not teachers work diligently and if I ask why the answer they gave was that they wouldn't want to disappoint me.

Trainees noted in their responses the benefits of involving stakeholders in decision making, effective delegation of duties and responsibilities, and improved personal communication skills. They also indicated the need for an increased networking within community and district educational authorities, unfettered meeting discussions and problem sharing, engaging in healthy relationship building, and coaching of teachers. Additionally, most of them reinforced the desire for learning to adopt and tailor their leadership strategies to fit different cultures in their schools. This discovery is consistent with the assertion that effective leadership processes, "must reflect the culture in which they are found" (Dorfman, Howell,

Hibino, Lee, Tate, & Bautista, 2006, p. 242). Most trainees reported a substantial increase in the

level of leadership capacities following the COL-MUN leadership program based on the

following commonly cited competencies: delegation (100%), conducting meetings (100%),

networking (100%), listening skills (100%), leadership (93%), and conflict management (93%).

There are other important statements signifying that trainees were satisfied with the

program and thereafter improved upon their leadership skills. One headteacher asserted, "I was

satisfied with the training because it enlightened me about the need to care about the welfare of

my teachers and understand them more." Another trainee remarked, "The results of my

leadership skills were shown when students excelled at the end of the academic year coupled

with other developments in the school I manage." The majority of trainees also expressed

satisfaction and were enthusiastic to have participated in the program. Specifically, most trainees

noted how the acquired competencies led to individual self-discovery and enhanced their ability

to build sustaining relationships. In central region, a headteacher at a basic school recounted her

transformation:

> The leadership program has helped me tremendously… I have made the transparency
>
> chart and responsibility chart… By so doing I am now free since most of my duties have
>
> been distributed. This has given me the opportunity to concentrate more on my regular
>
> administrative and fiducial duties. I have also involved the teachers and student prefects
>
> in my administration. I hold regular meetings with them and intend involving them
>
> more… These strategies enable me to maintain a shared leadership framework in my
>
> school. In fact, I thought I could do everything by myself without consulting the teachers
>
> thinking that they were "Babies" since I taught most of them. But now, everyone is
>
> onboard including the parent teacher association (PTA) executives, community leaders,

…, and the school management committee (SMC). I hope to do more by involving even

the chiefs.

Another headteacher at a junior high school described how beneficial the training was to her:

I was very satisfied with the program because the leadership skills gained helped me to

deal with certain issues I would not have been able to do. I modelled most of the practices

I wanted my teachers to learn. For example, I started coming to school early because I

wanted my teachers and other staff members to emulate. Previously, I came to school at

will because I was the boss… Besides, I advised teachers who used to insult students or

use disparaging words on them. I made them aware that whatever they told their children

stuck in their mind and remain there the whole of their lives. They should therefore try

and encourage them instead.

Analysis of trainers' responses revealed that the program was successful, useful, and

innovative. All the trainers reported that headteachers who participated in the leadership program

had improved their leadership capacities. One of the trainers reported, "After the program, many

[principals] found themselves deficient and under-performing as leaders and consequently

creating poor school image." Another trainer described the program as, "…, very diagnostic and

created a desire for trainees to make amends of lapses that emerged during the presentation."

Trainers acknowledged that there were both observable and measurable economic and social

transformation in trainees' capacity to lead, communicate, delegate, and stimulate group

discussion. One of the trainers reported a dialogue with a trainee who stated:

I used to be a snobbish leader. Right from home, I walked straight to my office without

greeting anyone not even my deputy. Before you see me talking then it was time to

reprimand a teacher or give instructions. Teachers tagged me the 'office madam' because

I always stayed glued to one place in my office. Now, I am a different leader! I greet

every teacher I see around before entering my office because I see them right now as

colleagues and not mere minions. I can delegate, share responsibilities, and involve

teachers in every decision process.

Another trainer recounted what a trainee said:

I realised after training that supervision is key in leadership enactment. The practical

aspects of the training have equipped me with appropriate supervisory skills. I will also

open myself up for discussion and become accountable to the people I serve. It is my

wish to follow the skills acquired through the training and help solve the previous

handicaps.

Such statements provided answers to the research question which states, *what did participants*

learn during this training program?

All trainees (100%) asserted that they had developed the following: the necessary skills

to delegate duties and responsibilities, the confidence to organize meetings devoid of

intimidation and dialogue restriction, the capacity to network with teachers, community leaders,

heads of educational institutions, and administrators in the educational hierarchy, listening skills,

and the ability to proffer solutions to problems, the ability to lead and coach colleague teachers,

and the ability to develop conflict resolution strategies. In addition, delegating, organizing,

budgeting, planning, and problem solving are essential components of school administration, and

trainees acknowledged remarkable improvement in these areas of practice. As one headteacher

affirmed:

Honestly speaking, I cannot tell exactly the type of leadership style I was exhibiting

because I had then not gone to any leadership training before. What I remember is that I

was not sharing responsibilities, not delegating, and not involving teachers in decision

making. Even though I tried to be accountable to the people including teachers under my

supervision, … I kept everything about finance completely secret from them. Soon after

the training, the transformation and distributed leadership concepts I learned equipped me

with the requisite knowledge and skills to effect changes in my administrative practices. I

allowed stakeholders particularly teachers to contribute to the agenda to foster teamwork,

and to stimulate discussion at meetings. I networked with my peers and institutions,

accepted people's opinions, and formed various committees in my school. I encouraged

committee leaders to prepare individual budgets which they did and presented to me for

further discussion and approval.

Improved teambuilding was also reported by most participants (87%) and was described as a

competency that school administrators require to foster unity among teachers and staff members.

A headteacher in Eastern region asserted:

I now admit everybody counts in the school. Students placed under our care need to be

mentored and supported in their academic, spiritual, social, and physical pursuits in a

welcoming, inclusive, and safe learning environment. The best approach to accomplish

these goals would be to focus on teambuilding, which I believe is a tool for teachers to

experience a community that encourages personal development and places a high regard

on teamwork and servant leadership. By this, students, teachers, and other constituents

will have a voice in bringing positive change to the school community.

Resource deployment capacity

The success of every educational institution depends largely on a leader's ability to adopt

accounting and reporting practices that comply with the fiscal expectations of the school board as

well as other applicable jurisdictional authorities. Successful administration is also contingent on

the capacity of the leader to identify the needs in all school programs and projects; to mobilize

resources; and more importantly to provide the right leadership, direction, support and guidance

to spur productivity. Resources in an educational context of a principalship encompass human,

financial, and material assets at the school. Resource management skills are essential to execute

plans, strategize, and ensure sustainable productivity. Several trainees reported an increase in

their capacity to mobilize and manage resources as well as to create innovative school projects.

In Takoradi district in the Western region, a retired headteacher narrated her experience:

> I managed two different schools after the program before I retired. In my first school, the
>
> students' population increased drastically a year after my appointment leading to
>
> classroom and furniture shortages. In a nearby vocational school, there was an
>
> uncompleted building. I negotiated with the principal of that institution to use the facility
>
> until we get one from the metropolitan assembly. Within the shortest possible time, I
>
> managed to mobilize funds from stakeholders and some cooperate bodies that enabled us
>
> to put the building into a better condition for use.
>
> Later, I lobbied the metropolitan assembly who provided two additional pavilions to take
>
> care of our ever-increasing student population.
>
> In my second school, I worked hard …, and with proper arrangements and
>
> networking, I managed to add two gargantuan storeys building before retiring. I always
>
> know what I want and get it, yes! she concluded.

The trainee who presently serves as a Regional Education Manager for the African Methodist

Episcopal (A.M.E.) Zion Church narrated how he mobilized resources and had a six-classroom

block built for a community in his district:

It came to my notice that one community desperately needed a classroom block.

Meanwhile, the district education directorate had started a school project in that locality

but could not finish. My church has several schools in this region but unfortunately there

was none in that locality. However, due to humanitarian reasons and as part of our

church's social responsibility …, I could mobilize funds from my church and completed

the building started by the district education office. The district education authorities

came and asked the townsfolks not to use the facility for fear that my church would claim

ownership in future. This created disaffection between the town elders and the district

education authorities …. Consequently, the chief and elders in the locality ordered the

educational officials to take away the school from their land and pave way for any

individual or organization like the A.M.E. Zion church who wanted to assist. I used my

leadership and negotiation skills to have the impasse resolved amicably. The school in

question is now one of the best basic schools in that locality.

Several trainees acknowledged a significant improvement in their resource mobilization

skills; 87% reported an increase in human resource management skills, 53% had their hiring

procedure skills improved, 97% financial management skills enhanced, 93% claimed improved

negotiation skills, and all participants (100%), reported an improvement in planning and time

management skills. One headteacher in Volta region recalled:

I have several committees in my school including agriculture committee. We have a

vegetable garden and a small poultry farm... Every year, I guide members of the farming

committee to develop a budget and urge them to estimate costs. I also encourage them to

identify beneficial vegetables and prolific poultry stock ... We all plan and design funding

strategies to kick start these projects with the view to increasing income for the school.

Additionally, trainees interviewed acknowledged the need for a change in their leadership practices and reported that they were now leaders, mediators, planners, and recruiters with further ability to source for funding in order to implement new projects. A trainee in Eastern region commented:

> I am now a planner, team builder, organizer, facilitator, and a refined leader. Last year, I managed to organize a speech day where prizes were distributed to deserving teachers and outstanding students. All the resources for the occasion came from a well-meaning individual and organizations through my influence.

A little over one-half (53%) of trainees reported that after they had successfully completed the leadership training program, their knowledge and skills for selecting employees enhanced appreciably. As a trainee who currently manages a private basic school expressed:

> In Ghana teachers in public schools are appointed by the Ghana Education Service (GES) but in private schools we do our own selection … I accomplished this task by following an established selection process, which I learned at the leadership training program. Together with my selection team, we screened all applications to determine those who meet the criteria, develop a short list to be interviewed, conduct interviews, …, check references, and finally select the best employee.

Core Concept Three: Perceived Leadership Concepts

Findings relating to the theme *perceived leadership concepts* respond to the research question, *How do headteachers and school principals perceive the new leadership concepts they learned?* Four sub-themes relating to perceived leadership concepts are identified and characterized. They include (a) awareness creation (b) correctional strategies, (c) confidence building, and (d) change agent.

Awareness creation

Analysis of interview transcripts revealed that most trainees saw the COL-MUN leadership training program as a venture that helped headteachers to create self-awareness. Most trainees labelled the program as an "eye opener" and described it as a project designed to help headteachers identify leadership weaknesses to which they were inadvertently prone. In Eastern region, a headteacher noted:

I see the training as an opportunity for me to realize my mistakes in leadership. There were things I was doing and I did not know they were not good. I now know that when followers turn to be at par with the leader, work goes on well. It has created a lot of awareness in me.

Another headteacher reported:

I perceived the training as a very important venture that helped and will continue to prompt headteachers about inappropriate leadership practices. At the end of it all, I became aware that teachers occasionally develop behaviours due to the leader's attitude and leadership style.

A headteacher in Accra reinforced, " I perceived the training as a useful exercise. I was exposed to so many leadership techniques which I am currently applying to do my work as a leader."

A school principal in Central region narrated how the program helped him to be aware of weaknesses in his financial management as follows:

As a principal of this big private school, I have always been confronted with financial issues some of which in my opinion I managed well, little did I know I was making grievous mistakes. The program helped me to identify my weaknesses in financial management. For example, I have become more conversant and fluent in budgeting such

that I am clearly aware of what needs to be appropriated to all departments and I can

monitor finances better than I used to previously.

Another headteacher affirmed, "The program helped me tremendously…, I have inner strength

because I am aware of what is expected of me as a leader, and my leadership skills are useful to

guide every member of the school community." In Volta region, a trainee remarked, "I gained

self-awareness that I am only an implementer and my responsibility is to allow the teachers who

are good designers to help me achieve the educational goals."

These statements indicate an understanding and importance of self-awareness as a

leadership competency. Per findings in this study, most trainees became conscious of what they

were good at while acknowledging what they have yet to learn. Because of prevailing culture,

many Ghanaians operate on the belief that they must appear as though they know everything all

the time or else people will question their abilities. This normative thinking usually leads to

diminishing leadership effectiveness (UNESCO, 2004). Trainees ability to identify their

weaknesses and owned up their mistakes is thus an important leadership competency that the

COL-MUN program helped to develop.

Correctional strategies

Findings relating to the sub-theme *correctional strategies* indicate that trainees perceived

the COL-MUN training as a strategy to correct their leadership mistakes. A headteacher in Volta

region gave details of how the training helped him beyond the usual school administrative

practices he employed:

In fact, the training added a lot of knowledge to my leadership style. I faced a panel for

promotion to my next rank but I failed. After I had gone through the notes I wrote in the

COL-MUN training program, I corrected all my previous mistakes when I met the panel

for the second time and passed excellently. There is no way one can fail an interview if you read through the notes we were given during class and practice the concepts.

The majority of trainees reported that, prior to the leadership program, they were bossy and did not involve stakeholders in any decision they took. After completing the program, school administrators changed and began practicing collective decision making. In Western region, a headteacher explained:

I was not tolerant but this training helped me to accommodate and respect my teachers even if they were wrong. The training helped me to care about the welfare of my teachers and understand them better than ever. I was satisfied with the training.

A headteacher in Greater Accra metropolis narrated how the training helped him to correct his dictatorial tendencies:

The program helped me to correct most of my mistakes…, I was more dictatorial and wanted things done the way I deemed right without consulting anybody. Sometimes I got it wrong but no one dared challenge me…, after the program, however, I started involving teachers whom I consider as team players in decision-making; together, we work as a team and now there is more invigorating energy in my school.

Altogether, trainees demonstrated amply through varied responses they provided suggesting that they realized most of their leadership weaknesses. In efforts to correct themselves, they implemented some of the skills they learned at training and impacts partially realized.

Confidence building

The perspective on change and new understanding of leadership concepts and styles gave trainees a reorientation to themselves as professional administrators. A JHS headteacher in Volta region stated:

> The training gave me confidence… I have the capacity to develop my school and in a
> better direction because of the leadership knowledge and skills I was exposed to. I used to
> be a quiet and calm person but I had funny thought that for a leader to be productive he or
> she must be bossy and overtly extrovert. … I was wrong! The training taught me that I
> don't necessary have to be talkative to become effective leader but just planning and
> confidently executing appropriate policies make leaders worth their salts. These
> knowledge and skills I learned have raised my confidence level.

Several headteachers reported that the training raised their confidence level to tackle managerial
quagmires which hitherto were bothering them. One headteacher in Central region noted:

> I was stuck in between the district educational authorities, …, and the school
> management board who were predominantly military personnel. Sometimes, I was
> hesitant in taking certain decisions because of the fear that one of my governing bodies
> may discipline me should I had it wrong. With my new distributive leadership approach
> … and collective decision making style …, I can now do my work confidently. Whenever
> there is a problem, we all sit down and discuss it as one people with one common goal. I
> don't need to put all loads on my shoulders.

Another headteacher affirmed the confidence building aspect of the leadership program:

> I was a new headteacher with no prior experience. To make matters worse, I was
> appointed a headteacher right from classroom without any leadership training. I can
> affirm that I left the training ground with a lot more confidence. I can now interact with
> my peers, teachers, and at meetings, I can confidently express my views grounded on
> leadership principles without fears whatsoever.

Change agent

Trainees unanimously perceived the training as a beneficial intervention that encouraged them become change agents in their schools, communities, and the society they serve. One headteacher in Central region described becoming a change agent as follows:

> The training was so important to me. I considered every bit of it as an opportunity for me to effect changes in my school. The beneficial aspect of it was that it helped me to deal with problems that relate to culture. I could change the climate of my school because of knowledge and skills I developed after the program. I am so happy to have gone through such a wonderful "wake up" workshop. Mentoring has formed an integral part of my administrative practices with the view to encouraging my teachers to learn and deal with cultural driven issues always.

The majority of trainees acknowledged that the COL-MUN leadership program also provided an opportunity for them to change the behaviour of some teachers. A Greater Accra headteacher who manages only a kindergarten section of a basic school reported:

> There has been a tremendous progress in whatever I am doing here. A few of my teachers have absenteeism problems … After the program, I called them one by one in my office and talked to them courteously … My aim was to have a deep understanding of their individual problems. Interestingly, the strategies I used worked to some extent. Within a short time …, these teachers changed and became unbelievably punctual at school. I wish I had this training right at the beginning of my career as a headteacher.

