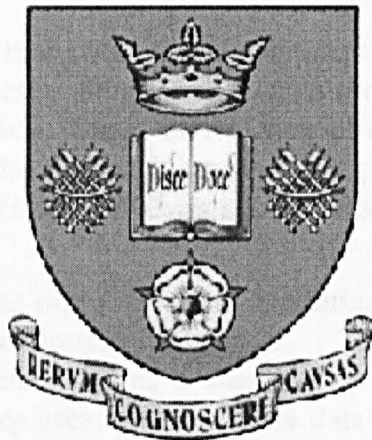


**TOWARDS AN INFORMATION PROVISION  
STRATEGY FOR UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES  
IN GHANA:  
THE RELEVANCE OF RECENT DEVELOPMENTS  
IN THE UNITED KINGDOM TO THE NEEDS OF  
LIBRARIES IN GHANA.**



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**THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF  
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## SUMMARY

### **Towards an information provision strategy for university libraries in Ghana: the relevance of recent developments in the United Kingdom to the needs of libraries in Ghana**

*Edwin Ellis Badu*

The study explores the factors that affect the development of a strategic planning process aimed at improving the university libraries in Ghana's capacity to deliver information services effectively and efficiently. Since the structure of universities in Ghana is derived from that of universities in the United Kingdom, the project of necessity includes a consideration of current perceptions to the strategy process in some university libraries in the United Kingdom.

The study adopts a multiple case study approach, exploiting the advantages of the use of a combination of varied data collection techniques. The methodology combines the interpretative and positivist methods using 5 case studies in Ghana and 5 in the United Kingdom in order to enhance representativeness. The data was collected from some major stakeholders and a sample of library staff in the universities in Ghana and the heads and deputies of library services in the case study libraries in the United Kingdom.

The major findings are that : the major stakeholders and the library staff in the Ghanaian university libraries do not have a single, agreed articulated mission for their libraries; a multiplicity of strategic visions were found to be the subject of disagreement between decision makers and the library staff; the university libraries in Ghana lack the required resources-financial, human, and physical that could give them the strategic capability to provide effective services; the magnitude of the resource-performance relationship in the United Kingdom case studies was found to be strikingly greater than that of the Ghanaian case study institutions; the management style of the university libraries in Ghana is the autocratic type with a top down strategic decision making process and an obsession for control and discipline; the United Kingdom libraries have a relatively more stable political and economic environments than the Ghanaian university libraries whose decision makers are faced with highly unstable political and economic issues.

It is argued that in view of these 'pitfalls' in the planning process in the university libraries in Ghana, the process as it is currently applied in the United Kingdom university libraries will not translate to Ghana.

The study therefore suggests a new approach to strategy formulation in Ghanaian university libraries. It proposes a flexible strategic management concept which suits the dynamism of the macro and micro environments of the libraries where continual change is unlikely to make once-and-for-all adjustments an appropriate form of managing change. The libraries ought to be capable of inflicting as well as responding to unanticipated changes.



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Praise ye the Lord, praise God in his sanctuary: praise him in the firmament of his power.  
Praise him for his mighty acts: praise him according to his excellent greatness (Psalm 150, 1-2)

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# CONTENTS

	PAGE
CHAPTER ONE	1
AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
CHAPTER TWO	12
STRATEGIC PLANNING	12
2.1 INTRODUCTION	12
2.2 THE CONCEPT OF STRATEGY	13
2.3 STRATEGIC PLANNING IN AFRICA	28
2.4 STRATEGIC PLANNING IN UNIVERSITIES	33
2.5 STRATEGIC PLANNING IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES	40
2.5.1 FACTORS AFFECTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES.	50
2.6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	55
CHAPTER THREE	57
METHODOLOGY	57
3.1 INTRODUCTION	57
3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN	57
3.2.1 <i>Theoretical framework</i>	60
3.2.2 <i>The interpretative and positivist paradigms</i>	63
3.2.3 <i>The interpretative and positivist methods as applied in this study</i>	67
3.3 SELECTION OF LIBRARIES(CASE STUDIES	68
3.4 SELECTION OF SUBJECTS	70
3.5 INSTRUMENTS	73
3.5.1 INTERVIEWS	73
3.5.2 QUESTIONNAIRES	77
3.5.3 OBSERVATION	81
3.5.4 DOCUMENTARY EVIDENCE	83
3.6 TREATMENT AND ANALYSIS OF DATA	86
3.6.1 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS	86
3.6.1.1 ASPECTS OF GROUNDED THEORY TECHNIQUES AS APPLIED IN THIS STUDY	87
3.6.1.2 ANALYSING INTERVIEW DATA	88
3.6.2 ANALYSIS OF STRATEGIC PLANNING DOCUMENTS	90
3.6.3 QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS	90
CHAPTER FOUR	92
A BRIEF GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY OF GHANA	92
4.1 INTRODUCTION	92
4.2 GHANA-THE COUNTRY	92
4.3 THE HISTORY OF GHANA	95
4.3.1 <i>Pre-colonial period</i>	95
4.3.2 <i>The colonial period</i>	96
4.3.3 <i>Independence of Ghana</i>	97
4.3.4 <i>Dr Nkrumah and CPP rule</i>	97
4.3.5 <i>The National Liberation Council(NLC), 1966-1969</i>	99
4.3.6 <i>The Second Republic, 1969-1972</i>	100
4.3.7 <i>The National Redemption Council(NRC), 1972-1975</i>	101
4.3.8 <i>The Supreme Military Council (SMC), 1975-1979</i>	102