Individual change marks the beginning of an inner journey to self-discovery and a greater sense of agency for these administrators. An internal change in the self-conception of the leader seems, moreover, to set the conditions necessary for positive external change for the school as a whole. The majority of headteachers interviewed, in all five geographical regions, affirmed self-

discovery about their preferred leadership styles, articulating the desire to change previous

unfavourable practices and take up the meaningful leadership and managerial styles they learned

from the training. Such activity, they believed, had a constructive effect on all members of the

school community. Another headteacher in the Central region expressed this finding as follows:

> I was not involving the teachers much in my administration. There was no proper
>
> dialogue, no shared leadership style, …, even though I was very submissive and
>
> proactive. I thought I could do everything on my own; little did I know that one person
>
> cannot make a school. At the end of the training I discovered a lot of lapses in my
>
> leadership style …, including the fact that a headteacher should be resourceful, cordial,
>
> approachable, …, and more importantly teachable. I can tell that I have changed
>
> completely and my task currently is to guide my teachers and supporting staff to also
>
> change.

Another headteacher whose formal qualification was a diploma in basic education (DBE) noted:

> I see leadership from different perspectives, not just the high-profile or displaying of
>
> envious academic laurels. I see leadership as the ability to win peoples' heart so that they
>
> move in the same direction you want to go. The training has changed me and certainly I
>
> am changing my teachers, staff, and even the parents.

In short, the majority of trainees acknowledged that adopting appropriate, research based

leadership practices that engender both personal and organizational change is the best way

forward for achieving desired educational goals.

Core Concept Four: Transferability Strategies

Findings relating to the core concept *transferability strategies* answer the research

question: *Through what process do participants plan to implement this learning to their*

schools? The overarching goal of the COL-MUN leadership training program was to expose the

headteachers to well-conceptualized leadership styles, and to instill in them the essential knowledge and skills that would help them manage their respective schools effectively and in accordance with local conditions. There are several factors that affect implementation of learning including: trainee interest, removal of barriers that might block the implementation process, implementation support, and several others. Research indicates that matching the content of any leadership development program to individual trainee work settings provides the surest way to counteract these factors and render the training program transferable and sustainable (Lim & Morris, 2006).

The trainers were experienced school administrators and therefore could incorporate practical examples into the program content – examples that illustrated how the skills trainees learned could be implemented to their schools. As one trainer reported:

I introduced varied methodologies whenever it was my turn to teach. My main objective was to encourage trainees to choose a methodology that would facilitate their personal knowledge and skills development to practice the concepts they were introduced to at their workplaces. Sometimes, I gave assignments and allowed individual or group presentations and discussions. On many occasions, too, I took trainees through various case studies stuff that helped them to develop their critical thinking abilities.

Another trainer affirmed, "The program was filled with case studies that were developed locally. The case study approach was important to me because it helped them to conceptualize practical culture." An additional trainer explained transferability strategies he used, "The participants did practical group work using case studies based on school reality. Since problems were similar and challenging they were ready and willing to find solutions by themselves." One of the

coordinators interacted with trainees after the last session and this is what he reported on the

transferability of learned skills:

> During the closing ceremony, I talked to a couple of headteachers wanting to know their
>
> feelings about the program and how they intended transferring the skills they learned to
>
> their working places. Several of them declared their intentions to organize other training
>
> sessions for colleague headteachers who could not participate in the first training, while
>
> they also implement skills acquired in their own schools.

All trainers confirmed that trainees appeared to be satisfied with the level of skill implementation

that had occurred. Moreover, the trainees planned to train their staff members with the same

skills they learned upon their return to school.

Trainees described strategies that helped them to learn and implement the skills to their

institutions. Eighty percent of trainees reported that group discussion helped them to

conceptualize the theories they learned and to figure out a practical way to implement the skills

when at their respective schools. One trainee recounted the benefit she got from group

discussions, "The group discussion approach helped me to implement the skills because the

whole process was interactive and innovative. We shared common leadership problems and

alternative practical solutions to those problems."

In addition to discussion groups, other trainees identified the use of case studies as a

helpful instructional strategy. As one headteacher noted, "The case study developed my ability to

think critically and find practical solutions to the numerous problems parents bring to my

school." More than three-quarters of trainees (82%) concurred that the case studies built their

confidence and improved their self-efficacy, a tendency that may well motivate them to initiate

new programs and other educational initiatives.

In the field, trainees narrated the different strategies being adopted to implement what they learned. One trainee asserted, "The dilemma about leadership and managerial issues are enduring ... I delegate a lot after I came back from the training … and allow other teachers to contribute to problem solving. I belief the collective problem solving strategy is working to perfection." Moreover, 98% of trainees reported that frequent staff meetings and sharing of ideas had contributed to the present better learning outcomes of their schools. In Greater Accra region, one headteacher I interviewed stated:

> I was highly dictatorial but after the training I realized that colleague teachers most often show affective commitment when satisfied with the leader's leadership style... Therefore, I always tried to make them happy by identifying their strengths and weakness and nurture them accordingly.

A headteacher in Volta region also told of his similar experience with implementing program content to an educational setting:

> I have improved upon my previous leadership style by practising the skills and identify which one fits into a situation at hand. There was a case in my school a couple of months ago. A parent came to my office and screamed furiously asking why I registered her ward for the Basic Education Certificate Examination outside my school. Reflecting on the conflict resolution discussion in one of the training sessions …, I took the parent through his ward's performance so far and other tests or exams conducted…I informed her that the child did not meet the school's standard... Later, the parent was happy that I did something good for him. We both laughed together. In fact, I could have reacted violently had it not been the training I had.

In central region, one headteacher reported:

I try to incorporate the skills I learned through modelling and mentoring. I modelled most

practices I wanted my teachers to learn. Lateness was a major problem in my school.

Therefore, I started coming to school early because I wanted my teachers and other staff

members to emulate and do same.

Another trainee reported, "I incorporate what I learned through collective decision making,

sharing of learning experiences with staff, educating teachers about bad practices, and

persuasions instead of being a control freak figure which characterized my previous styles."

Finally, in Eastern region, a headteacher who manages a highly populated basic school gave an

especially compelling testament to the success of skill transfer from the leadership program to

professional practice:

I resorted to mentoring when I came back from the training. I made several copies of the

notes I had taken during classes to all the teachers in my school and mentored them. My

goal was to develop every teacher I supervised to become a leader. I now have several

headteachers at my disposal who handle the school whenever I travel. I can confidently

tell there are changes in staff relationships which is one of the core values the school

upholds… For some time now, I have literally not handled any conflict cases. If I had this

training at beginning of my career, I would have been a super administrator.

Core Concepts Five and Six: Responsiveness to Change and Sustainability Challenges

Findings relating to the fifth and sixth core concepts *responsiveness to change* and

sustainability challenges together address the research question: *What factors influence this*

implementation process? The underlying goals of a leadership development program are the

implementation and sustainability of the knowledge and skills trainees learned to their practice in

the field, and to sustain the transfer process over time (Salas et al., 2012). Designers and

implementers of the COL-MUN leadership development program anticipated that trainees would

practice the skills they learned effectively thereby helping to realize the country's vision for

education. Follow-up measures were suggested at the end of the program such that the training

would not end up being a "nine-day wonder" but rather would grow to become an established,

continuing educational process.

The MUN representative who served as a facilitator and a theoretical framework developer

outlined some of the proposals put forward during the material development stage that aimed to

sustain any gains made through participation in the program:

> From feedback received from several participants, it appears that the potential of this
>
> training could be greatly enhanced if there was planned follow-up in each of the
>
> individual countries. … They requested ongoing assistance and presence of consultants
>
> within their own countries as the training sessions go ahead. … to provide consultancy
>
> services…, a long-term consultancy relationship … request an annual report from one
>
> lead person per country. Organize research teams composed of participant trainers from
>
> each country who would collaborate with the consultants in conducting long term
>
> research studies that would document training, …, host the electronic version of the
>
> Training Manual on a secure Internet server that would be accessed by trainers and their
>
> trainees through password; … ensure that bibliographical and research materials are
>
> regularly reviewed to maintain currency; and reconvene another training session after a
>
> reasonable period to continue to build the strong leadership capacity that has been
>
> developed among the participants.

Leadership development studies suggest that some barriers or factors make challenges

unavoidable in any training program implementation (Reinelt et al., 2002). Findings from this

study confirmed the Reinelt et al. (2002) assertion because factors that worked against the

smooth implementation of trainees' recommendations were identified in the data. These factors

not only frustrated the implementation drive but also rendered application of many of the

expected practices unsustainable. Table 7 illustrates factors that thwarted trainees'

implementation efforts and created sustainability challenges.

Table 7: Barriers that Headteachers Faced During Implementation of Skills

Challenging factors	N	Percent
Cultural influence	30	100%
Working conditions	26	87%
External influence	30	100%
Support for implementation	28	93%
Creating opportunity for practice	30	100%
Resistance to change	30	100%

The remaining parts of this section provide details of these factors in relation to the core concepts

responsiveness to change and sustainability challenges. A discussion of these sub-themes

provides insights into various socio-cultural factors that frequently influence skill

implementation processes and create sustainability challenges in Ghanaian context.

Cultural influence

School climate and culture are key factors to consider when adopting a leadership

approach. Research has also shown that culture determines how people operate and therefore,

leaders need to be aware of their own cultural influence in the organizational culture and that of

the people they lead (Hofstede, 2005). In recognition of such findings, the designers and

implementers of the COL-MUN leadership development program considered the cultural

heritage that exists in each participating country. The program was tailored as a major objective

to address the cultural needs of these countries by allowing participants to present cases relevant

in their localities. In describing processes that led to the development of the training manual, the

MUN representative noted, "The program had two phases. The first phase involved the

modification and development of existing materials to meet the needs of headteachers…

Participants made the following suggestions, …, that materials should be contextualized to make

it Africa-centric, …" The three trainers affirmed that case studies used for the training were

relevant and reflected local circumstances as well as addressing cultural challenges commonly

faced by headteachers.

 Trainees' satisfaction in terms of how the training helped to address culturally-driven

issues can be described in powerful statements such as this: The training was useful and

applicable to our local circumstances; the information will help us address problems pervasive in

our schools; the case studies were real and applicable; the program was an eye opener. One

headteacher reported, "It looked as if the organizers came to my school to gather information for

the case studies. Everything we discussed in the case studies were issues I've been confronted

with in my school." Contrary to trainee expectations, findings revealed several challenges

headteachers encountered when applying skills from the program. The majority of these

challenges and partial successes were attributable to culture and values the people uphold.

 In central region, for example, a headteacher narrated her experiences related to

absenteeism and her partial success with addressing this normative issue:

 Teachers absenteeism and lateness to school were my major challenges. First, I was using

 red pen to underline teacher's attendance book when they reported late and when they

 were absent… I always had a grudge with them… But just after the training, I resolved to

 meet with them one-on-one and dialogued to figure out the best way they could cope with

 the situation. There has been a remarkable improvement but the most recalcitrant

 absentees are still giving me a hell of time. I see it as a cultural issue because in our

 circumstances being late or absent without permission is normal.

Another trainee reported an incident that stems from an engrained lack of discipline:

There was a teacher who consistently was not coming to school on Mondays and

Tuesdays. Upon series of investigation I got to know that this teacher was a drunkard. I

sat him down and interviewed him. He revealed that on weekends he drinks so much such

that he was unable to get up on Monday. Therefore, he chose Tuesdays as his resting days

and starts coming to school on Wednesdays instead. Besides, he was not preparing lesson

notes and did not stop taking Monday and Tuesday as resting days to cure his hang-over

problem. The situation got out of hand and so I had to report him to the circuit supervisor

who recommended for his transfer to another place of work. Elsewhere you dare not

engage in this awkward behaviour but here drinking to school is considered normal even

though our code of conduct frowns at it.

In addition to the disruptive behaviours exhibited by teachers, many trainees also affirmed that

some parents enter schools without notice and with clear intent to cause a commotion. In Volta

region, a headteacher explained:

A parent stormed the school one day and started insulting teachers based on information

his ward had given him. Most of the parents do not care about rules and regulations …, to

them it is not out of place for a parent to enter a school compound whenever they wanted

to express their feelings. Just as you can frequently see these parents quarrelling and

fighting in the open markets, they find it easy to extend same to our schools and cause

mayhem. It is our culture and there is nothing one can do.

Another trainee reinforced:

One irate parent came to my school and insulted the teachers. She persistently attacked

and quarrelled with one class teacher and transferred her anger to anyone who intervened.

> After applying all the skills learned in the program and she was not stopping, she was advised to withdraw her child from the school. She did and we had our peace.

While such overt behaviours are clearly disruptive to educational initiatives, many trainees also contend with subtler socio-cultural issues that thwart implementation of the ideas and skills learned in the leadership program. An excellent example of how general social attitudes can impinge on the aims of educational leaders comes from a headteacher whose school was in a typical coastal environment:

> Government subvention delayed and sometimes did not come at all. Parents in this catchment area are all fishermen and fish mongers with little income. Introduction of programs and school projects, to them is tangential... They will not attend meetings and anything concerning education is irrelevant in their view…Some of the children come to school bare footed and when asked why, their parents argued that free education means everything is free. What these parents were referring to was the free Compulsory and Universal Basic Education (fCUBE) policy. Sometimes, teachers and staff had to buy food for students.

Such poor parental attitude towards education, difficulties relating to community participation in schools, and other challenges like those identified in this study are common socio-cultural factors that influence leadership practices in Ghanaian context. As a policy, for example, community participation in schooling is most often channelled through formal bodies such as the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) and/or School Management Committee (SMC). However, at the level of school decision-making, participation is often cosmetic and characterised by unequal access to, or participation in, these bodies because of considerations such as gender, political party affiliation, social and professional status. De Grauwe et al. (2005)

affirm that in most West African countries, even where these formal bodies (PTA, SMC, etc.) are set up they are often unrepresentative. Study also indicates that in Ghana, community involvement in schools and school involvement in the community is limited especially outside the urban areas (Dunne et al., 2007). This is especially true for resource-poor communities because invitation to participate in school decision-making might act as a deterrent as most parents are unable to contribute money or time. Taken together, these cultural variations and associated challenges affect leadership practices and learning outcomes.

Working conditions

As noted in earlier sections, the process of implementing skills and knowledge learned in leadership development programs is frequently influenced by several factors including motivation and working conditions. As Maslow (1943) notes, to a man with a hammer, everything looks like a nail. Headteachers who participated in the training required the necessary resources and motivation to implement and sustain the skills and knowledge they learned. In this study, trainees displayed a high level of satisfaction with the program and an eagerness to implement and sustain the skills they learned. A headmaster expressing his level of gratification asserted, "I am highly satisfied and willing to apply the skills in the day-to-day administration of my school." Analysis of trainees' and instructors' responses indicated that all trainees (100%) were satisfied and ever prepared to put the skills into practice. A trainer affirmed, "All the trainees were satisfied judging from the final plenary session comments they gave with some of them expressing the desire to reconvene after a reasonable period to evaluate and discuss their performances."

Despite the overwhelming endorsement of the program and apparent satisfaction participants registered, most trainees reported that the working conditions had posed undue challenges with respect to implementation of skills they learned. One headteacher reported, "I

always want to do the right thing as a leader but unavailability of resources sometimes made my

work extremely difficult." Findings suggest that financial support, curriculum materials, and

general working conditions predisposed the headteachers to many difficulties. A teacher in

Adentan district in the Greater Accra region explained her site related difficulties as follows:

> My school is located right in the centre of the city with no walls around to provide
>
> security for us (teachers) and the children placed under our care. Armed robbers
>
> frequently invade our school, break into classrooms and offices, and run away with
>
> whatever booty they lay hands on… I have petitioned the metropolitan educational
>
> directorate severally but to no avail. The general condition here is appalling, making my
>
> work so worrisome.

All trainees reported generally poor working conditions in the Ghana Education Service

(GES) resulting in certain unruly behaviours and disruptive attitudes on the part of teachers as

well as support staff. A headteacher in Central regions confirmed, "…almost every teacher of my

school engages in one form of trade or the other aiming to get extra income to supplement their

scanty salary." Another headteacher recounted her difficulty in gaining staff support for school

initiatives and in convincing teachers to place educational interests ahead of their own:

> I tried to plant flowers to beautify the school compound. Some teachers were not
>
> comfortable and irked as to why we should beautify the school instead of sharing the
>
> money involved. It took some time to convince these irritated teachers… Some female
>
> teachers also wonder why they could not bring their children to school while teaching if
>
> their babies were three months old. As a leader, I see that these nursing mothers have a
>
> case because their maternity leave does not go beyond three months and there are no day-
>
> care centres in this locality... Other teachers who engage in petty trading also argue why I

was not allowing them to sell or give some candies to the pupils to sell on their behalf?

These issues create unfavourable working conditions and sometimes throw me off target.

External influence

The educational structure in Ghana is such that policies are formulated by the ruling

government through the ministry of education and "pushed" downwards to headteachers for

implementation via the Director General (DG) of education, and the regional and district

directors. Within the district directorate itself, in addition to the District Director, there is always

an Assistant Director (AD) in charge of supervision with supporting personnel such as Circuit

Supervisors (CS) and Health Inspectors (HI) all of whom visit schools to complete routine

inspections. Headteachers report directly to CS and other ancillary staff from the district

education office as per the established line of authority. By this structure, headteachers are

always positioned in a middle management position trying to satisfy these educational officials,

parents, community leaders, staff, and teachers. The principal's authority is severely limited as

s/he occupies a middle management position. As such, the impact of the principal on student

performance is most often indirect (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; A. Harris, 2009; Leithwood, Patten,

& Jantzi, 2010; Sheppard et al., 2009). The resultant effect is immense external pressure that

most headteachers and school principals are frequently forced to endure. A headteacher

described this experience as follows:

> I am always under severe pressure which is driving me crazy. I do not even have time to
>
> come up with my own initiatives and every decision my teachers and I take must be
>
> subjected to scrutiny by the school board ... As I talk to you now, if I get a call from any
>
> of my superiors, there will be no other option than to leave everything and go. Our
>
> (headteachers) work in this developing country (Ghana) is more like a messenger who

always must be instructed by his or her boss before working. We are definitely not

considered as leaders who have visions and work towards their achievement.

All trainees (100%) reported a similar sense of external pressure emanating from the

district directorate in one form or another. A headteacher who manages a basic school reiterated

this overwhelming sense of intense organizational pressure to perform:

I do not even have time to do my administrative work let alone plan for my teachers.

Today you are called to attend a meeting in the district office …, tomorrow bring this or

that to the office …, everything we do comes from above…, and a whole lot of

instructions. The situation is unbearable and you don't even have time to work out things

by yourself. Again, we always have to be extra careful in decisions we take because

political leaders and district educational authorities in their quest to satisfy the ruling

government won't spare you should you make a mistake.

In Central region one headteacher further noted how such pressure can often be accompanied by

a sense of powerlessness despite holding a formal administrative position within the school

district:

A female teacher was selling in the school. I respectfully called this teacher in my office

and advised her to stop, knowing the implications her action might cause. But the teacher

would not yield to my advice…, she told me right in the face that should any officer

come to the school and complain, she knows exactly what to tell that officer. Most of

these teachers have relations at the top who back and influence them.

In trying to explore ways these external influences can be dealt with, a headteacher in Accra

metropolis had this to say:

Headteachers should be given the chance to operate. The authorities should listen to us and accept our suggestions. As the children differ from school to school, candidly, I think teachers should be given ample room to design programs and policies that conform to the culture of the environment where the school is located.

In a study to determine the impact of inservice training on teacher behaviour in the Netherlands, Veenman, Van Tulder, and Voeten (1994) observe that for successful implementation of inservice training, the principals should play a vital role in goal setting and planning for application. The authors further observe that the leader's steering function should include setting up of "follow-up meetings after the training at periodic intervals for further information sharing, problem solving, and support of the implementation effort" (p. 316). A selection and synthesis of trainees' responses (as given above) suggests that the agency and autonomy for the headteachers and principals to execute such functions as schooling is limited, and dictated from the top down; the authority of the headteacher or principal is seldom recognized.

Furthermore, some of the headteachers asserted that arbitrary transfers of headteachers to new schools was a great challenge. A retired headteacher in Takoradi district reported on the disruptive nature of forced relocation:

It is possible in our situation for a headteacher to be transferred without their consent. I did not plan to come to the school from where I retired … In my previous school, I worked very hard and diligently to improve the school but before I knew, I was transferred. I protested vehemently but all my pleas hit a snag due to external influence.

Another trainee added, "Sometimes you are transferred without you preparing for it. This is not good because you do not have time to accomplish any goals you have set for the school." A

headteacher in Eastern region added her voice, "We are not given the chance to operate at all. Policies are always formulated from the top and pushed down our (headteachers) throats to implement." Taken together, these statements strongly attest to the fact that headteachers who participated in the COL-MUN program undergo many external pressures in their bid to practice what they learned.

Support for implementation

Several studies have shown that trainee responsiveness to change is predicated on adequate resources available in the work place, support to apply the skills, and removal of barriers of implementation (Chen & Klimoski, 2007; Homklin, Takahashi, & Techakanont, 2014; Lim & Johnson, 2002; Veenman, Van Tulder, & Voeten, 1994). In this research, trainees expressed profound interest and enthusiasm in the training they received but support to enable them implement the skills was lacking. The two coordinators expressed disappointment about their inability to reconvene so that headteachers would have the opportunity to share their experiences. One coordinator lamented, "The training was unique and worth replicating. It is rather unfortunate that we could not establish a link as planned initially for trainees to discuss their problems after the training." The Ghanaian consultant and originator of the program affirmed:

> The headteachers needed continuous support in practicing the skills they learned but we do not have that in place. Apart from the written and oral evaluation strategies which the instructors adopted during and at the end of the workshop, there has not been any follow-up evaluation or support mechanism.

All trainees affirmed the need for social and material support in order to function effectively. One headteacher in Accra reported:

Anytime I encounter problems which are beyond my capability, I find it difficult to get

assistance. The only person I rely on for assistance is the circuit supervisor who is also

handicapped in most of the cases I presented to him. It would have been better if there

was a forum where headteachers could meet occasionally as peers to discuss and share

common problems."

Another trainee reiterated the need for systematic and ongoing post-program support, "I would

be very glad if the training could be organized again, … I sincerely miss it."

Creating opportunity for practice

Skills-based leadership development like the COL-MUN program are oftentimes tailored

to allow individuals to gain knowledge and skills required to sharpen their current skills and

develop new capacities. For effective implementation to be accomplished, trainees should be

given the opportunity and a level ground to practice what they learned. Also, all barriers that

might inhibit the implementation process ought to be removed. The pedagogical strategies

employed by trainers allowed trainees to practice and apply the theoretical concepts to which

they were introduced. Beyond the classroom training opportunities, however, the support that

would have guaranteed continuous practice and application of theory in the workplace

completely eluded them. The web-based support system that trainees could have relied on was

not established. After completion of the program, trainees were left to their fate as "lone rangers"

with no opportunity for reinforcement or adaptation of the training. As one headteacher

acknowledged, "The training should have continued… Whenever I had a problem which was

beyond my capability, I had nowhere to seek support. I wish there was a platform where I could

consult my peers easily to share common problems."

The findings like those derived from this study are consistent with studies on best

practice for implementing leadership skills. For example, Saks and Burke-Smalley (2014)

conclude that organizations might not realize the benefits of training for improvement if those in authority do not ensure that the trained knowledge and skills are used on the job.

In school settings, provision of discussion rooms, frequent meetings with clusters of headteachers to share leadership concepts, and online tutorials would have been sufficient to allow headteachers to reinforce and refine their skills. As one trainee illustrated, "I always tried practicing what we learned but sometimes I failed and had no other place to turn for help. My only source of help was the circuit supervisor in my locality who occasionally was handicapped in most of the problems I presented." The originator of and consultant for the program affirmed:

> The headteachers needed continuous support in practicing the skills they learned but we do not have that in place. Apart from the written and oral evaluation strategies which the trainers adopted during and immediately after the workshop, there has not been any follow-up evaluation or support program.

One trainer also reinforced, "Most trainees requested continuity of the program and some of them recommended the training to be run as a diploma course in training institutions." In line with this recommendation, Homklin et al. (2014), among other findings, observe that chat room discussions could be utilized by employees to improve training transfer, claiming that such discussions could be used to share training ideas and goals, to discuss barriers to transfer, and to provide positive reinforcement. Previous studies that support findings in this research area have argued that a very small percentage of what is learned in training is ultimately applied on the job if trainees are not given the necessary optimal support (Baldwin & Ford, 1998; Ford & Weissbein, 1997; Grossman & Salas, 2011). Research has also suggested that for an implementation of training to be enhanced, organizations should "focus more on creating an environment that enhances co-worker support at least in the short term, but for the longer term,

organizations must improve the quality of other types of support as well to more effectively

exploit the opportunities for training transfer" (Homklin et al., 2014, p. 116). The findings

revealed in this study are consistent with these assertions.

Resistance to change

Findings indicated that most trainees found it difficult to follow through on leadership

initiatives after the program because of teachers' resistance to change. Trainees' responses, in

addition, revealed that teachers' resistance to change was often caused by social factors (many of

which have already been discussed) or due to teachers simply not understanding why and for

what purpose those changes were introduced. One headteacher, for example, recounted how

taking a new perspective on student discipline was not readily understood by some teachers and,

therefore, provoked resistance:

> Like any other human being, my teachers found it difficult to accept my new
>
> perspectives… Some were even surprised that I had changed suddenly and would not
>
> believe me. They thought I was up to something else. When it came to child punishment,
>
> I changed my strategy and tried to investigate why that child erred in the first place. A lot
>
> of teachers thought I was wasting time and rather wanted that instant justices were meted
>
> out to children who offended.

Again, most trainees concurred that the conservative attitude by teachers, parents, and

officers at educational centres made the change process difficult. Leadership experts describe

this phenomenon as 'degeneration', which implies that many experienced teachers, after some

time in the same position, mature and their practices harden (Labaree, 2006). Consequently, they

become impervious or resistant to change. Common reasons trainees reported regarding teacher

resistance to change include, "…experience from the past; some teachers not ready to work as a

team; and teachers not seeing why some situations should be handled in a particular way

different from what they are used to…" A headteacher further observed how a lack of understanding on the part of some teachers is often at the root of resistance: "some of my teachers did not understand why I was involving all teachers, students, parents, and community leaders in my decision making. They thought I was exposing the school's internal affairs to the public."

Another trainee confirmed:

> To ensure punctuality to class, I designed some exercise books and handed each to a class prefect for teachers to sign each time they finished teaching. The class prefect then writes down the topic taught at that day and time the teacher came to class. Some teachers fiercely opposed this development arguing that the ordinary students they teach had no authority to supervise their activities. It took a long time to negotiate with these teachers before some of them grudgingly accepted.

> These findings relating to resistance to change are consistent with previous assertions that principals most often face innovation challenges because some workers might be reluctant to share their knowledge with peers or work as a group (Homklin et al., 2014). Also, difficulties for teachers in accepting change may emanate from self-doubts, temporary setbacks, confusion, and other uncertainty-arousing events (Veenman et al., 1994).

Summary of Findings

Chapter four presented the voices of thirty-six respondents who participated in this research project. These respondents interacted in the COL-MUN leadership development training program in different capacities as trainees, trainers, coordinators, and consultants. In this chapter I presented a comprehensive description of each of these interviewee types. The findings herein reveal the nature of the program implementation vis-à-vis its progress, challenges, and successes. Synthesis of participants' voices produced six overarching core concepts that

explicate and assess the entire program in terms of effectiveness, adaptability, transferability, and sustainability. The core concepts are: (a) meaningful pedagogical strategies (b) functional leadership knowledge & skills (c) perceived leadership concepts (d) transferability strategies (e) responsiveness to change, and (f) sustainability challenges.

Findings relating to meaningful pedagogical strategies revealed that the COL-MUN leadership development program was successfully organized and implemented in relation to resource mobilization, methodology, and evaluation strategies adopted. Analysis of participant responses also indicated that trainees' leadership capacity improved and their resource mobilization capacity was enhanced. Additionally, the program provided an opportunity for self-discovery that allowed headteachers to amend previous ineffective leadership styles, thereby placing them in a better position to leverage necessary change. As well, findings relating to functional leadership knowledge and skills demonstrate that trainees developed communication skills and the capacity to arbitrate school issues.

Findings relating to perceived leadership concepts indicate that trainees' awareness of poor leadership practices increased and the majority of trainees developed confidence and self-correction skills, as well as a desire to become positive change agents. Most of the trainees described a shift in their individual attitudes, beliefs, and values, and an enhanced willingness to help others to change. A majority reported that, given the opportunity to develop the appropriate leadership knowledge and skills, they will not only change their schools but will also help to change the society in which they reside. Trainees were satisfied with the program and described various strategies they intended to use in transferring the knowledge and skills they learned. Most headteachers described the program as an important venture because it produced relevant skills and leadership capacities that were applicable in local circumstances. Several trainees

demonstrated how they used instructional strategies that the trainers adopted and notes they were

given during training sessions to mentor and train their teachers. Regarding transferability of the

training skills, trainees unanimously concurred that the adaption and implementation of

capacities is feasible in principle but very often fraught with challenges. Notable among the

challenges described by the research participants are cultural expectations and social influences,

material working conditions, lack of formal and systematic support for implementation, external

influences and interference by authorities, and stakeholder resistance to organizational change.

Additional findings relating to sustainability and responsiveness to change revealed

trainee resourcefulness and innovativeness in initiating strategies that helped them to address

socio-cultural challenges at their workplaces. For example, most trainees sought to involve

stakeholders in decision making, practiced participatory leadership, and encouraged

teambuilding as precursors for healthy relationship building among teachers. In the long run,

however, many respondents expressed ongoing difficulty in overcoming negative aspects of their

cultural context and indicated that the initial impact of their reforms did not last due to several,

site-specific socio-cultural factors. Findings illustrate that the training was initially planned to be

a continuous web-based process where headteachers would have the opportunity to interact with

their peers at specified times and to network with consultants and trainers so as to avoid feelings

of isolation and self-doubt. Regrettably, however, such provisions did not materialize, therefore

halting the program at only the first phase. Most of the trainees expressed concerns over lack of

ongoing support and the need for continuity of the program beyond the initial phase of training.

The enthusiasm of headteachers to acquire and implement new skills was never in doubt,

and much of the success documented in this research may be attributed to the thoughtful and

conscientious path that the COL-MUN leadership development program followed. Trainees

acknowledged the usefulness of the program and they played active roles in realizing its success by participating in earnest so that its goals would be achieved. The objectives of the COL-MUN initiative were: to disseminate innovative knowledge and skills on school management that will enhance the professional skills and effectiveness of headteachers and school principals, to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and experiences of managing primary and secondary schools for headteachers and principals of schools, and to provide an opportunity for continuing professional development to headteachers and principals of schools. By and large, findings illustrate these objectives were partially achieved. The findings also reveal that a leadership development program of this nature is a necessity and has the potential to prevail over socio-cultural challenges that influence leadership practices if adequate support in terms of human, material, financial, and required services are provided to ensure continuous and sustainable application of skills and concepts learned.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion of Findings and Conclusions

I now turn to a discussion of the research findings. This study was conducted with a threefold purpose: to investigate how the COL-MUN program was implemented, considering successes and challenges, to help plan for future interventions; to investigate what trainees learned and the processes through which they intended to adapt and implement those concepts in the Ghanaian context, and; to explore socio-cultural factors that influenced the implementation processes in this context. It was also intended to explore cultural and contextual factors that have a significant part to play in leadership enactment and practices in Ghana, in particular, and sub-Sahara Africa as a whole. I employed a qualitative case study methodology using a semi-structured, open-ended questionnaire, followed by one-on-one, face-to-face interviews with respondents. A total of 36 respondents were interviewed consisting of 30 headteachers, three trainers, two coordinators one of whom was also a trainer, one consultant from Ghana, and one representative from Memorial University of Newfoundland. Analysis of the collected data produced six overarching core concepts: (a) meaningful pedagogical strategies, (b) functional leadership knowledge and skills, (c) perceived leadership concepts, (d) transferability strategies, (e) responsiveness to change, and (f) sustainability strategies. This concluding chapter is devoted to a thorough discussion of the findings in relation to the purpose of the study and the core concepts in the context of relevant literature.

Challenges Associated with Leadership Training Programs in Ghana

As noted earlier, the general purpose of this qualitative case study is to investigate the COL-MUN leadership development program to determine the program's impact and effectiveness in reference to what was organized in Ghana, and to describe the challenges

participants encountered when implementing the concepts and theories they learned during

training sessions to their respective schools. The objective is to explore cultural and contextual

factors that have a significant part to play in leadership enactment and practices in Ghana, and

thereby facilitate planning for future interventions that would be applicable in the sub-Sahara

African region. To achieve this objective, the study specifically explored how the program was

implemented - considering successes and challenges, what participants learned and processes

through which they intended to own and implement those concepts, and the socio-cultural factors

that tend to influence the implementation processes. Analysis of participant responses was

designed to help determine whether the program objectives as noted above were achieved.

Accordingly, responses relating to the research question, *What are the successes and challenges*

after the program implementation? were systematically examined. Analysis explicating the core

concept *meaningful pedagogical strategies* further produced three sub-themes that provide

insights into how successful the program was and challenges the implementers encountered.

These sub-themes comprise: (a) resource mobilization (b) instructional design, and (c) evaluation

strategies.