4.3.9	<i>The Supreme Military Council (SMC II)</i>	104
4.3.10	<i>The Armed Forces Revolutionary Council (AFRC)</i>	105
4.3.11	<i>The Third Republic, 1979-1981</i>	105
4.3.12	<i>The Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC), 1981-1992</i>	106
4.3.13	<i>The National Democratic Congress (NDC), 1992-1996</i>	109
4.4	<b>SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS</b>	111
	<b>CHAPTER FIVE</b>	112
	<b>THE GHANAIAI ENVIRONMENT</b>	112
5.1	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	112
5.2	<b>THE ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT</b>	112
	5.2.1 <i>Ghana's Currency</i>	112
	5.2.2 <i>The Economy, 1950s-1960s</i>	114
	5.2.3 <i>The Great Decline</i>	114
	5.2.4 <i>Current Monetary And Economic Reform, 1985-1996</i>	115
5.3	<b>SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT</b>	117
	5.3.1 <i>Cultural Beliefs</i>	118
	5.3.2 <i>Cultural Values</i>	120
	5.3.3 <i>Cultural Norms</i>	121
	5.3.4 <i>Some Social Vices</i>	123
	5.3.4.1 <i>Tribalism</i>	123
	5.3.4.2 <i>Bribery And Corruption</i>	124
	5.3.4.3 <i>Punctuality</i>	125
	5.3.4.3 <i>Effect Of Ghanaian Culture On Organisational Behaviour</i>	125
5.4	<b>THE TECHNOLOGICAL ENVIRONMENT</b>	129
	5.4.1 <i>Internet Providers</i>	130
	5.4.1.1 <i>Africa Online</i>	130
	5.4.1.2 <i>Network computer Systems (NCS)</i>	130
	5.4.2 <i>Science And Technology Research</i>	130
	5.4.2.1 <i>The National Science and Technology Information Centre (NASTLIC)</i>	131
	5.4.3 <i>Problems Affecting Information Technology In Ghana</i>	131
	5.4.4 <i>National Information Policy</i>	132
	5.4.5 <i>Copyright And Legal Deposit Laws</i>	133
5.5	<b>THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM</b>	134
	5.5.1 <i>Organisation</i>	134
	5.5.2 <i>Finance</i>	135
	5.5.3 <i>Tertiary Education</i>	135
	5.5.4 <i>Reforms To Tertiary Education System</i>	136
	5.5.4.1 <i>Some Elements Of The Reform Programme</i>	136
	5.5.4.1.1 <i>Co-ordination Of The Tertiary Education/Supervision By The Ministry Of Education:</i>	137
	5.5.4.1.2 <i>Amalgamation And Regrouping Of Institutions In The Tertiary Sector</i>	137
	5.5.4.1.3 <i>To Upgrade Some Of The Non-University Institutions. Funding And Financing</i>	137
	5.5.4.1.4 <i>Internal Administration Of The Universities</i>	138
	5.5.4.1.5 <i>Some outcomes Of The Reform</i>	138
5.6	<b>SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS</b>	139
	<b>CHAPTER SIX</b>	141