        Interestingly, findings relating to the above stated sub-themes revealed several activities

that were carried out before, during, and after the program implementation. These activities were

carried out to facilitate learning and to ensure that the skills and concepts headteachers learned

were adapted and maintained for use. I viewed these activities from the Baldwin and Ford (1998)

organizing perspective which outlines factors that affect implementation of training. According

to the Baldwin and Ford (1998) perspective, "for transfer to have occurred, learned behaviour

must be adapted, generalized to the job context, and maintained over a period of time on the job"

(p. 65). Similarly, Veenman et al. (1994) affirm that for inservice training to be useful and

applicable at workplaces, the program should be "well-connected to the specific school situation" (p. 316). These assertions connect with the three sub-themes – resource mobilization, instructional design, and evaluation strategies – because for a concept or theory to be learned and adapted factors such as trainee characteristics, appropriate methodology to ensure smooth content delivery, and evaluation strategies to consolidate the learning are all crucial. Many studies have, for instance, confirmed that trainee characteristics affect adaptation and implementation of skills to specific situations (Blume, Ford, Baldwin, & Huang, 2010; Robinson, 1984; Trost, 1982). The following three sections of this chapter provide details of these activities in relation to the three sub-themes of resource mobilization, instructional design, and evaluation strategies.

Resource Mobilization

Resources in the context of this study encompass human, material, financial, and services, as illustrated in Table 8.

Table 8: Resources Deployed for Training

Human resources: consultant, instructors, trainees, and coordinators.
Material resources: teaching and learning aids, computers, and office suppliers.
Financial resources: funds from the COL.
Services: security, internet, lodging and boarding, and transportation.

As the Baldwin and Ford (1988) model indicates, a successful implementation of training begins with well-defined training inputs encompassing trainees' abilities, personalities, and motivation. Per the above classification, the characteristics listed for trainees fall directly under the human resource group. Findings revealed that trainees' minimum qualification ranged from a Diploma in Basic Education (3%) to a Doctoral degree (3%). In between were those holding a

B.Ed (47%), an MA in Educational Administration (20%), and an M.Ed (27%). In consequence, trainees' selection was based on characteristics such as the ability to learn, assimilate, and transfer leadership concepts vis-à-vis their qualifications. It was also believed that for a trainee to attain one of the noted qualifications, pass an interview to become a certified headteacher or school principal, and manage a school for a considerable period, there was little doubt such a trainee had the capacity to successfully complete the training. Trainees enlistment was thus carried out cautiously, ensuring that Baldwin and Ford's (1988) characteristics were reasonably well observed. As one coordinator acknowledged:

> When plans were well developed enough for the program to commence, I sent standardized letters to various regional Directors of Education through the district Directors in designated areas for each to nominate at least two headteachers to participate in the training. Accordingly, the district Directors did due diligence and selected qualified trainees across the 14 districts constituting 5 regions of the country.

It could, therefore, be concluded that trainees were selected taking into consideration their abilities or aptitudes, motivation, and personality, as outlined in Baldwin and Ford's (1998) organizing framework. A comprehensive review of literature on specific trainee characteristics further revealed that trainees with high self-efficacy (Ford, Quinones, Sego, & Sorra, 1992) and good interpersonal relationships (Cyr, 1993; Warr & Bunce, 1995) are more likely to apply trained tasks on the job. Self-efficacy, for instance, is an essential trainee characteristic feature in the sense that it bolsters the headteachers confidence and ability to exert control over a wide variety of issues including their own motivation, behaviour, and social environment. Bandura (1997), for example, emphasizes the point that the ability to succeed in specific situations or accomplish a task depends on the efficacy on individuals. Consequently, a trainee's

characteristics is an essential factor for consideration in future leadership trainings similar to the

COL-MUN program.

Findings illustrate that trainers for the COL-MUN leadership development training

program were personnel holding top management positions, who were enlisted from different

training institutions in West Africa. In addition to their high degree of expertise and long

experience in school leadership and management, findings show that, prior to the program,

trainers went through rigorous preparation under the tutorage of MUN consultants. This

preparation included co-development of the Training Manual (TM) content to maximize the

impact of the program. Even though Baldwin and Ford (1988) do not address successful trainer

characteristics, as they do for trainees, their framework does serve as a reliable guide and the

organizers of the program ensured that trainers' personalities, capacities, and motivation were

supportive of the program objectives. Recent research has shown that trainee engagement (e.g.

feeling involved, enthused, and energized by the training), and transfer intentions are greatly

influenced by the trainer's presentation and delivery style (Rangel et al., 2015). Regarding

practices that trainers should utilize in order to ensure successful skill transfer, Broad and

Newstrom (1992) recommend the provision of realistic work-related assignments during training

sessions. Such relevant assignments were evidently used throughout the program by the trainers.

With respect to the selection procedure for trainees, the obvious challenge was the huge

headteacher population from which only a small percentage was to be enlisted. This problem

resulted in underrepresentation of the 5 regions from which trainees were selected, as illustrated

in Table 1 in Chapter 4. Moreover, findings indicated that out of the six trainers who participated

in the Trainer of Trainers (TOT) sessions in The Gambia, only three took part in the workshop

organized in Ghana. The 50% shortage created a deficiency in program delivery because their

inclusion could have improved the instructor-trainee ratio as well as diversified and enriched

methodological options to achieve the full benefit of the training. Research on the trainer/trainee

ratio and its effects on implementation processes is, however, limited.

Although the COL provided financial assistance to cover all training related expenses, the

amount proved to be inadequate and therefore posed a limitation on the number of trainees

enlisted. In addition, the anticipated second phase of the program which was planned to cover the

remaining five regions in the northern sector of Ghana did not occur. Other challenges revealed

in this research include internet connectivity, and insufficient availability of personal computers

and software to design and bring the web-based leadership development training program into

reality. In relation to the broader objectives of the COL-MUN leadership training program,

therefore, the aforesaid deficiencies were major challenges. The difficulty of meeting all the

program objectives was acknowledged by a coordinator:

> The objective of the program was to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and
>
> experiences of managing primary and secondary schools for headteachers and school
>
> principals, and to provide an opportunity for continuing professional development to
>
> school managers. These objectives, per our observation, were not achieved thereby
>
> posing a challenge for trainees' skills application and effectiveness.

It could be interpreted from the above that the program lacked successful implementation in

terms of resource mobilization. Future planners of leadership development training programs

need to consider these challenges and adopt appropriate strategies to identify and alleviate

material constraints on program implementation to the greatest possible extent.

Instructional Design

Leadership skills implementation was a major objective in the COL-MUN program,

without which trainees could not implement or bring about a change to their schools. Simply

described, implementation is the 'endgame' of training (Salas et al., 2012). However, before

implementation of skills can possibly occur, training and learning materials must be learned and

assimilated (Kirkpatrick, 1994). This, in turn, depends largely on the methodology trainers

employ in the training process. Supportive of Kirkpatrick's (1994) assertion, both trainees and

trainers concurred that the instructional strategies adopted by the trainers, promoted learning,

retention, and implementation of skills, as illustrated in Tables 3, 4, and 6 in Chapter 4. Though

successful in general, the whole instructional design and delivery process was not without real

challenges which consequently affected assimilation, retention, and implementation.

Findings relating to the sub-theme *instructional design* revealed many of these

challenges. Some of the challenges were captured in a report presented by one of the

coordinators:

> It was obvious that the richness of the workshop material could not be exhausted in one
>
> week of five working days. It was therefore hoped that follow-up workshops could be
>
> planned for those who have had their first session. Alternatively, due to the rich content
>
> of the … material, participants requested … to convert the program into a distance mode
>
> post-graduate certificate of six to twelve-month duration. …. The curriculum could be
>
> enriched with other components like ICT and practical work. The aim … is to afford
>
> present and future heads of schools the opportunity to derive maximum benefit from the
>
> material.

Other challenges trainers reported included short duration of the training, insufficient

training resources, and problems with teaching methodology, as can be observed in the following

statement: "time was too short to cover the content. Participants thus became exhausted and

could not absorb the content well." Trainees reinforced the above challenges by stating, "lack of

training resources and/or support, lack of sufficient time to practice skills during training

sessions, and the difficulty in understanding leadership theories in order to link concepts to

reality." These assertions were affirmed by the Ghanaian consultant when he noted, "Concerns

were raised about the inclusion of research materials in the manual. They thought the manual

was for trainers and so there was no need including research evidence as further reading for

trainees." In total, challenges that findings revealed in this study comprise time constraints to

fully learn and practice course content, resource and financial inadequacy, lack of support for

continuity, difficulty in understanding leadership concepts underpinning the entire program, and

methodology improvement. Most of the challenges as observed in this study in relation to

instructional strategies have direct effects on trainee learning capacities and the overall

implementation processes. Nonetheless, these challenges can be corrected to improved future

leadership development programs. Apart from research materials that were included in the

training manual and against which trainees complained, it became clear from the findings in this

study that the program designers got it right by co-developing the content using local materials.

It remains the case, however, that the instructional design requires further improvement for

future leadership development training like the COL-MUN initiative.

Evaluation Strategies

Evaluation has been defined by various scholars, but the definition considered best for

this study is offered by Alkin (1968):

> The process of first identifying and then quantifying or measuring the relationships
>
> between training inputs and training outputs and determining the combination of
>
> mediating factors which maximizes the training outputs, given a constant financial input
>
> and controlling for the effects of external systems (Alkin,1968, p. 1).

This definition fits perfectly into this study because it recognizes evaluation as a process that involves the identification of many factors that contribute to educational or training outputs. A core objective of the COL-MUN program was to improve the leadership capacity (training output) of trainees.

Findings revealed that, throughout the training, several evaluation strategies were employed to determine whether the training objectives were achieved. This was accomplished by determining trainees' understanding of leadership concepts and skills they learned. The evaluation strategies and outcomes measured are illustrated in Table 4 in Chapter 4. However, no post-training evaluation system was put in place to determine the impacts of the training on trainees, as confirmed by the Ghanaian consultant, "No formal evaluation has been carried out after the program to determine the impact of the training on trainees except the usual assessment procedures interspersed in training sessions and those carried out immediately after the training." Another objective of the COL-MUN program was to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and experiences regarding school management. According to trainers, this objective was not achieved because no evaluation mechanism was developed after the program to fulfil the anticipated post-workshop online support system – a system that would have allowed trainees to access information or link up with instructors, consultants, and peers. Proponents of skills-based training, such as Baldwin & Ford (1998), suggest that properly designed and implemented leadership programs play not only a valuable role in competency development but also in the outcomes and impacts that are realized thereafter. Reflecting on the broader perspective, *challenges associated with leadership training programs in Ghana*, and the specific research question, *What are the successes and challenges after the program implementation?* findings in this study show considerable room for improving program implementation in relation to

resources mobilized, the instructional design trainers employed, and the evaluation strategies used during and after the program. For similar programs to be successful in future, these key areas must be seriously considered and addressed by adopting improvement approaches.

Factors that Influence Implementation of Leadership Training to Workplaces

As noted earlier, one of the purposes of this study was to explore socio-cultural factors that influence the implementation of theories and skills learned during leadership training programs to workplaces and, thereby, help facilitate planning for future interventions. Findings obtained in respect of research questions, *Through what process do participants plan to implement this learning to their schools? and What factors influence this implementation process?* helped in exploring socio-cultural factors that influence the implementation of theories and skills. To that effect, findings revealed most of these factors could be categorized under three broad themes comprising, *transferability strategies, responsiveness to change, and sustainability strategies*. These core concepts helped in determining successes and failures of the COL-MUN leadership program in terms of skills and knowledge trainees acquired and the possible ways they intended to carry the implementation process. Findings explicated in these core concepts further produced six sub-themes that potentially influence implementation of leadership training Skills, Knowledge, and Abilities (SKAs) to workplaces: (a) cultural influence, (b) working conditions, (c) support for implementation, (d) creating opportunity for practice, (e) external influence, (f) and resistance to change.

Implementation of learning skills to workplaces has received increased focus in modern literature (e.g., Blume et al., 2010; Homklin et al., 2014; Saks & Burke-Smalley, 2014; Salas et al., 2012). In reviewing transfer and implementation of training research, for instance, Homklin et al. (2014) defined transfer as "the extent to which a change in behaviour has occurred because the trainees attended the program, and it is measured (assessed) in the workplace" (p. 118). In

previous studies, Baldwin and Ford (1998) explained transfer of training as the application, generalization, and maintenance of learning, trained skills, and behaviours from the training environment to the work environment. Some scholars have argued that implementation cannot take place without learning (Kirkpatrick, 1994), and others have shown empirically that learning has a direct impact on implementation of skills (Liebermann & Hoffmann, 2008). These assertions presuppose that trainees who participated in the COL-MUN leadership training had to acquire SKAs at training sessions before they could implement them at their workplaces in accordance with local conditions. Findings in this research confirmed that the pedagogical and evaluation strategies employed by instructors partially elicited learning, retention, and implementation of leadership skills as illustrated in Tables 5 and 6 in Chapter 4. Both trainees and trainers concurred that the training was useful to the extent that trainees' perception levels were heightened, and demonstrated adequately their desire to implement the skills. This observation is consistent with earlier assertions that when trainees retain training content, they are more likely to perceive that they have implemented the training to the work context (Velada, Caetano, Michel, Lyons, & Kavanagh, 2007).

The Baldwin and Ford (1998) transfer process model that partly informs this study includes three components of training inputs: trainee characteristics, training design, and work environment. Findings relating to pedagogy, evaluation, trainees' capabilities and motivation constitute the first two components of the inputs model. Interviews conducted in various schools to ascertain the level of support received by headteachers, challenges they faced, and opportunities available for them to apply the SKAs relate to the third component of the Baldwin and Ford (1988) model, the work environment. In fact, this study reveals several contextual factors that influenced the implementation process including cultural effects, working conditions,

support for implementation, the creation of opportunity for practice, structural flaws (external influence), and resistance to change. The section below gives further insight into how these factors affected the implementation efforts of headteachers at various school locations.

Cultural influence

In the Ghanaian context, culture is multi-dimensional and varies from one locality to another based on the beliefs and values the community upholds. Consequently, schools resonate with culture of the larger community ('macro-culture') where a school is located. In addition, individual schools have an internal culture ('micro-culture') that defines the culture of the school. Research evidence has shown that culture can affect the implementation of training skills and knowledge to the workplace (Tracey, Tannenbaum, & Kavanagh, 1995). In fact, in this context all trainees (100%) affirmed that cultural influence was a major challenge when applying the SKAs in their schools. For instance, one trainee commented:

> Most of the parents do not care about rules and regulations …, to them it is not out of place for a parent to enter a school compound whenever they wanted to do so and express their feelings. Just as you can frequently see these parents quarrelling and fighting in the open markets, they find it easy to extend same to our schools and cause mayhem. It is a culture ingrained in us and there is nothing anyone can do.

Common, culturally related challenges that trainees cited include drunkenness, child rearing practices, discrimination, school policy interference, parental attitude towards education, teachers' poor attitude to work, absenteeism, lateness, and so forth. According to Holton et al. (2003), cultural variations across organizations may disturb the impact of implementation processes even if support is given. Research has also shown that adherence to culture and values, subject traditions, and bureaucratic complexities are common factors that make educational reform difficult to be sustained after implementation (Hargreaves & Goodson, 2006). Moreover,

earlier research has illustrated that in situations where people have entrenched positions based on varied cultures and values, school change processes become more challenging (Deal & Peterson, 1999).

The COL-MUN leadership development training program was motivated by the desire to expose trainees to different leadership styles, sharpen their leadership skills, and equip them with the appropriate school management practices that will help them to deal with such cultural dynamics. It was thought that beneficiary headteachers could create inviting learning environments as they adapt and practice the new leadership skills they learned. On the contrary, findings from this study indicated that cultural-driven factors, such as the aforesaid, inhibited the implementation process and, as a consequence, trainees who started applying their new skills often experienced a considerable relapse in progress.

As noted in the introduction section, leadership practices in Ghana are influenced by several socio-cultural factors some of which were documented in this study. This could be attributed to the collectivist nature of Ghanaian society (Hofstede, 1997). Within this cultural framework, people accept the fact that they were born into extended families and have been integrated into cohesive ingroups in which individuals continue to protect each other in exchange for reciprocal loyalty. From this perspective, many teachers, students, and other members of the school system see themselves as equals. Oftentimes, what pertains in communities is replicated at workplaces without setting any organizational expectations or limitations. Consequently, a teacher, for instance, would not care about drinking before going to school because he or she believes the people at school share the same values. Again, going to school late or being absent from school without permission is considered normal because a teacher, for instance, believes the problems that accounted for the lateness are common and comprehensible. A formal leader

must, therefore, understand and sympathize with such behaviour and without making judgemental queries. Management in this kind of social context is based on management of groups not individuals and preserving relationships prevails over performing tasks. This aspect of school life is markedly different to what prevails in the Western world. In this social circumstance, teachers, students, and staff members of most school settings often flout rules and regulations with impunity because of the normative way most Ghanaian are socialized. It is extremely difficult for the vast majority of formal leaders within this cultural context to deal decisively with unprofessional behaviours primarily due to the core principle they uphold that harmony at the workplace should always be maintained and, as much as possible, direct confrontations avoided. With this cultural understanding in mind, it might be instructive to note that future leadership training programs should be planned such that the content reflects on these cultural dynamics and that methodologies and case studies, in particular, focus more on equipping trainees with the necessary skills to manage them effectively.

Working conditions

A clear majority of trainees (87%) reported that working conditions were not favourable and worked against the implementation of SKAs they acquired during the five-day training program. More specifically, trainees reported an unavailability of curriculum materials, a lack of modern infrastructure, low salary schemes, and insufficient support from both their employer (i.e., the GES), and the community in which they worked. Previous studies that support these findings demonstrated that trainees' responsiveness to change are predicated on adequate resources available in the workplace, support to apply the skills, and removal of barriers of transfer (Chen & Klimoski, 2007; Lim & Johnson, 2002). Studies have also confirmed that unfavourable working conditions such as increasing workloads due to education reform, low and infrequent compensation, lack of professional recognition and development opportunities, lack of

accountability, and lack of voice increasingly demotivates teachers. In turn, this results in

deteriorating teaching performance and reduced student learning outcomes, high rates of

absenteeism, and misconduct (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007; Guajardo, 2011; Moon, 2007).

More recently, Wolf (2016) observe that such critical working conditions may be particularly

serious in conflict-affected countries, where limited resources coupled with historic and/or

endemic violence can severely affect teaching conditions. Studies into transfer of training have

similarly revealed that environmental factors at work are important for understanding transfer

processes and can affect program implementation (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Blume et al., 2010;

Pham, Segers, & Gijselaers, 2012).

As stated previously, due to inequality in regional distribution of developmental projects

by colonial rulers and subsequent governments, several communities in Ghana lack basic social

amenities, internet connectivity, and infrastructure improvements that are required to stimulate

effective teaching and learning. The acute deficiency of material supports that has created such

conditions has, in fact, stifled most schools in the country especially those in rural communities

(Wolf, 2016). This phenomenon may partially explain why learning outcomes at both junior and

senior high levels in rural communities have been deteriorating (Ministry of Education, 2015).

Depending on the location of schools, different headteachers and school principals experience

varied socio-cultural challenges. Overcoming such conditions may require enhanced, nuanced,

and Afro-centric leadership capabilities. Even though the COL-MUN program was co-developed

by country representatives and MUN leadership experts who were cognizant of social conditions,

methodologies adopted in delivering the content and available learning resources could not

support full implementation, adaptation, and practice of skills learned. Findings, for example,

demonstrate that trainee desire to implement the SKAs was high in the sense that most of them

initiated programs immediately after they returned from the training sessions. As one trainee

acknowledged, "I immediately started implementing what I learned from the training by

mentoring my teachers. I also changed my previous bad leadership practices and adopted new

styles." Nonetheless, their enthusiasm often fizzled out due to unfavourable working conditions,

lack of support, and other factors. As noted by one headteacher trainee:

> I was so enthused to change the status quo when I returned from the training by
>
> introducing new practices in my administration. Due to excessive workload and other
>
> factors, I rarely had time to evaluate my own initiatives. I could therefore not continue
>
> what I planned doing and by now, it looks like I have come back to square one."

Many trainees went on to recount their working conditions in statements such as: "my school is

in the centre of the city with no security walls …, we frequently experience theft cases which are

an affront to our progress…. Insecurity is our major challenge" or "…most of the teachers

engage in one extra job or the other to supplement their scanty salaries creating lateness and

absenteeism problems" and "lack of financial support and general bad working conditions make

our work difficult. Being a leader, sometimes I lose courage and motivation to practice what I

think is right and will promote learning."

The above noted observations resonate with the Baldwin and Ford (1998) assertion that

the maintenance of training decreases if not practiced immediately in good working conditions.

Maintenance of training was described as the length of time that trained skills and behaviours

continue to be used on the job. Similar studies have confirmed that only a small portion of what

is learned in training is ultimately applied on the job (Ford & Weissbein, 1997; Grossman &

Salas, 2011). As to what contributes to this small part of skill transfer, Baldwin and Ford (1988)

explained that decreases in the use of SKAs on the job could be attributed to several factors

including skill decrements over time, a lack of motivation to use the skills, constraints in the

work environment, or a lack of rewards for using the skills. It is important, therefore, that

organizers of future leadership trainings should not ignore the fact that working conditions are

critical for teachers and headteachers, both professionally and personally, in order to improve

their capabilities and effectiveness in the school system. Lack of investment in leadership

development and failure to account for differences in ability and school quality across the

country are detrimental to school progress. For this reason, a strong collaboration with the

government and other agencies for material resource investments in education to facilitate skill

practice after training is critical. Additionally, individual decisions relating to school and

leadership qualities should not be exogenous to the daily realities of principals' lives but

grounded in local working conditions.

Implementation support

Besides cultural influence and working conditions as discussed above, findings in this

study also revealed that most trainees did not get support from co-workers who predominantly

were teachers and support staff. Co-worker support has generally been described as the extent to

which employees in an organization support the use of learning on the job (Holton, Bates, Seyler,

& Carvalho, 1997; Russ-Eft, 2002). In the context of a decentralized educational framework,

such support to the headteacher should not only be limited to teachers within a school but must

extend beyond the school borders to cover the entire community from where students are

admitted, various authorities along the educational hierarchy, and the government through its

districts and municipal assemblies. Support from these stakeholders is crucial from the point of

view that schools are open-systems that cannot strive on their own. Sheppard et al. (2009) gives

credence to the assertion that school is an open-system, arguing that a school leader is an

individual who occupies a middle management position always striving to satisfy various

stakeholders who mostly are parents, students, teachers, and leaders at various positions within

the educational structure. The school administrator thus needs support from these different

groups in order to work effectively or practice skills learned during INSET and other leadership

development programs like the COL-MUN program. In keeping with positive aspects of social

context, Hawley and Barnard (2005) provide instances of co-worker support that help augment

the headteacher's efforts. Such support includes teachers' ability and willingness to help the

headteacher to set achievable learning goals, to give assistance in terms of supervision, and to

offer positive feedback. The above-mentioned suggestions by Hawley and Barnard are applicable

in the Ghanaian context, but there are additional support and services, from the socio-cultural

point of view, that if rendered by teachers would have encouraged the headteachers to adapt and

practice the skills they learned. As an example, a headteacher in Ghana needs adequate support

from his or her stakeholders to accomplish tasks such as engagement with parents to deal with

child welfare, issues of conflict resolution and disciplinary actions, among others. It was

observed from this study that most headteachers say they leave school completely burned-out

due to excessive workload coupled with external pressures. Some of them preferred to maintain

the status quo rather than introducing and continuing with new practices they were not sure

would help improve their leadership styles or would end up increasing their burden and

compound their stress. It was obvious that trainees required support from fellow teachers and

remaining stakeholders to achieve goals for which the COL-MUN program was initiated. In most

cases, however, the anticipated support was not forthcoming as noted in multiple trainee

responses.

One headteacher asserted, "Most school programs were planned from the top and pushed

down for implementation by school heads. …, …teachers just concentrate on instructional

activities with little attention paid to other school issues." In addition, trainees reported persistent

destructive behaviours their teachers exhibited and which they deemed were unfavourable for

school development. The most problematic teacher behaviours that headteachers reported were

lack of discipline, drunkenness, absenteeism, lateness, and resistant to change. Reports suggested

that constant exposure to such behaviours frustrated most trainees, rendering them burned-out at

the end of the day, and the majority did not have the courage or fortitude to continue practicing

what they had learned from training.

Nonetheless, many of the trainees had interest in and partially began practicing

participatory leadership and collective decision making immediately after they returned from

training sessions, though relapse set in because of misunderstanding of the concepts, uncertainty,

and a sense of insecurity on the part of other individuals involved. Consistent with Hofstede's

(1997) culture software of the mind theory, Ghanaians exhibit strong uncertainty avoidance

characteristics. They tend to interpret what is different as dangerous. Accordingly, charging

teachers and other people in the school system with leadership responsibilities and involving

them suddenly in decision making were practices that most constituents could not readily

endorse. Findings also indicated that some of the teachers were not prepared to share their views

with other colleagues when it was time for collective decision-making, a phenomenon consistent

with Homklin et al's. (2014) assertion that some peers at the workplace might be reluctant to

share their knowledge and skills. As an example, a trainee reported:

> At meetings, teachers found it extremely difficult to share their views or contribute freely
>
> to discussions. I perceived their reluctance to mean so many things including the fact that
>
> whatever they said would not be considered because that had been the norm. I tried to
>
> encourage them that the status quo had changed, but only a few trusted me and opened

up. I respected the views of those few who contributed in decision-making to encourage

others to talk but it has not worked the way I wanted. I am still trying.

The COL-MUN program sought to introduce participatory leadership models, collective decision

making, and other modern approaches to leadership. These leadership approaches were not part

of the existing school-administration framework. As such, the trainers were introducing

something entirely new compared to what the social system of schools was familiar with. It

appears likely that any such sudden change would be resisted based on factors which have

already been discussed. It is for this reason support is needed from all quarters of the educational

milieu. This change has to be embraced first by the educational authorities, and mechanisms set

in place to ensure it gradual and systematic implementation for sustainability to be assured. At

the manual development stage in Banjul, strategies for program continuity and sustainability

were considered, but due to lack of financial and material resources, those arrangements did not

materialize, as acknowledged by the Ghanaian consultant:

> The headteachers needed continuous support in practicing the skills they learned
>
> but we do not have that in place. The initial arrangement was that a web-based
>
> tutorial system would be established to form an integral part of the leadership
>
> development programs but that wonderful plan did not materialize for some
>
> tangible reasons.

Empirical studies on the importance of co-worker support regarding implementation of

SKAs are consistent with findings in this study. For example, Homklin et al. (2014) observe that

trainees who had high support from co-workers demonstrated much more behavioral change on

the job. Social support has also been confirmed to influence implementation of learning (Holton,

Bates, & Ruona, 2000; Pham et al., 2012). Most of the above-mentioned studies were, however,

conducted in industrial settings where employees mostly do similar jobs at confined places and are capable of offering support to each other as well as giving positive feedback. These settings are unlike those occupied by participants in this study. This study, as such, offers insight into the importance of co-worker support for knowledge implementation in professional educational settings. Findings in this study thus open possibilities for further investigation into several variables such as stakeholder support and how these variables affect formal leadership practices in education.

Creating opportunity for practice

Skills-based leadership development like the COL-MUN program are oftentimes tailored to allow individuals to gain knowledge and skills required to sharpen their current skills or develop new capacities. For effective implementation to be accomplished, trainees should be given ample opportunity and a level ground to practice what they learned. Also, all barriers that might inhibit the implementation process ought to be removed insofar as possible. The pedagogical strategies employed by trainers partly allowed trainees to practice theoretical concepts to which they were introduced. After training, however, they had few opportunities that would have promoted continuous practice. For instance, the anticipated establishment of a web-based platform where trainees could have consulted and discussed individual leadership issues with peers, consultants, and trainers did not materialize. This opportunity could have allowed for practice and ownership of the skills that trainees learned, as one headteacher lamented:

> The training should have continued… Whenever I was confronted with difficult administrative issues, I couldn't get help from anybody. Meanwhile, everybody in the school looked up to me for a solution. I wish there was a platform where I could consult my peers easily to share common problems.

Other studies of best practice for implementing leadership skills reveal findings similar to those observed in this study. For example, Saks and Burke-Smalley (2014) conclude that organizations might not realize the benefits of training for improvement if those in authority do not ensure that the trained knowledge and skills are used on the job. In school settings, provision of discussion rooms, frequent meetings with clusters of headteachers to share leadership concepts, and online tutorials may have been enough to allow headteachers to reinforce their skills. As one trainee illustrated, "I always tried practicing what we learned, but sometimes I failed and had no other place to turn for help. My only source of help was the circuit supervisor who occasionally was handicapped in most of the problems I presented." The originator and program consultant affirmed:

> The headteachers needed continuous support in practicing the skills they learned but we do not have that in place. Apart from the written and oral evaluation strategies which the instructors adopted during and immediately after the workshop, there has not been any follow-up evaluation or support program.

One trainer also reinforced, "The majority of trainees requested continuity of the program and some of them recommended the training to be run as a diploma course in training institutions." In line with this recommendation, Homklin et al. (2014), among others, observe that chat room discussions could be utilized by employees to improve training implementation claiming that such discussions can be used to share training ideas and goals, to discuss barriers to implementation, and to provide positive reinforcement. Previous studies that support findings in this research have argued that a very small proportion of what is learned in training is ultimately applied on the job if trainees are not given the opportunity to practice what they learned (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Burke, 2001; Ford & Weissbein, 1997; Grossman & Salas, 2011).

Additionally, studies on appropriate strategies to enhance implementation of learning suggest

overlearning as an ideal strategy that possibly can ensure continuous practice of skills trainees

learned at leadership training sessions (McGehee & Thayer, 1961). Overlearning is explained as

the process of providing trainees with continued practice far beyond the point when the task has

been performed successfully. Empirical studies suggest that the greater the amount of

overlearning, the greater the subsequent retention of the training materials (Hagman & Rose,

1983; Mandler, 1954) but unfortunately, this is not what happened in connection with this

program. Research has also suggested that for an implementation of training to be enhanced,

organizations should "focus more on creating an environment that enhances co-worker support,

at least in the short term but for the longer term, organizations must improve the quality of other

types of support to more effectively exploit the opportunities for training transfer" (Homklin et

al., 2014, p. 116). These assertions are consistent with findings revealed in this study.

External influence

In this study, findings demonstrated that all trainees experienced external influence - a

phenomenon which discouraged the majority to practice leadership skills they learned. Several

factors are attributable to this peculiar phenomenon of external influence, but the discussion is

focused mainly within the context of education decentralisation in developing countries. In

Ghana, the decentralization policy stipulates that basic education be "…, made accountable to

local level authorities with development and operational responsibilities transferred from central

government to the districts, …" (Government of Ghana, 2000, p. 35). This grand provision,

however, does not work in a manner that supports headteachers in execution of their duties.

Decentralisation offers numerous benefits but this will not form part of the current discussion.

The demands it places on headteachers, as pointed out by (Chapman, 2000), will rather be the

central focus.

The literature presents education decentralisation in developing countries as burdened by bureaucratic bottlenecks, reflecting a reluctance to allow lower levels of government complete autonomy over administrative and resource management (De Grauwe et al., 2005; Tikly, 1996; World Bank, 2001). Moreover, it has been concluded that decentralisation does not mean a relinquishing of all forms of control from the central government or administration to the local level (De Grauwe et al., 2005). As Kataoka (2006) points out, even in contexts where devolution of roles and responsibilities are intended, central governments have continued to exercise control and oversight of many responsibilities devolved in principle to local government. Initiatives to decentralise school governance, for example, often leave out crucial decision-making responsibilities such as the power to allocate resources for context-specific needs. A telling example in Ghana is the introduction of capitation grants for schools to manage their own affairs. Its provision is mostly based on a uniform allocative formula usually determined at the national level. Another influencing situation is the relationship that exists between elected local authorities and education offices. De Grauwe et al. (2005) note that the relationship between local actors and education officials is usually characterised by conflict rather than collaboration. Crucially, their different legitimacies are in confrontation: education officials refer to their professional legitimacy, while local authorities emphasize their political legitimacy. In effect, each group exercises some level of legitimacy and power in decision-making leaving the headteacher helplessly in-between to abide and work in satisfaction of all these parties.

Traditionally, most district education offices have been responsible for school inspection, mainly to check teachers' lesson plans, teacher and pupil attendance records, and so on (Fobih, Akyeampong, & Koomson, 1999). Headteachers are accountable to district and municipal directors through circuit supervisors and other ancillary staff who exercise such supervisory

roles. Moreover, the academic calendar and several other school programs are usually planned on top of the educational hierarchy and forwarded for implementation downstream with little or no input from local actors. Studies also indicate that rarely do district education offices respond to information from monitoring and evaluation reports on problems of teacher absenteeism and poor enrolments (Akyeampong & Asante, 2006; World Bank, 2004). These complexities and weaknesses within environments in which decentralization is introduced produce outcomes that influence leadership practices. For instance, the reluctance to devolve critical decision-making to local agencies and actors reflects, to an extent, the deep-seated hierarchical relationship between central and local government that resists change to shift power and control away from the centre.

Within this context and from what was observed in this study, the culture of accountability, top-down structural arrangement, and imposed education policies pose not only a restriction on headteachers functions, but also interferes in their policy formulation. This sense of interference is demonstrated in a headteacher's response:

I am always under severe pressure which is driving me crazy. I do not even have time to come up with my own initiatives, and every decision my teachers and I took had to go through intense scrutiny by the school board and district education officials. As I talk to you now, if I get a call from any of my superiors to leave immediately to a certain place, there will be no other option than to leave everything and go. As administrators, our authority is confined to our office – we have no power to discipline anybody. This limitation partially explains the persistent and destructive behaviours most teachers exhibit.