<b>THE CORPORATE AND INTERNAL ENVIRONMENTS OF UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES IN GHANA</b>	<b>141</b>
<b>6.1 INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>141</b>
<b>6.2 THE CORPORATE ENVIRONMENTS</b>	<b>141</b>
6.2.1 <i>The History And Structure Of Universities In Ghana</i>	143
6.2.2 <i>University Governance</i>	145
6.2.3 <i>Student Population</i>	146
6.2.3.1 <i>Staff Population</i>	148
6.2.4 <i>Strategic Planning</i>	149
6.2.5 <i>University Funding</i>	149
6.2.5.1 <i>The Disbursement Of University Funds</i>	151
<b>6.3 THE INTERNAL LIBRARY ENVIRONMENTS</b>	<b>153</b>
6.3.1 <i>The History Of University Libraries</i>	153
6.3.2 <i>The Goals And Mission Of The University Libraries</i>	155
6.3.3 <i>Management Of The University Libraries</i>	156
6.3.4 <i>Staffing</i>	158
6.3.5 <i>The Library Stock</i>	160
6.3.5.1 <i>Acquisition Statistics</i>	160
6.3.6 <i>The Organisation Of The Libraries</i>	162
6.3.7 <i>Services</i>	162
6.3.7.1 <i>Library Automation</i>	163
6.3.8 <i>Library Buildings And Reading Spaces</i>	164
6.3.9 <i>Library Equipment</i>	165
6.3.10 <i>Library Funding</i>	166
6.3.10.1 <i>Disbursement Of Library Funds</i>	167
6.3.10.2 <i>Income Generation</i>	168
6.3.11 <i>User Population</i>	168
<b>CHAPTER SEVEN</b>	<b>171</b>
<b>ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS ON MISSION/GOALS AND VISION STATEMENTS OF UNIVERSITY STAKEHOLDERS</b>	<b>171</b>
<b>7.1 MISSION/GOALS, VISION STATEMENTS</b>	<b>171</b>
7.1.1 <i>Mission/Goals</i>	171
7.1.2 <i>Vision For Universities And Libraries</i>	181
7.1.2.1 <i>Vision Of Interviewees For The Universities.</i>	181
7.1.2.2 <i>Vision Of Stake Holders For University Libraries</i>	184
<b>CHAPTER EIGHT</b>	<b>187</b>
<b>ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS ON RESOURCE CAPABILITIES OF THE LIBRARIES</b>	<b>187</b>
<b>8.1 INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>187</b>
<b>8.2 FUNDING AND FINANCING</b>	<b>188</b>
8.2.1 <i>University Funding And Financing</i>	188
8.2.2 <i>Disbursement Of University Funds By University Administrators</i>	191
8.2.3 <i>Income Generation In Universities In Ghana</i>	193
8.2.4 <i>Library Funding And Financing</i>	195
8.2.4.1 <i>Current Perceptions</i>	197
8.2.4.1 <i>Disbursement Of Funds In The Libraries</i>	203
8.2.4.2 <i>Income Generation In Libraries</i>	205
<b>8.3 HUMAN RESOURCES</b>	<b>209</b>

8.3.1	<i>Required Skills For The Strategic Vision Of The Interviewees</i>	209
8.3.2	<i>Staff Training And Development</i>	210
8.3.3	<i>Present Staffing Patterns And Competencies</i>	212
8.3.4	<i>Current Position On Staffing, Recruitment And Conditions Of Service</i>	215
8.4	<b>PHYSICAL FACILITIES</b>	217
	<b>CHAPTER NINE</b>	220
	<b>THE ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS ON SOME ASPECTS OF THE LIBRARIES' INTERNAL ENVIRONMENTS</b>	220
9.1	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	220
9.2	<b>STAFFING STRUCTURE AND MANAGEMENT STYLE OF THE SUNIVERSITY LIBRARIES</b>	220
9.2.1	<i>Types Of Structure</i>	222
9.2.2	<i>Factors Making Change Necessary In Present Staffing Structure</i>	223
9.2.3	<i>Type Of Structural Changes Required</i>	225
9.2.4	<i>Problems Affecting Possibility Of Changes In Present Staffing Structures</i>	227
9.2.5	<i>Current Organisational Processes And Management Style</i>	228
9.2.6	<i>Staff Awareness And Participation In The Strategic Planning Process</i>	231
9.2.6.1	<i>Awareness Of The Planning Process</i>	232
9.2.6.2	<i>Participation In The Strategic Planning Process</i>	234
9.2.6.2.1	<i>Participation in planning activities</i>	236
9.3	<b>ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE/CULTURE</b>	238
9.4	<b>INTERNAL LIBRARY POLITICS</b>	250
9.4.1	<i>Internal Library Politicisation In Universities In Ghana</i>	251
9.5	<b>SERVICE DEVELOPMENT AND STRATEGIC ALLIANCES</b>	254
9.5.1	<i>Current Service Development</i>	254
9.5.2	<i>Future developments in services</i>	257
9.5.3	<i>Strategic Alliances (Co-operation and resource sharing)</i>	259
9.5.3.1	<i>Reasons For Co-peration</i>	260
9.5.3.2	<i>Nature And Scope Of Co-operation</i>	260
9.5.3.3	<i>Barriers To Co-operation</i>	262
9.6	<b>STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY (IT) AND PERFORMANCE EVALUATION</b>	264
9.6.1	<i>Introduction</i>	264
9.6.2	<i>IT infrastructure</i>	265
9.6.3	<i>Impact Of IT On Services</i>	266
9.6.4	<i>The Use Of Computers In The Libraries</i>	269
9.6.5	<i>IT-Investment</i>	271
9.6.6	<i>IT-Strategy integration</i>	272
9.6.7	<i>Barriers To IT implementation In University Libraries In Ghana</i>	273
9.6.8	<i>Management Information Systems (MIS)</i>	274
9.6.9	<i>Performance Evaluation</i>	275
	<b>CHAPTER TEN</b>	278
	<b>THE ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS ON SOME ASPECTS OF THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES</b>	278
10.1	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	278

10.2	<i>Hypotheses</i>	279
10.3	<i>Key Issues In The External Environment</i>	285
10.3.1	<i>Political Issues</i>	286
10.3.1.2	<i>Corporate Politicisation</i>	290
10.3.1.3	<i>Interest/pressure Groups</i>	291
10.3.1.4	<i>Competitors</i>	292
10.3.2	<i>Economic Issues</i>	294
10.3.2.1	<i>Underdeveloped Economy</i>	294
10.3.2.2	<i>Inflation</i>	295
10.3.2.3	<i>Depreciation Of The National Currency</i>	296
10.3.2.4	<i>Taxation and Import Duties</i>	296
10.3.2.5	<i>Misappropriation Of Corporate Funds</i>	297
10.3.2.6	<i>Low salaries and wages</i>	297
10.3.3	<i>Socio-Cultural Issues</i>	298
10.3.3.1	<i>Opportunities</i>	298
10.3.3.2	<i>Threats</i>	299
10.3.4	<i>Technology Issues</i>	303
10.3.5	<i>International Issues</i>	305
10.3.5.1	<i>Opportunities</i>	305
10.3.5.2	<i>Threats</i>	306
10.3.6	<i>Environmental Scanning</i>	307
10.3.6.1	<i>Environmental scanning-constraints</i>	309
<b>CHAPTER ELEVEN</b>		<b>310</b>
<b>CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS</b>		<b>310</b>
11.1	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>310</b>
11.2	<b>DISCUSSION OF THE FACTORS THAT AFFECT INFORMATION PROVISION STRATEGY IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES IN GHANA</b>	<b>311</b>
11.2.1	<i>Mission/Goals And Vision statements</i>	311
11.2.1.1	<i>Library Mission/Goals</i>	311
11.2.1.2	<i>Vision For Universities And University Libraries</i>	313
11.2.2	<b>RESOURCE CAPABILITIES OF THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES</b>	<b>315</b>
11.2.2.1	<i>Funding And Financing</i>	315
11.2.2.2	<i>Human Resources</i>	319
11.2.2.3	<i>Physical Resources</i>	323
11.2.3	<b>THE INTERNAL ENVIRONMENTS OF THE LIBRARIES</b>	<b>325</b>
11.2.3.1	<i>Staffing Structure And Management Style</i>	325
11.2.3.2	<i>Organisational Culture/Climate</i>	327
11.2.3.3	<i>Internal Library Politics</i>	329
11.2.3.4	<i>Service Development</i>	330
11.2.3.5	<i>Strategic Alliances (Co-operation and resource sharing)</i>	332
11.2.3.6	<i>Strategic Management Of Information Technology (IT) And Performance Evaluation</i>	333
11.2.4	<b>THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT</b>	<b>335</b>
11.3	<b>CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS</b>	<b>341</b>
11.3.1	<b>MAIN CONCLUSIONS OF STUDY</b>	<b>342</b>
11.3.2	<b>RECOMMENDATIONS</b>	<b>345</b>



11.3.2.1	<i>Developing A Meaningful Mission AndVvision Statements</i>	347
11.3.2.2	<i>Developing Resource Capabilities</i>	348
11.3.2.2.1	<i>Developing Core Capabilities</i>	351
11.3.2.3	<i>Achieving Flexibility Within The Libraries</i>	352
11.3.2..3.1	<i>Flexibility Through Organisational Restructuring/Achieving A Better Internal Organisational Co-ordination</i>	352
11.3.2.3.2	<i>A New Management Style</i>	353
11.3 .2.3.3	<i>Developing Strategic Management Techniques</i>	354
11.3.2.3.4	<i>Developing A Culture-Strategy Fit</i>	354
11.3.2.3.5	<i>Service Development</i>	355
11.3.2.3.6	<i>Towards Effective Strategic Alliances/Flexibility Between Libraries And Other Organisations (co-operation and resource sharing)</i>	356
11.3.2.3.7	<i>Strategic ManagementOof Information Technology (IT)</i>	358
11.3.2.3.8	<i>Strategic Control And Performance Evaluation</i>	359
11.3.2.4	<i>Managing The External Environment</i>	360
11.3.3	<b>CONCLUSION</b>	361
	<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>	365
	<b>APPENDIX A</b>	1
	<b>APPENDIX B</b>	10
	<b>APPENDIX B2</b>	13
	<b>APPENDIX C</b>	18
	<b>APPENDIX D</b>	20
	<b>APPENDIX E</b>	24
	<b>APPENDIX F</b>	25
	<b>APPENDIX G</b>	37
	<b>APPENDIX H</b>	40