All trainees (100%) reported external pressure emanating from the district directorate in one

form or another. A headteacher who manages a basic school in Accra lamented how the district

education office pressurizes her responsibilities and imposes work on her:

> I do not even have time to do my administrative work let alone plan for my teachers.
>
> Today you are called to attend a meeting in the district office …, tomorrow you are
>
> required to bring report to the office, … another day you are instructed to implement a
>
> program from the regional office …, everything we do comes from above…, and a whole
>
> lot of instructions. The situation is unbearable and you don't even have time to work out
>
> things by yourself.

To explore ways these external influences can be mitigated, trainees offered the following

approaches: responsibility sharing among stakeholders, collective decision making, adoption of

distributive leadership model, sharing of problems with district level leadership, school

management education involving stakeholders, and frequent meetings where headteachers and

teachers' views would be heard and forwarded to those at the top for consideration. A

headteacher in Accra metropolis specifically suggested:

> Headteachers should be given the chance to operate. I am not asking for complete
>
> autonomy but the school authorities should listen to us and accept our suggestions…The
>
> children are different from school to school in terms of culture and socio-economic
>
> background and therefore, teachers should be given ample room to design programs and
>
> policies that are contextually relevant. In fact, the flow of information has always been in
>
> one direction, top-downward approach, and not the other way around. This trend should
>
> be curtailed.

Another headteacher noted, "We are not given the chance to operate at all. Policies are always formulated from the top and pushed down our (headteachers) throats to implement hook-line-and-sinker."

These statements attest to the fact that headteachers who participated in the COL-MUN program experienced external pressures in their efforts to implement what they learned. In the main, developing a country-wide education system to press forward with decentralisation has not readily devolved power and control over education management, financial administration, and teacher management at the local level. Future leadership development programs should be designed to address this lack of local agency as an inherent shortcoming of the current school system.

Resistance to change

Findings in this research reveal that most trainees experienced considerable teacher resistance to the changes they attempted to initiate after completing the training program. Trainees noted that teacher resistance to change is often caused by mistrust, cultural beliefs, conservative attitudes by teachers and other stakeholders, poor working conditions, financial constraints, and the problem of ambiguity emanating from the fact that most teachers simply did not understand why and for what purpose certain changes are initiated. As an example, one headteacher recounted an experience of mistrust:

> Like any other human being, my teachers found it difficult to accept my new perspectives… Some were even surprised that I had changed suddenly and would not believe me. They thought I was up to something else. When it came to child punishment, I changed my strategy and tried to investigate why that child erred in the first place to get insight into the child's social problems. A lot of teachers thought I was wasting time and rather wanted that instant justices were meted out to children who offended.

Leadership experts describe this phenomena as 'degeneration', which implies that many experienced teachers, after some time in the same position, mature a particular set of attitudes and routines as their practices harden along with their arteries (Labaree, 2006). Several studies in other jurisdictions reveal similar resistance because of a number of factors: teachers' past experiences with educational reform (Hargreaves & Goodson, 2006); teachers not ready to work as a team or to discuss issues about trust (Senge, 2006), and; problems associated with challenging socio-economic conditions (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). In response to the challenge of teacher resistance, Senge (2006) argues that it takes time to build up trust in co-workers and win their support so that they become committed to whatever task you assign to them. Similarly, Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) assert that demographic variations and associated socio-economic factors come in different forms and these factors contribute to resistance in change initiatives if not well handled. Also, increased choices for after-school activities, the growth of part-time jobs that seem to take precedence over everything, study commitments, or plain apathy have been found responsible for the decline in school spirit and a concomitant resistance to change (Hargreaves & Goodson, 2006). Relatedly, Dubrin (2015) argues that additional activities which teachers engage in aside from their regular teaching work invariably supplant the usual commitment, zeal, dedication, and spirit that characterizes their career.

The various scenarios presented above concerning responses trainees provided about resistance to change can best be explained by the cultural norm of uncertainty avoidance. Accepting organizational change in countries like Ghana, that score high in uncertainty avoidance as demonstrated by Hofstede (1997), is problematic. Like most organizational problems, those within the educational system in Ghana have both structural and human aspects. The people involved (teachers, local educational authorities, etc.) react in accordance with their

mental software. Part of this mental software consists of people's ideas about what a school should be like and what practices are to be encouraged. Accordingly, I suggest they maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour and are intolerant of unorthodox behaviour and ideas. These inherent behaviours coupled with existing socio-cultural challenges may contribute to the apparent resistance that most teachers exhibited. The COL-MUN leadership development program aims at disseminating innovative knowledge and skills on school management that will enhance the professional skills and effectiveness of head teachers and principals of schools. Leadership improvement initiatives of this nature should not be an event where a headteacher attends a short-lived workshop, learns some skills, and immediately starts practicing the skills in the hope of changing the system – especially, under frustrating conditions where appropriate supports and resources are not forthcoming. Ideally, the change should be systematic and gradual with a special focus on providing positive social and material support for the change agents. Ghanaian education as a national institution should embrace the whole Afro-centric leadership concept and factor it into all programs with adequate support in terms of human and material resources. Other leadership development training institutions and agencies should also introduce the concept in all their programs, focusing on socio-cultural factors so that it becomes part of the mental software of everyone involved.

Leadership Development Policy Formulation and Procurement of Logistics

The previous discussion, especially issues relating to the main concepts, *transferability strategies, responsiveness to change and sustainability challenges,* and corresponding sub-themes suggest the need for the development of a detailed theoretically-based implementation plan if meaningful school leadership development in Ghana is to occur. This leads to an analysis and consideration of a new comprehensive theoretical framework as detailed below.

Theoretical Perspectives

In practice, no single leadership theory can be prescribed strictly to manage an institution. Moreover, the type of leadership model adapted may and should depend greatly on prevailing circumstances and the culture of the organization. In school settings, for instance, the application of a single theory may be enough and effective in one situation, whilst a combination of models has to be adapted to deal with a similar situation in another jurisdiction. The Hofstede (2005) "culture software of the mind" configuration asserts that culture determines how people operate and therefore, leaders need to be aware of their own cultural influence in the organizational culture and that of the people they lead. Within this context, different leadership theories should be explored in order to understand, appreciate, and address the organizational dynamics. Invariably, leaders' awareness and deep understanding of emerging leadership theories helps them to choose the best leadership practices that can promote change and increase organizational effectiveness.

The following theoretical frameworks were selected and used to inform this study and develop the current discussion: instructional leadership (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985), a concept signifying that the leader focuses more on teaching and thus engages in activities that have greater potential to impact on school and student outcomes; transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), a process by which leaders involve organizational members to create relational connections that raise their consciousness, commitment, capacities, self-interest, and fullest potential to contribute to the wellbeing of the organization beyond expectation; distributed leadership (Sheppard et al., 2009), a model that involves all members of the school community, rather than sole leadership approaches, or a concept that embraces leadership from within and outside the formal hierarchy, and; the transfer of learning (Baldwin & Ford, 1988) model, which postulates that there are three training-input factors that are important for transfer of training:

trainee characteristics, training design, and the work environment. According to Baldwin and Ford, these three factors along with trainee learning and retention are believed to most influence transfer.

As noted above, instructional leadership places emphasis on activities that directly improve educational outcomes. In recognition of this, the COL-MUN leadership training program incorporated the instructional leadership model, placing greater emphasis on the "broad" view which encompasses all leadership activities that affect student learning (Glatthorn, 1995; Glatthorn & Jailall, 2009; Sheppard, 1996). The prime objective for the inclusion of an instructional leadership framework in the program was to help participants conceptualize and model the three broad categories of instructional leadership activities, which Hallinger and Murphy (1985) propounded: that the leader defines the mission; manages the instructional program; and promotes positive school climate. The COL-MUN leadership training program was developed to align its objective with the assertion that leadership is context bound and exists within "the corridor of belief" which already exists in the followers (Foster, 1989, p. 29). Foster argues that if leadership is to be effective it must be validated by the consent of followers. It is from this perspective that the COL-MUN program incorporated activities that generally encouraged trainees to reflect on their beliefs, values, norms, principles, and respective cultures. Also, the framework was included in the program to enable participants to enact leadership practices that are appropriate for their own needs and in harmony with contemporary instructional leadership principles.

The findings show a significant improvement in trainees' understanding and practice of instructional leadership skills considered germane and central to their working conditions. Important skills that trainees identified in their reports were effective classroom supervision,

inspection of weekly forecast, records keeping, monitoring ability, team building, goal setting, communicating skills, coordinating, and time management, among others. These findings support Sheppard's (1996) claims that instructional leadership should be an integral part of the educational administration program in all educational faculties, and that professional development for school administrators should include an emphasis on the importance of the framework. Moreover, responses from trainees correlate with the observation that the inclusion of instructional leadership in educational programs will not only help potential leaders to understand the concept but will also influence a change of their own practices towards the achievement of quality student-learning experiences (Morrison, 2009).

Transformational leadership is a model in which the leader, while performing his or her daily duties, stimulates and inspires other members of the organization to create healthy relationships that help to achieve extraordinary outcomes. In addition, transformational leaders assist team players to develop their own leadership capabilities. The underlying assumption of transformational leadership is "raising the team players' level of consciousness and enabling them to transcend their own self-interest for the good of the organization [and] making them aspire to attain higher-level needs" (Bass, 1985, p. 20). Organizers of the COL-MUN program incorporated the transformational leadership model to raise the consciousness of participants through a systematic development and adaption of a training manual using local materials to improve teaching and learning as well as to render effective services.

This study established that trainees acquired individual skills and capacities relevant to their workplaces. Transformational leadership skills and capacities trainees reported include coaching, inspirational talks, emotional appeals, stimulating enthusiasm, arousing team spirit, teambuilding, soliciting new ideas, stimulating creativity, ability to conceptualize and

comprehend problems, analyzing ability, and mentoring, to mention just a few. Previous studies have linked transformational leadership with innovation (Al-Husseini & Elbeltagi, 2016; Kraft & Bausch, 2015); identity, motivation, and change (Margues, 2007); creativity (Henker, Sonnentag, & Unger, 2015); and generation of new ideas (Sosik, 2007).

Results from this study indicate that the transformational leadership skills trainees learned positioned most of them to become prospective change agents. A leader is someone who creates effective change in group performance and espouses vision to encourage new ideas and influence people in the organizations. Sergiovanni (1992) contends that transformational leaders build consensus among staff, promote teamwork, and place emphasis on the need for shared organizational values and culture. Similarly, McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) found that transformational leaders have a positive impact on follower's sense of optimism, which facilitates group performance. This is consistent with the representations of the headteachers in this study because most of them promoted teambuilding, mentoring, shared vision, and placed much emphasis on creativity, even though many experienced organizational relapse due to a general feeling of resistance from their teachers and to other factors.

The distributed leadership framework endorses the claim that schools are open systems and thus cannot be viewed as a collection of parts (Hoy & Miskel, 2011). The model embraces leadership from within and outside the formal hierarchy. A distributed leadership model was incorporated in the COL-MUN leadership program, the goal being to create awareness that leadership is enacted by multiple players and not just principals and their deputies. Findings from this study indicate that headteachers exhibited distributed leadership skills and capacities such as, co-leading, sharing ideas, collaboration, negotiating, promoting interdependency, collective decision making, and several others.

If stakeholders who have an impact are engaged in leadership focused on enhancing student learning, improvement is realized (Leithwood et al., 2004). Sheppard et al. (2009) observe that for schools to meet the learning and safety needs of all students, distributed leadership is a necessity, and governments, schools, communities, and parents must work jointly to bring a focus on fostering sustainable improvement in support of student learning and the provision of safe-caring schools. In this study, findings suggest that headteachers could not collaborate and share responsibilities with other parties of the school to the degree envisioned by the program due to socio-cultural consequences. The distributed leadership framework is rooted in the supposition that leadership of contemporary schools is too much for only one person to handle individually. This was the prime objective for planners of the program when they included the distributed leadership framework, but due to lack of support and other factors trainees say they could not practice this approach to leadership successfully.

Another framework that informed this study was the transfer of learning model postulated by Baldwin and Ford (1988). Baldwin and his associate proposed three training-input factors that are important for implementation of training: trainee characteristics, training design, and the work environment. Even though there have been several updates and extensions of the Baldwin and Ford model (e.g., Burke & Hutchins, 2008; Ford & Weissbein, 1997) this study placed emphasis on these three input factors, because empirical study has confirmed that both trainee characteristics (e.g., cognitive ability, conscientiousness, self-efficacy, motivation, and self-esteem,) and work environment factors (e.g., implementation climate, supervisor support) are positively related to transfer (Blume et al., 2010). In this study, the training-input factors were grouped under four broad categories as human, material, financial, and services.

Interestingly, findings in this research revealed that organizers of the COL-MUN program selected trainees based on their characteristics such as ability to learn, assimilate, and practice leadership theories as evidenced in their formal qualifications. Moreover, although the organizers' selection of both trainees and trainers did not follow any scientific procedure to determine their personality, the perception was that all trainees were mature individuals who possessed considerable experience in school management. Trainee enlistment was thus carried out cautiously, ensuring that the characteristics postulated by Baldwin and Ford (1988) were observed. This supports research evidence that trainees with high self-efficacy (Ford, Quiñones, Sego, & Sorra, 1992), and self-esteem, and good interpersonal relationships (Cyr, 1993; Warr & Bunce, 1995), are more likely to apply newly learned skills on the job.

Considering the fact that most African leaders exhibit autocratic forms of leadership that are characteristically fraught with incompetence and ethnically aligned inclinations (Fuller, Morrison, Jones, Bridger, & Brown, 1999; Kuada, 2010; Nwankwo & Darlington, 2001), leadership development initiatives like the COL-MUN program are vital to enable educational leaders to deviate from such practices. Also, providing leadership development through programs of this nature will not only offer trainees the opportunity to unweave the old-fashioned concepts that impede academic development but will also inspire them to take on practices that spur change and overall transformation of schools. While acknowledging that theoretical framework is essential and must be considered in every leadership development program as an underpinning component, it is equally important to emphasize that, for such programs to be successful and achieve their goals, they should be designed so that trainees have continuous support and practice. More importantly, socio-cultural context must continue to be considered and incorporated into leadership training programs to solve related challenges as cited in this

study. From a managerial standpoint, the results from this study suggest that leadership

development organizers should not assume that once a training program has been completed

trainees automatically transfer and practice the new skills they learned. Educational authorities

and supervisors need to give time, space, support, and relevant materials to headteachers, thereby

creating an enabling work environment. This is necessary in order that trainees maintain and

practice the acquired skills, knowledge, and abilities. Ideally, the maintenance and practice of

training skills should be designed into a framework that provides ongoing support for

headteachers, and further creates a synergy among various stakeholders and actors both at local

and national levels. This, to a much greater extent, will ensure continuous improvement and

sustainability of training initiatives.

Limitations of the Study

This study has several limitations that provide new directions for considering and

conceiving future research. First and foremost, travelling to individuals' workplaces to gather

data through questionnaires and, immediately following, through one-on-one interviews was a

major challenge. This challenge was heightened due to the dispersed nature of schools in rural

and sub-urban areas and the deplorable road networks in Ghana. In situations where roads were

accessible, the transportation and travel costs were often prohibitive, and in some instances the

respondent was no longer available to complete a questionnaire or grant a face-to-face interview

by the time the researcher arrived. In such circumstances, the researcher had to reschedule a

meeting or resort to a telephone interview. In most cases, the interviewee had to grant the

interview under rushed conditions, which unduly affected the quality of interview in terms of

follow-up discussions. Moreover, in circumstances where interviews had to be conducted via

telephone, the poor and unpredictable telecommunication networks created difficulty. In future,

undertaking a qualitative research study with a focus on questionnaires to be followed by

clarification interviews may demand that the researcher makes advance arrangements to meet respondents at a proximal point or spend the night closer to interviewees' workplaces. For this procedure to occur, however, considerably greater research funding would need to be available. Also, telephone interviews should be scheduled during the weekend when telephone traffic is lowest. The methodological literature confirms that by meeting participants in their own natural work settings, interviewees stand a better chance of feeling comfortable and are more likely to give ample information that, in most cases, helps provide richer answers to research questions (Griffee, 2005; Opdenakker, 2006).

Another limitation to this study is the sample size. In all, 36 participants were interviewed comprising 30 headteachers who benefited from the first leadership training program, three master trainers, two coordinators one of whom was a trainer, and two consultants (one from Ghana and another from MUN). Due to financial constraints, the second phase, aimed at covering the remaining five regions in the northern part of the country, could not be organized or conducted. Had this work proceeded as originally planned, the sample size would have been increased to enhance credibility and reliability of the study. As such, the study would have contributed a nation-wide picture of the impact of leadership training. Again, even in the first five regions that benefited, there was underrepresentation nationally in terms of districts from which trainees were enlisted for the leadership program and, then, participated in this study. Although, the researcher ensured that nearly all trainees participated in the questionnaire and interview process, the sample size was relatively small in comparison to the number of principals in the school system. The nature of this study, therefore, limits its transferabilty even within the Ghanaian context. It should be noted, however, that such is the case for all qualitative case

studies and readers are invited to assess for themselves the applicability of this study and its

findings for their particular context.