# CHAPTER ONE

## AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

The main problem facing university libraries in Ghana in the 1990's is their inability to acquire library materials and to provide information services even at the levels achieved as long ago as the late 1960s. Amongst the many reasons for this the most important has been government instability, particularly during the period between 1966 and 1983 when various governments, mainly led by the military, showed little regard for higher education and universities were consequently inadequately funded. Additionally, student involvement in the political struggle against military rule also had adverse consequences on university and university library development since universities were closed down on a number of occasions, in some cases for months on end. Closely related to Ghana's political instability has been the gradual and persistent decline in the country's economy. When it achieved independence from Britain in 1957 Ghana inherited an economy that was seen as among the best of all the developing countries. Its per capita income of £70 in 1960, for example, was significantly higher than that of Egypt (£56), Nigeria (£29) or India (£25) (Huq, 1989:2). However, the national currency, the cedi, which averaged 350 to the US dollar in 1990 was, by the middle of December, 1996, trading at 1,725 to the dollar (Financial Times, 1996).

One result of this combination of circumstances has been the inability of the universities and their libraries to purchase computers, books, other information products and to develop their communication infrastructure owing to constant shortage of foreign exchange. This economic predicament has also affected the purchasing power of the salaries and wages of Ghanaian workers, resulting in negative organisational behaviour (Kissiedu, 1994). In a situation where a worker's official monthly pay-cheque is barely sufficient to maintain him for a week, the need to look elsewhere to make up the considerable shortfall has resulted in conflicts between employer and employees. Many people work for the minimum number of hours at their 'official' jobs and then spend the rest of the time at all kinds of 'extra' personal pursuits just to make ends meet. Absenteeism, bad time keeping at all levels and lax supervision at senior level are all manifestations of the frustration, lack of commitment,

absence of direction and laziness that dominate the university labour scene, resulting in a drastic decline in the effectiveness of universities and their libraries as institutions of higher education. Other demographic issues such as a decrease in the number of university staff and a 30% increase in the size of the student population, a result of a government directive to the universities to absorb the back-log of two successive A'Level cohorts who had not gained admission to the universities because of university closures over the years (an increase not matched by increases in funding), have had a serious effect on library accommodation. University libraries that were built to cater for about 2,000 students in the middle of the century now have to accommodate about 7,000 students.

In the global context too, the cost of books, periodicals and other library materials and equipment has risen steeply. New technologies are changing the ways information is generated, recorded, gathered, stored, preserved, analysed, disseminated and used by people and consequently the ways in which libraries are expected to provide access to information. Economic conditions have effectively prevented Ghanaian university libraries from developing such services at the required levels so far.

In the midst of all these environmental uncertainties and turbulence, typical of most African countries( Flores,1972; O'Shaughnessy, 1985; Yavas, Kaynak and Dibe,1985; Adegbite,1986), universities in Ghana are trying to develop a management culture which they hope will improve university management in terms of planning, cost effectiveness, efficiency and accountability. It is against this background that universities in Ghana have urged their libraries to become involved in the strategic planning process.

Genus (1995) presents five approaches to strategy formulation:

- Linear (or rational) planning
- Adaptive/Incremental view
  - Interpretative view
  - System thinking
- 'Garbage can' and population ecology view (Genus, 1995:10)

However, the dominant approach to strategy in main stream textbooks is the linear approach (Whittington, 1993) which has been widely used by many academic libraries in the developed and some developing countries.

Labelled ‘linear’ by Chaffee (1983), ‘rational’ by Peters and Waterman (1982), ‘formal’ by many others and the ‘planning mode’ by Mintzberg (1973), this classical approach to strategy has been defined by Chandler(1962) as:

the determination of the basic long-term goals and the objectives of  
 an enterprise and the adoption of course of action and the  
 allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals  
 (Chandler, 1962:13).

Based on Chandler’s definition, the linear approach assumes three basic tenets:

- Strategy formulation should be a controlled process of thought, derived directly from the notion of rational economic man - strategy as product of a single entrepreneurial individual acting with perfect rationality to maximise ‘his’ economic advantage.
- Strategies emerge from the decision-making process fully formulated, explicit and articulated: strategies are in a sense orders for others to carry.
- Implementation is a distinct phase in the strategy process only coming after the earlier phase of explicit and conscious formulation (Mintzberg, 1990).

The stages involved in linear planning are shown in Figure 1.1.

Stage	Action
1 Objective Setting ↓	Decide objectives; define performance targets
2 Gap Analysis ↓	Use forecasts to estimate between performance and existing strategy and targets set above
3 Strategic Appraisal ↓	Perform external/internal analysis to evaluate current competitive standing. Alter targets/objectives if needed
4 Strategic formulation ↓	Generate alternative options. Evaluate the options and select a strategy
5 Strategic Implementation	Detail action plans and resource requirements; monitor and control strategy

**Figure 1.1:** A linear model of strategic management (Source: Audley Genus (1995))

Several authors have defined strategy in terms of the relationship between an organisation and its environment, one such definition is

The positioning and relating of the firm/organisation to its environment in a way which will assure its continued success and make it secure from surprises (Ansoff, 1984).

The environment, therefore, dictates what are called key success factors- the factors that an organisation really needs to address for long-term competitive advantage or strategic success(Thompson, 1990).

Hunger and Wheelan (1990) discuss these factors under external and internal environments. The external environment consists of variables that are outside the organisation and not within the short-run control of top-management. It has two parts, the task environment and societal environment. The task environment involves those elements of groups that directly affect and are affected by an organisation's major operations such as stakeholders, governments, suppliers, competitors, customers, interest groups, unions and associations. The societal environment variables include economic, sociocultural, technological and political/legal forces. These do not directly touch the short-term activities of the organisation but they can, and often do, influence its long-run decisions. The internal environment variables form the context in which work is done; they include the organisation's structure, culture and resources.

Applying this theory to the study of libraries, Vincent (1988) identified specific variables that affect the success of strategy in libraries in a multiple case study research in which she concludes that:

- Lack of resources is one reason for libraries to be reluctant to engage in strategic planning.
- The stability of the environment and sufficient control over it ensures the attainment of organisational objectives hence strategy formulation.
- Changes in government and corporate policies affect the strategy of libraries.

- Publicly funded service organisations have a relationship with the environment which is often characterised by turbulence, unpredictability and the imposition of short-term objectives and structures which bear little relation to the dependant organisation's circumstances.
- Success of strategy in libraries is affected by weight of tradition, vested interest and corporate expectations.
- A single, agreed, clearly articulated mission is an essential prerequisite for successful strategic planning (Vincent, 1988:42-43).

Ferguson (1992), writing on strategic planning for libraries in developing countries states that strategic planning is affected by basic influences, namely: the fundamental socio-economic characteristic and purpose of the organisation, the values and philosophy of management and the organisation's strengths and weaknesses in the light of the external and internal environments. He states further that strategic planning is likely to be affected by the location of the organisation because these factors vary with different cultural socio-economic and historical environments. Wilks (1990) also finds that the Anglo-Saxon cultures of the United States and the United Kingdom are biased towards an individualistic free-enterprise model of strategy that denigrates explicit reliance upon the state.

It is, therefore, suggested that if the success of strategic planning is affected by environmental factors then the model as it is presently applied in United Kingdom university libraries will not translate to Ghana because of its goal of profit maximisation (Ansoff, 1965; Porter, 1980, 1985), insensitivity to sociological culture (Whittington, 1993), its assumption of the availability of considerable resources of time, people, money and expertise (Grant, 1991) and its reliance on stable political and economic domains (Cyert and March, 1963; Boyacigiller and Alders, 1991).

The purpose of this study, therefore, is to explore the factors that affect the development of strategic planning for improving information provision in university libraries in Ghana.

More specifically, the principal objectives of the study are:

1. To explore the conception of organisational missions and goals held by the



major stakeholders of university libraries in Ghana and to assess their strategic visions of the university libraries.

2. To assess the strategic capabilities of universities and university libraries in Ghana in the formulation of effective strategy.
  - 2.1 To investigate the human resource capabilities of university libraries in Ghana.
  - 2.2 To determine the financial capacities of the libraries to formulate strategies.
  - 2.3 To discover whether the libraries have the requisite physical resources to undertake strategic planning.
3. To explore the internal environmental factors that are likely to affect the strategic planning process.
  - 3.1 To consider the efficiency and effectiveness of current staffing structures of the university libraries in Ghana.
  - 3.2 To investigate some aspects of cultural practices in the Ghanaian university libraries.
  - 3.3 To determine the nature of planning processes in vogue in university libraries in Ghana and to explore the levels of participation of the library staff in the planning process.
  - 3.4 To investigate the micro-political elements that may serve as barriers or enhancement to the achievement of the benefits of strategic planning.
  - 3.5 To assess the current level of Information technology application in the university libraries.
4. To determine the effect of the macro-environment on the development of the university libraries.
5. To consider some aspects of strategic planning process in selected university libraries in the United Kingdom.
- 6 To make recommendations for the development of a strategy for improving information provision in the university libraries in Ghana based upon the results of the analysis in objectives 1-5.

There is a large body of literature on strategy formation in both the private and public sectors and on academic libraries in particular. Concepts and tools of analysis have formed the backbone of the strategy literature especially in the periods of its growth-1960-1985,

particularly literature on the private sector ( for example, Levitt, 1960; Steiner, 1969; Andrews, 1971; Bower, 1978; Hofer, 1978, Harrigan, 1980, Porter, 1980). Much of the literature is concerned with strategy formulation, taking a formal-rational view of organisations as systems with coherent purposes and shared goals and seeking the strategy formulation process as a series of logical steps.

In the early 1990's strategy as a field of study started to fall on hard times. The 1990's literature may be said to be characterised by a basic re-evaluation of new ideas. For example, Mintzberg(1994) challenged the planning process and by implication the process of strategy development.