One other limitation was the time within which the survey was conducted. Research

confirms that it is not sufficient to measure the results of a training program only once (after the

program's completion), but to approach such research as a dynamic process that must be

performed periodically (for one year) after the completion of the program (Kirkpatrick &

Kirkpatrick, 2008). Directly related to this limitation was reliance on participants' long-term

recall of skills and events associated with qualitative studies (Creswell, 1998; Lincoln & Guba,

1986). The relative time to determine trainees' skills and capacities about the COL-MUN

program might have been too far in the past to generate reliable responses, constituting a

potential limitation. Events from the past may have been forgotten or reimagined, including

some germane experiences. Trainees and trainers thus reported only experiences they could

offhandedly recall. Therefore, future researchers' evaluation methodology should be carried out

at least a year after the program's completion and should be completed more than once as

indicated by Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2008).

Recommendations for Further Study

Prior research on African leadership has focused on comparative meanings and

connotations of leadership in African society (Bolden & Kirk, 2009), impact assessment

initiatives in sub-Saharan African countries (Bolden & Kirk, 2005; Wakahiu, 2011), profiles and

perceptions regarding problems of practice (Amakyi, 2010), and several other areas. This

qualitative case study fills the existing gap in the culture–leadership relationship literature and

forms a foundation for further empirical research: first, by exploring the challenges associated

with leadership training programs in Ghana; second, by determining socio-cultural factors that

influence implementation of leadership training to schools in an African context; and third, by

suggesting a leadership development framework that addresses such socio-cultural complexities and supports logistics procurement and training implementation principles.

Even though this study offers expanded theoretical insight on cultural and contextual factors relating to leadership in Ghana, several challenges may limit the transferability of observations made. Notable limiting factors are the relatively small sample size, transportation difficulties that affected survey execution and quality, and the fact that the surveys were conducted long after completion of the training program. A wider-reaching, better-funded, and longer-term replication of this study is recommended because data gathering was done in only a limited number of districts and thus regions were not equally represented. Future study with a larger sample covering all ten regions in Ghana and with equal representation would be beneficial.

A second recommendation relates to factors revealed in this study regarding transferability strategies, responsiveness to change, and sustainability challenges. Factors identified as influencing implementation of leadership skills include cultural effect, working conditions, support for implementation, creating opportunity for practice, external influence, and resistance to change. To better understand how these barriers impact on leadership enactment and practice in educational settings in the sub-Sahara African context, future research involving a larger sample and subjected to empirical inquiry is recommended. Alternatively, further studies involving high number of school-based case studies of the social and cultural factors influencing implementation would also shed light on the issue. This is because most studies in this field were conducted in industrial and other non-educational settings. Empirical evidence of the influence of each of these factors would be useful in creating an educational framework relevant to

overcoming cultural, economic, and social barriers of leadership development and

implementation of skills learned.

Finally, future research is recommended to determine the best instructional and

evaluation strategies that promote learning and retention of leadership skills as postulated by

Baldwin and Ford (1988). This recommendation is based on the premise that pedagogical

methodologies and evaluation strategies employed for the COL-MUN training were not

sufficient and the leadership skills elicited were not sustained, as is evident in this study.

Investigation in this regard is essential to develop an appropriate model that facilitates learning,

retention, implementation, and maintenance. As indicated in previous research, "Sub-Saharan

peoples are the only individuals who can effectively disentangle their cultural enmeshment by

choosing to adopt beliefs, values, and a meaningful leadership framework" (Wakahiu, 2011, p.

189). Considering the paucity in leadership literature about implementation of leadership skills

and capacities within the educational context in sub-Sahara Africa, the time is due for a

systematic study to develop an Afro-centric leadership framework to expand the body of

research literature in this field.

Implications of the Study

Responses from trainees, trainers, coordinators, and the Ghanaian consultant revealed

that the program was a worthwhile investment that yielded some positive outcomes and benefits

for headteachers and school principals who participated. The COL-MUN program served 30

headteachers in Basic schools within five regions and in 14 districts. As of 31st August, 2015, the

number of Junior High Schools (JHS) in Ghana by type of education and region was 13,840

(MOE, 2015). Supposing every JHS is manned by one headteacher, it means as of August 2015,

the number of headteachers in JHS stood at 13,840. According to the World Population Data

Sheet (WPDS, 2015), the estimated population of West Africa as of 2015 was 349 million people

and 949 million people for sub-Saharan region. Given these huge figures, it is imperative for more leadership training to be organized in order for impacts akin those obtained from the COL-MUN program to be felt. The benefits produced from the COL-MUN initiative had considerable impacts on headteachers through professional development and the execution of their duties. This is a clear indication that with relevant skills, knowledge, and abilities (SKAs), headteachers in sub-Sahara Africa can spur desired transformation in both private and public pre-tertiary educational institutions. With this in view, it is instructive to state that government and private training institutions can replicate and improve upon the COL-MUN training model to enhance leadership capacities in sub-Saharan Africa.

This research mainly interacted with headteachers in basic schools in Ghana to ascertain socio-cultural barriers of implementing leadership skills and explored possible ways to improve upon leadership skills and capacities. Findings revealed that building headteachers' leadership capacity can lead them to become effective and dynamic managers. Further, this study revealed that headteachers have the capacity to realize their mistakes and change towards new practices appropriate for school development. Engaging leaders in self-discovery exercises such as the COL-MUN initiative is vital because effective leadership is the second most important factor in student achievement after the quality of teaching (Leithwood et al., 2008). Considering the fact that in sub-Saharan Africa headteachers are mostly appointed to managerial positions without prior leadership training (Bush, 2008), engaging heads of schools in programs like the COL-MUN model could bring immeasurable benefits as shown in this study.

In addition, headteachers discovered their leadership weaknesses and accordingly attempted to change the status quo by adapting new managerial strategies that were germane and contextually appropriate. As per findings, the willingness to adapt and practice new leadership

strategies was obvious even though the required support was not available. The very few who made headway in implementing their new skills experienced some level of growth and improvement in students' performance in some schools. Even in the absence of successful implementation of all their training, trainees developed superior appreciation for teambuilding, participatory leadership, negotiating, networking, communication skills, and mentoring resulting in a new management paradigm relevant and central to sustainable school improvement. For instance, their new mentoring capacity helped most headteachers to pass on at least some of the skills they acquired in training to their co-workers.

Even though most trainees had a decrease in their motivation and the desire to implement what they learned due to lack of support and cultural related factors, the use of appropriate instructional strategies created tangible benefits and implementation of skills to the workplaces immediately after program completion. If supportive structures are set in place, the benefits of training programs like that of the COL-MUN program would be substantially increased. In this context, a curriculum and pedagogy for a leadership program should be tailored with a specific recognition of the trainees' work environment in order to provide the opportunity of the trainees to practice the skills as soon as they are learned.

Finally, trainees selected for any leadership program must be experienced and willing to serve as resource persons for subsequent training programs in order to fully harness the cascading effects of skill implementation. This opportunity will encourage others to learn and implement the leadership skills because their fellow headteachers would continue to serve as resource persons and share practical experiences to make the training culturally relevant and feasible.

Recommendation for Leadership Development

Findings in this study disclosed vital information which can be relied on for leadership development in Ghana and, if possible, extend to other sub-Sahara African countries with similar socio-cultural contexts. The need for leadership development in the sub-Saharan region has been expressed by previous researchers in varied forms and statements that included claims such as African leaders are ineffective (Bolden & Kirk, 2009; Kuada, 2010), there is dismal performance in institutions (Nwankwo & Darlington, 2001), and there is management ineptitude and poor staff motivation (Okpara & Wynn, 2007). In her study, Wakahiu (2011) noted, "These problems can be overcome by investing in leadership development to enhance progress in both the public and private sectors" (p. 208). Apparently, there exists a leadership problem in Ghana and most African countries, not only in schools but also in most sectors of the economy. The building of leadership capacity and graduation of trainees within a short period from the COL-MUN program indicate a possible way forward for the transformation of African leaders' attitudes, dispositions, values, beliefs, and behaviours. If more examples of such training are organized, the trickling effects may well facilitate a turnaround in educational institutions as well as providing benefits for organizational systems in general.

This study revealed many challenges that served as barriers to leadership enactment and practice. Designers of leadership development training programs must be aware of these bottlenecks, particularly the socio-cultural factors, and as much as possible tailor future trainings to address them. Well-organized leadership development programs are necessary and are a precondition for leaders in sub-Sahara Africa to realize and extricate the cultural, political, economic, and social ensnarls that impede development, thereby plunging the region into perpetual poverty. As well, leadership development agents need to be more attentive to the existing constraints in school administration to enable them more fully and practically to embed

relevant concepts, courses, and programs that would promote best practices and sharpen trainees'

leadership capacities.

Conclusions

This study sought to investigate and ascertain the progress of the COL-MUN web-based

leadership development program. Key to this investigation is understanding whether the master

trainers successfully implemented the program as planned and, if so, how it was implemented

and what did participants learn that would be applicable in their own working conditions.

Specifically, I intended to determine the successes and challenges, what participants learned,

their intentions and attempts to implement what they learned, and socio-cultural factors that

influenced the implementation process.

Findings revealed that the program was organized successfully and impacted, to a certain

degree, on headteachers skills, knowledge, and abilities. More specifically, trainees demonstrated

and attempted to implement transformational leadership skills (e.g., coaching skills, inspirational

talks, emotional appeals, stimulate enthusiasm, arouse team spirit, teambuilding, soliciting new

ideas, stimulate creativity, ability to conceptualize and comprehend problems, and so forth);

instructional leadership skills (e.g., classroom supervision, inspection of weekly forecast, records

keeping, monitoring ability, framing school goals, communicating skills, coordinating, time

management); and distributed leadership skills (e.g., co-leading, sharing ideas, collaboration,

negotiating, promote interdependency, and collective decision making). Trainees could have

exhibited more of the above-mentioned leadership skills if they had appropriate levels social and

material support. These findings provide an avenue for future empirical study into the

relationship that exists between the variables identified and discussed above and leadership

effectiveness in the context of sub-Saharan educational systems. Additionally, the study begins a

journey to discover a leadership framework that is contextually appropriate for the region, and a curriculum and pedagogy base for trainees that further supports skills implementation in this social context.

Also, findings in this research showed that factors such as cultural influence, working conditions, support for implementation, creating opportunity for support and practice, external influence, and resistance to change were possible factors that hindered leadership practices in Ghana. These factors combined with a sense of discontinuity of the program in the long term and a lack of resource support caused headteachers to gradually experience a decline in motivation to implement the skills they learned.

In conclusion, this study provides meaningful insights into relevant benefits and leadership development interventions that programs like the COL-MUN collaborative program can have on headteachers' values, beliefs, dispositions, and adaptation of best management styles. Again, the study concludes that for a leadership development training to be successful and achieve its goals, the training should be designed such that trainees have continuous support and practice. Moreover, socio-cultural context must continue to be considered and incorporated into leadership training programs in order to solve related challenges of skill implementation cited in this study.

Finally, from a managerial perspective, the results of this study suggest that leadership development organizers should not assume that once a training program has been completed trainees automatically adapt and implement the skills they learned. Educational authorities and supervisors need to give time, space, support, and relevant materials to headteachers, creating enabling work environment, in order that school-level managers maintain and practice the acquired skills, knowledge, and abilities. If that can be completed effectively, a cycle of

continuous improvement can be set in place to ensure the sustainability of the training initiative

and advancement of student learning.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Ethical Clearance Certificate

ICEHR Number:	20160119-ED
Approval Period:	June 19, 2015 – June 30, 2016
Funding Source:	IRDC [Sought]
Responsible Faculty:	Dr. Noel Hurley Faculty of Education
Title of Project:	*Head Teacher and School Principal Development in Ghana: Theory into Practice*

MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY

Interdisciplinary Committee on Ethics in Human Research (ICEHR)

St. John's, NL Canada A1C 5S7
Tel: 709 864-2561 icehr@mun.ca
www.mun.ca/research/ethics/humans/icehr

June 19, 2015

Mr. Sylvester Boadi
Faculty of Education
Memorial University of Newfoundland

Dear Mr. Boadi:

Thank you for your email correspondence of June 16 and 19, 2015 addressing the issues raised by the Interdisciplinary Committee on Ethics in Human Research (ICEHR) concerning the above-named research project.

The ICEHR has re-examined the proposal with the clarification and revisions submitted, and is satisfied that the concerns raised by the Committee have been adequately addressed. In accordance with the *Tri-Council Policy Statement on Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (TCPS2)*, the project has been granted *full ethics clearance* to June 30, 2016. ICEHR approval applies to the ethical acceptability of the research, as per Article 6.3 of the *TCPS2*. Researchers are responsible for adherence to any other relevant University policies and/or funded or non-funded agreements that may be associated with the project.

If you need to make changes during the course of the project, which may raise ethical concerns, please forward an amendment request form with a description of these changes to icehr@mun.ca for the Committee's consideration.

The *TCPS2* requires that you submit an annual update form to the ICEHR before June 30, 2016. If you plan to continue the project, you need to request renewal of your ethics clearance, and include a brief summary on the progress of your research. When the project no longer requires contact with human participants, is completed and/or terminated, you need to provide the annual update form with a final brief summary, and your file will be closed.

The annual update form and amendment request form are on the ICEHR website at http://www.mun.ca/research/ethics/humans/icehr/applications/.

We wish you success with your research.

Yours sincerely,

Gail Wideman

Gail Wideman, Ph.D.
Vice-Chair, Interdisciplinary Committee on Ethics in Human Research

GW/lw

copy: Supervisor – Dr. Noel Hurley, Faculty of Education
Director, Research Grant and Contract Services
Associate Dean, Graduate Programs, Faculty of Education

Appendix B

Invitation Letter to Research Participants

Study Title: Headteacher and School Principal Development in Ghana: Theory into Practice

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Sylvester Asmah Boadi, a doctoral candidate in the Faculty of Education at Memorial University of Newfoundland. I am conducting a research study on the above title leading to the award of a PhD in Educational Administration, and I would like to invite you to participate in my study.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to investigate and understand how headteachers and school principals transfer theories that they learned during the Commonwealth of Learning (COL) and Memorial University of Newfoundland (MUN) leadership training program to their respective schools. To achieve this goal, the study will explore how the program was implemented considering challenges and successes; what participants learned and processes through which they intend to transfer those concepts in the Ghanaian context.

What you will do in this study

Should you choose to participate, you will be required to complete a set of semi-structured interview questions. In particular, you will be asked questions relating to the leadership training program which you *initiated*, *served as a trainer*, or *participated as a trainee*. The interview will take place at a mutually agreed upon time and place, and should last about an hour considering your expertise in this field. The researcher or a research assistant will contact you by phone or in person, if possible, to discuss and make such time and place arrangements. On the agreed date and time, the researcher will bring you the interview questions personally and you will be required to provide a written response on a paper. Before the interview, however, the researcher will give you a consent form to review in order that you can ask questions. You will only participate in the study if satisfied with the answers the researcher gives to your questions. While completing the questions, the researcher alone will be present to collect it when completed, and if necessary, ask probing questions from the answers you provide for clarification on that same day. In case probing questions become inevitable, your answers will be audiotaped so that the researcher can accurately reflect on what is discussed, but that would strictly depend on your approval, which you need to indicate on the consent form. The information from you will be analyzed later after which the exhaustive description that helps to answer my research questions will be sent to you in hard copy/or email depending on which is convenient to you to read and testify that it faithfully represents your views.

Expected results

I anticipate the discovery of successes and challenges that characterized the training sessions. As well, I anticipate being able to explore processes through which participants intend

to transfer theories they learned, any inhibitive factors, and possible ways to address them in future training programs. It is also hoped that we will be able to identify potential problems associated with the adoption of Western developed programs in a Sub-Sahara African country.

Dissemination plan for results

       The results of the study will be peered reviewed and published and/or presented at professional meetings, but your identity will not be revealed. Again, findings will be made available to universities for incorporation into their curriculum, and I will serve as a resource person at leadership training programs organized by the Ghana Education Service (GES) or any other organization to disseminate the information.

Potential Use of Results

       The findings will be documented and passed on to the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service for consideration in future leadership training programs. Universities that offer leadership training for students will also be given copies to be incorporated in their modules.

Possible Beneficiaries of the Research

       Although you probably will not benefit directly from participating in this study, it is anticipated that others in the community/society in general will benefit. As stated earlier, universities in Ghana and elsewhere, will benefit from this research, particularly those that offer leadership training programs to students. As well, public and private leadership training institutions such as the Ghana Education Service (GES), the Ministry for Food and Agriculture (MOFA), and several other organizations will equally benefit.