The literature on strategic planning in university libraries has developed in a similar fashion to that of its private sector counterpart. The earlier literature was concerned with the strategic planning process, how planning could be considered in a rational way, the do's and don'ts of planning and how to implement strategic plans (Riggs, 1984, Meredith et al, 1987). It was far from being a mature literature, being rarely based on theory or empirical research and was more frequently hortatory and prescriptive than analytical. It was basically prescriptive advocacy for a particular model based on little or no systematic analysis of actual campus-planning environments and experiences, a view shared by Schmidlein and Milton (1988).

In the late 1980's and early 1990's however, the focus shifted, with some authors questioning the applicability or 'fit' of strategic planning models to all libraries (Vincent, 1988), while others, Butler and Davis(1992), Prentice(1989), and Lee(1993) for example, have concentrated on the effects of culture, politics and technological development on the planning process.

Despite an increased interest in strategic planning in developing countries so far little empirical research has actually been conducted on the topic, particularly from the perspectives of African librarians. The few articles that have been identified, for example, Odini(1990) and Entsua-Mensah(1994), do not deal with the issue strategically and failed to explore the various facets that might hinder the transferability of the features of strategy formation into the African society. They ignored the cultural, political and economic differences between universities in the West and their African counterparts.

Some recent studies, for example Birdsall and Hensley(1994), have presented the application of new strategic planning models that take into account the turbulence of our generation and have revitalised the approach to strategic thinking and strategy development.

Many of the assumptions that were embedded in traditional strategy models may be incomplete and outdated as we approach a new competitive milieu (for example, the prediction of set courses and the assumption of stability). The need for strategic thinking and behaviour among managers has never been more urgent. This reality is forcing scholars and practioners to reexamine the traditional strategy paradigms. This study, therefore, within the framework of the global literature on strategy, attempts to replicate some of the most recent studies that are searching for new paradigms in strategic management in the public sector.

The emphasis on the investigation of the transferability of a management tool from the West to solve some of the numerous problems in the African academic arena is of interest in management research.

The study from the Ghanaian point of view is a novel undertaking in the sense that strategic planning in universities in Ghana is a fresh endeavour and empirical strategic planning investigation in Ghanaian university libraries is completely non-existent.

It is also one of the very few research projects in the country that has employed the multiple case study strategy to its full extent, filling a void in social studies methodology which has been dominated by studies on 'survey methods' and 'single' cases offering few guidelines on how to overcome the problem of general applicability of results in the case of the single cases and the lack of trustworthiness in questionnaire surveys. This study employs both qualitative and quantitative modes of data collection and analysis, testing emergent theories through replications of the findings in more than four cases within each of the two very different geographical entities - Ghana and the UK.

In a number of ways, it is hoped that this thesis will contribute to and update knowledge about university libraries in Ghana particularly library management, and draw attention to the viability of the strategic planning concept as it is presently practised in university libraries and other departments in the universities in Ghana. It should also enable librarians

in Ghana to adopt a strategy from their own cultural perspectives that may work to improve information provision in University libraries and other tertiary institutions.

Very strong political, cultural and other arguments that have been expressed by respondents in this report go some way towards proving the influence of these variables in determining a workable strategy for libraries in Ghana and this may encourage curriculum designers to be concerned with the social and organisational contexts of strategy formulation and therefore consider these as essential factors in any future course developments.

This investigation has undoubtedly unveiled some of the inadequacies of the existing information provision measures, and therefore calls for Ghanaian academic librarians to rethink their plans with a view to redefining some of the established concepts of academic librarianship.

The discussion at the end of this report as well as the suggestions for new directions for strategy implementation attempt to bring out some factors which may influence the development of university libraries, as emphasis has been laid on co-ordination of the environment and library development based on the libraries' existing and latent abilities, an important aspect of planning that seems to be lacking in the Ghanaian context. This study is also envisaged as springboard for further investigation of the concept of strategy in African libraries, particularly in Ghana.

The thesis consists of eleven chapters. Chapter Two discusses strategic planning in some detail. It begins by defining strategic planning from the literature of management and organisation theory. Some of the earlier literature is reviewed and the steps in the traditional paradigm and the link between strategy and the environment are highlighted. The disadvantages of classical models are discussed as well as the search for new strategic paradigms. Strategic planning in the African context is considered, providing a setting for consideration of the Ghanaian perspective. The review of the literature concludes with a discussion of strategic planning in university libraries with particular reference to the effects of culture, politics, technology and other influential factors on the planning process, ending with some of the ideas in current research on strategies for meeting the needs of users of university libraries.

The details of the research methodology can be found in Chapter Three. The research design is described with an attempt to justify the use of the multiple case study approach. The disadvantages and advantages of this strategy and other theoretical arguments are presented. The theoretical framework on which the research is based is discussed. The rest of the chapter consists of the details of data gathering and analysis. Descriptions of the development and applications of all instruments used are provided .