Protection and storage of data

       Taking part in the study is your decision. You do not have to be in this study if you do not want to. You may also withdraw from the study at any time or decide not to answer any question you are not comfortable answering. However, after the exhaustive prescription has been sent to you for vetting and your approval has been sought, no part of your information will be deleted from the results. The reason is that from that point, your data will be aggregated with others for publication. Participation is confidential and anonymous, which means that no one will know what your answers are. Study information will be kept in a secure location at Memorial University of Newfoundland throughout the analysis stage and after that, both paper and audio versions will be stored for 5 years before they are destroyed.

       I will be happy to answer any questions you have about the study. You may contact me if you have study related questions or problems by phone at 709 769 2816 or email at sab146@mun.ca; or my faculty advisor, Professor Noel Hurley at 709 786 1147 or nhurley@mun.ca. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Chairperson of the Interdisciplinary Committee on Ethics in Human Research (ICEHR) at icehr@mun.ca or by telephone at 709-864-2861.

      Thank you for your consideration. If you agree to participate, please sign this letter and return it to the bearer, or mail to Professor Yaw Afari Ankomah, University of Cape Coast, Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, University Post Office, Cape Coast, Ghana, or send it directly to the researcher as per my email address given below.

With kind regards,

Sylvester Boadi   Participant's signature--------------------------------

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Tel: 709 769 2816
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Appendix C

Interview Protocol for The Ghanaian Consultant

Study: Head Teacher and School Principal Development in Ghana: Theory into Practice. The purpose of this study is to understand how headteachers and school principals transfer theories that they learned during INSERT programs to their respective schools using the leadership training program organized by Commonwealth of Learning (COL) and Memorial University of Newfoundland (MUN).

The study seeks to unveil successes and challenges associated with leadership training programs in Ghana and help plan effective ones in future; help identify factors that influence transfer of theories learned in training sessions to working places and thus serves as a roadmap for their solution; and provide a framework for leadership development policy formulation and procurement of required logistics by the ministry of education.

Name _____

Position _____

Interview Questions _____

- How did the MUN and COL leadership training program start?

  _____

- What was the main objective for initiating such a program?

  _____

- Tell me about what motivated you, as a person, to initiate the program?

  _____

- What leadership model(s) was/were in place before the COL and MUN program was

  initiated? _____

- What deficiencies were observed with the old framework? _____

- What are/is in the COL and MUN program that in your view were/was considered

  important to address the deficiencies mentioned in question (5) above? _____

- What actions did you initiate to ensure that the COL and MUN leadership program would

  address the above mentioned concerns? _____

- What challenges were encountered? And how were they addressed? _____

- How successful or unsuccessful was the program? _____

- How satisfied with the program are both trainers and trainees? _____

Appendix D

Interview Questions for MUN Representative

Name _____

Position _____

Department _____

Interview Questions _____

- What was your position or involvement in the MUN and COL leadership training

  program? _____

- What were the main objectives of the program? _____

- What leadership framework(s) did you introduce for the program? _____

- What activities led to the development of a final manual for trainers to use? _____

- During the manual development stages, what role did you play? And why? _____

- How did trainers perceive the theories that underpinned the training program? _____

- What were the trainers' involvements during the manual development sessions? _____

- How would you describe trainers' knowledge and motivation after completion of the

  manual? _____

- How did participants describe the benefits of the leadership program? _____

- How satisfied were the trainers after completing the manual? _____

Appendix E

Interview Questions for The Coordinator

Name _____

Position _____

Interview Questions _____

- What was your position or involvement in the MUN and COL leadership training

  program? _____

- What were the objectives of the leadership training program? _____

- How many trainers and participants took part in the training program? _____

- Describe how you selected the participants? _____

- Which organizations/agencies supported the program? _____

- Describe the kind of support those organizations/agencies rendered. _____

- What was their motivation or objective for supporting the program? _____

- What challenges characterized the program implementation and how did you overcome

  them? _____

- How would you describe the success of failure of the program? _____

- (a) If the program was successful, what measures were put in place to evaluate it? _____

  (b) If the program failed, what correctional measures were suggested to prevent future

  occurrence? _____

- How did the trainers and trainees describe the benefits of the leadership program? _____

- In all, how satisfied with the program are its trainers and trainees? _____

Appendix F

Interview Questions for Instructors

Name _____

Position _____

Interview Questions _____

- What was your position or involvement in the MUN and COL leadership training

  program? _____

- How was the training organized, face-to-face, internet, region by region? _____

- What were the main objectives of the program, and how did you assess the

  achievements? _____

- Tell me about the main challenges you faced and how did you overcome them?

- (a) What content area did you teach? _____

  (b)Why were the areas you mentioned in (5a) considered important? _____

  (c) How would you describe the participant's knowledge and motivation to acquire the

  leadership skills? _____

- How did the participants describe the benefits of the leadership program? _____

- In your opinion, what skills did they describe as most beneficial? Please give examples.

- What practical examples were incorporated into the program to ensure that those skills

  you mention in (7) will be practiced? _____

- What process did participants intend to use to transfer what they learned to their work

  places? Please give examples. _____

- In all, how satisfied with the program are its trainees? _____

Appendix G

Interview Questions for Trainees

Name _____

Position _____

Qualification _____

Gender _____

School _____

Region _____

District _____

Interview Questions _____

- What level of school do you head? Primary, junior high, or senior high? _____

- How many permanent teachers do you have in your school? _____

- Describe your leadership style before participating in this COL and MUN leadership

  program_____

- How many days did you participate in this program? _____

- What new leadership knowledge and skills did you learn from this program? _____

- How different are these knowledge and skills mentioned in question (5) from your

  previous leadership knowledge and skills? _____

- (a) How satisfied were you in undergoing this training? (b) In general, how do you

  perceive the new leadership concepts you have learned? _____

- Describe how you intend to incorporate the acquired knowledge and skills into your

  previous leadership styles. _____

- Describe a situation in which you dealt with a student, teacher, parent, or a staff member

  who were difficult, hostile, stressed, etc., by applying skills acquired from this program.

- Tell me about a specific time when you had to deal with a specific situation but you could

  not apply any of the skills learned. Describe your actions. What was the outcome?

  _____

- In practising the skills you learned, can you list any challenges you frequently

  experienced? _____

- In your opinion, what possible ways can these challenges be addressed? _____

-

Appendix H

Informed Consent Form

Title: Headteacher and School Principal Development in Ghana: Theory into Practice.

Researcher: Sylvester Asmah Boadi, the Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland, Canada.

Principal Supervisors: Professor Noel Hurley, Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL, A1B 3X8, Canada. Telephone: 709.683.7472. Email: nhurley@mun.ca.

Supervisory committee member: Professor Bruce Sheppard, Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL, A1B 3X8, Canada. Telephone: 709.864.4793, Email: bsheppar@mun.ca.

Affiliated institutions:

University of Education, Winneba.

Contact: Professor Jophus Anamuah-Mensah, Institute for Educational Research and Innovation Studies, P. O. Box 25, Winneba, Ghana. Email: jophusam@gmail.com.

University of Cape Coast.

Contact: Professor Yaw A. Ankomah, Faculty of Education, Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, University Post Office, Cape Coast. Email: yankomah@yahoo.com.

You are invited to take part in a research project entitled "Headteacher and School Principal Development in Ghana: Theory into Practice."

This form is part of the process of informed consent. It should give you the basic idea of what the research is about and what your participation will involve. It also describes your right to withdraw from the study. In order to decide whether you wish to participate in this research study, you should understand enough about its risks and benefits to be able to make an informed decision. This is the informed consent process. Take time to read this carefully and to understand the information given to you. Please contact the researcher, **Sylvester Asmah Boadi**, if you have any questions about the study or would like more information before you consent. It is entirely up to you to decide whether to take part in this research. If you choose not to take part in this research or if you decide to withdraw from the research once it has started, there will be no negative consequences for you, now or in the future.

I am a doctoral student in the Faculty of Education at Memorial University of Newfoundland, Canada. As part of my dissertation, I am conducting research under the supervision of Professor Noel Hurley.

Purpose of study

The purpose of this study is to investigate and understand how headteachers and school principals transfer theories that they learned during the Commonwealth of Learning (COL) and Memorial University of Newfoundland (MUN) leadership training program to their respective schools. To achieve this goal, the study will explore how the program was implemented considering challenges and successes; what participants learned and processes through which they intend to transfer those concepts in the Ghanaian context. The overall objectives are to unveil challenges associated with leadership training programs in Ghana and help plan effective models in future; identify factors that influence transfer of theories learned in training sessions to working places and thus serve as a roadmap for their solution; and provide a framework for leadership development policy formulation and procurement of required logistics by the ministry of education. It is anticipated that headteachers and school principals' leadership skills will be enhanced if in future they participate in effective and well organized leadership training conferences following recommendations from this research.

What you will do in this study

If you agree to participate, you will be required to complete a set of semi-structured interview questions. In particular, you will be asked questions relating to the leadership training program which you ***initiated, served as a trainer, coordinated, or participated as a trainee***. The interview will take place at a mutually agreed upon date, time, and place, and should last about an hour considering your expertise in this field. The researcher or a research assistant will contact you by phone or personally, if possible, to discuss and make time and place arrangements. On the agreed date and time, the researcher will bring you the interview questions in person and you will be required to provide a written response on a paper. While completing the questions, the researcher **alone** will be present to collect it when completed, and if necessary, ask probing questions from the answers you provide for clarification on that same day. In case probing questions become inevitable, your answers will be audiotaped in order that the researcher can accurately reflect on what is discussed, but that would strictly depend on your approval. After your interview, and before the data are included in the final report, the exhaustive description that helps to answer my research questions will be sent to you in hard copy/or email depending on which is convenient to you to ascertain that it faithfully represents your views. At this stage, you will be able to add, change, or delete information from the transcripts as you see fit.

Withdrawal from the study

Taking part in the study is your decision.   You may withdraw from the study at any time or decide not to answer any question you are not comfortable answering. As the interview will take place within one day, should you change your mind and decide to withdraw at a later date, your written response and the audio version, if any, will be destroyed by shredding the transcripts and the audio format deleted from any device which might contain it. However, your data **cannot** be removed after the exhaustive prescription has been sent to you for vetting and your approval has been sought. The reason being that after this point your information will be aggregated with others for publication.

Possible benefits

      Although you probably will not benefit directly from participating in this study, it is anticipated that others in the community/society in general will benefit. For instance, universities in Ghana that offer leadership training to students can incorporate the findings and recommendations from this research into their programs to make them effective. As well, public and private leadership training institutions such as the Ghana Education Service (GES), the Ministry for Food and Agriculture (MOFA), and several other organizations will equally benefit because the identified challenges associated with leadership training will be addressed ensuring that future in-service trainings become effective.

Confidentiality and anonymity

      Participation in this study is confidential and anonymous, which means that no one will know what your name is and the answers you provide will be protected. If applicable, pseudonyms will be used in place of your name. The data from this research project will be published and presented at conferences; however, your identity will be kept confidential. Even though, the researcher will report direct quotations from the interview, you will be given a pseudonym, and all identifying information such as your name, the name of your school or institution, and position will be removed from the report. For example, Trainer 'A' or 'B'; "Headteacher from Takoradi district" said…; "School principal from Cape Coast district" wrote…, and so forth are possible phrases that would be used to conceal your identity. Again, the information you give will not be divulged to another party or will not be used for another project other than the intended purpose.

Storage of data

      Study information (i.e., completed interview paper, audio version, if any, and consent form) will be kept separately in a locked filing cabinet at Memorial University of Newfoundland until publication of the results and after that, they will still be stored for 5 years before destroying them. The audio version, if any, will be stored on a USB stick throughout this period.

Questions

      You are welcome to ask questions at any time before, during, or after your participation in this research. If you would like more information about this study, or if you have a specific question, you can contact the researcher, his supervisor, or a member of the supervisory committee as follows:

      Sylvester Asmah Boadi, 18 Weymouth Street, St. John's, NL, A1B 2B6, Canada. Telephone: 709.769.2816. Email: sab146@mun.ca.

      Professor Noel Hurley, Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL, A1B 3X8, Canada. Telephone: 709.683.7472. Email: nhurley@mun.ca.

      Professor Bruce Sheppard, Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL, A1B 3X8, Canada. Telephone: 709.864.4793, Email: bsheppar@mun.ca.

      In this project, I am following the guidelines set out in the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (Ottawa) and my research has been approved by an ethics committee at the university, the Interdisciplinary Committee on Ethics in Human

Research (ICEHR). The proposal for this research has been reviewed by the committee and found to be in compliance with Memorial University's ethics policy. If you have ethical concerns about the research, such as the way you have been treated or your rights as a participant, you may contact the Chairperson of the ICEHR at icehr@mun.ca or by telephone at 709-864-2861. This committee can be reached at:

Interdisciplinary Committee on Ethics in Human Research

Memorial University of Newfoundland

230 Elizabeth Avenue

St. John's, Newfoundland, A1C 5S7, Canada

Consent:

Your signature on this form means that:
- You have read the information about the research.
- You have been able to ask questions about this study.
- You are satisfied with the answers to all your questions.
- You understand what the study is about and what you will be doing.
- You understand that you are free to withdraw participation in the study without having to give a reason, and that doing so will not affect you now or in the future.
- You understand that if you choose to end participation during data collection, any data collected from you up to that point will be destroyed.
- I understand the purpose of this study and am willing to complete and return the interview questions and for Sylvester Asmah Boadi to interview me again for clarification, if it becomes necessary.

I agree for the researcher to audio-record the follow-up interview, if it becomes necessary_____ [Yes/No].

I am willing for the researcher to cite my words in any publications that result from this study_____ [Yes/No].

I would prefer that my name to be identified in any publications that result from this project_____ [Yes/No].

I would prefer that my name not be identified in any publications that result from this project even though I do not mind if the researcher cites my words that I provide to him_____ [Yes/No].

Name of research participant [printed] _____

Current permanent address of research participant:

_____

Telephone number of research participant: _____

E-mail address [if relevant] of research participant: _____

By signing this form, you do not give up your legal rights and do not release the researcher from his professional responsibilities.

I have read what this study is about and understood the risks and benefits. I have had adequate time to think about this and had the opportunity to ask questions and my questions have been answered _____ [Yes/No].

I agree to participate in the research project understanding the risks and contributions of my participation, that my participation is voluntary, and that I may end my participation if I want to _____ [Yes/No].

A copy of this Informed Consent Form has been given to me for my records _____ [initials].

Signature of research participant: _____Date: _____

Researcher's Signature:

I have explained this study to the best of my ability. I invited questions and gave answers. I believe that the participant fully understands what is involved in being in the study, any potential risks of the study and that he or she has freely chosen to be in the study.

Signature of principal investigator: Date: 19 June, 2015

Appendix I

Schedule of Field Activities

Week	Date	Activity	Remarks
1	25-26 Dec. 2015	Travel to Ghana	With US Airline via JFK, and Brussels.
2	4-8 Jan. 2016	Consultation with affiliated institutions	Contact persons
3	11-15 Jan. 2016	Telephone calls to participants	Venue arrangements
4	18-22 Jan. 2016	Organization of interview materials and resources.	Venue arrangement continued.
5	25-28 Jan. 2016	Interview with 2 trainees in Western Region.	Successful interview.
6	2 Feb. 2016	Visited Professor Jophus Anamuah-Mensah, the initiator of the program for a preliminary discussion about the interview.	A date was schedule for his interview.
7	3-5 Feb. 2016	Interviewed 3 trainees in Accra	Based on prearranged time and venues.
8	8-12 Feb. 2016	Interviewed 3 trainees in Accra	Successful
9	15 Feb. 2016	Interview with 2 trainees in Accra	Based on prearranged date.
10	16-20 Feb. 2016	Interview with 3 trainees in Volta reg.	successful
11	21 Feb. 2016	Interviewed 1 trainee in Volta region	Through telephone
12	23-25 Feb. 2016	Interview with 3 trainees in Central reg.	Successful interview
13	29 Feb. 2016	Interview with 2 trainees in Central reg.	Successful interview
14	1-4 Mar. 201	Interviewed 3 trainees in Central reg.	Successful interview
15	14-18 Mar. 2016	Interviewed 4 trainees in Eastern reg.	Successful interview
	16 Mar. 2016	Interviewed 2 trainees in Eastern reg.	Through telephone
16	21-24 Mar.	Interviewed the 3 master trainers	Based on prearranged date and time. Was successful.
17	25 Mar. 2016	Interview with the coordinator	Face-to-face successful interview.
18	26 Mar. 2016	Interview with initiator, J. A. Mensah	Based on prearranged date.
19	28-29 Mar. 2016	Appreciation letters, text messages sent to participants	Through emails, "WhatsApp" and text messages.

| 20 | 3-4 April, 2016 | Returned to MUN | Encountered flight problems in Heathrow airport. |
| 21 | 11 April, 2016 | Interviewed MUN representative | Through email correspondence. |