A brief geography and history of Ghana are provided in Chapter Four. Chapter Five describes the Ghanaian environment, focusing on the economic, social, educational and technological issues.

Chapter Six presents information on the corporate environments of the Ghanaian libraries studied and discusses issues regarding the libraries' own environments. The history and traditions of the universities are described. The universities' demographics, budgets, policies and other operational factors are presented. Information on the libraries' environments include organisational structures, history and traditions, services, user statistics and their current resources.

The findings and results of this study are presented in Chapters Seven, Eight, Nine and Ten. Chapter Seven contains the analysis of data and findings on mission/goals and vision statements of the major stakeholders in the UK and Ghanaian university libraries. Chapter Eight presents the analysis of data and findings on the resource capabilities of the university libraries. The main factors that affect the strategic planning process in university libraries' own environments are presented in Chapter Nine. Chapter Ten focuses on the analysis of data and findings on the factors that affect the fit between the university libraries and their external environments.

An approach to the strategic provision of information in university libraries in Ghana is described, based upon the deductions from the findings in the UK university library systems, the factors that affect the strategic planning process in Ghanaian university libraries and some past studies are presented in Chapter Eleven. Key issues identified in strategy formulation in the UK university library systems and their possible translation to Ghana's University library systems are discussed extensively. Also included in Chapter Eleven are the main conclusions drawn from the study and the implications for development

of information provision strategy for university libraries in Ghana. Recommendations for future research conclude the chapter.



# **CHAPTER TWO**

## **STRATEGIC PLANNING**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Strategic planning may be said to have arrived on the scene in the mid 1960s as an organisational component of American business firms (Haines, 1988). During the past thirty years or so the idea of strategy has received increasing recognition in management literature. The overall research in this area has progressed from the early writings of the strategic management scholars such as Ansoff (1965), Steiner (1970), Andrews (1971) and Taylor(1973) to a plethora of ideas by a spectrum of authors. An examination suggests that the character of the field has been a maze of several perspectives with the 1965-1985 being the period of major growth.

The dominant paradigm has been the classical approach or the rational strategic process which this study has attempted to define in the early part of the review of related literature under the heading- 'The Concept of strategy'. The major components of the traditional strategic planning are outlined. This is then followed by a review of the research that has shown the link between the environment and strategy formation.

Formal planning has, in general, received the kind of attention and support from top management that most emerging techniques can only dream of. But the big question is: Has it made existing businesses more successful than they otherwise would have been? A body of literature linking strategy and business performance has been reviewed as well as a host of critiques of the idea that strategic planning touts as a panacea for the ills of business.

Strategic planning in Africa is discussed. This has provided a framework for establishing the emerging variables that affect the process in Ghana in the context of the Africa sub-region.

A review of some of the relevant literature about strategic planning in universities and other higher education institutions is also presented.

The study has finally been related to the larger, on going dialogue in the literature on strategic planning in universities and other academic libraries.

## 2.2 THE CONCEPT OF STRATEGY

During the past three decades in particular, there has developed a substantial body of literature in the field of strategy. This literature owes much to the earlier writings of business historian Alfred Chandler (1962), businessman Alfred Sloan (1963), theorist Igor Ansoff (1965) and research undertaken at Harvard Business School.

Bracker (1980) traces the concept of strategy to the Greek word 'strategos' which means a 'general', which in turn comes from roots meaning 'army' and 'lead'. The link between military and business practice however came early when Socrates consoled Nichomachides, a Greek soldier who had lost an election to the position of general to a mere businessman. According to Bracker (1980:219), Socrates explained to Nichomachides that the duties of a general and a businessman were equivalent: both involve planning the use of one's resources in order to meet objectives.

The terms 'long range planning', 'corporate planning', 'strategic planning', 'planning', 'strategy', and of late, strategic management and other combinations of these words, have been used in several contexts to mean the same thing and have also been used to mean different things. As a result, many definitions of strategy abound and while conflict about definitions, confusion and abundance of jargon characterise this field, this study will focus on the following definitions of strategy.

Chandler defined corporate strategy as:

the determination of the basic long-term goals and the objectives of an enterprise and the adoption of course of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals.(Chandler, 1962: 13)

Andrews (1971) modified Chandler's definition as follows:

Corporate strategy is the pattern of major objectives, purposes or goals and essential policies or plans for achieving those goals, stated in such a way as to define what business the

company is in or is to be in and the kind of company it is or is to be (Andrews, 1971: 28).

Taylor and Sparkes (1977) defined planning as:

an analytical process which involves an assessment of the future, the determination of desired objectives in the context of that future, the development of alternate courses of action to achieve such objectives and the selection of courses of action from among these alternatives (Taylor and Sparkes, 1977:3).

In a similar definition McClure (1978) stated that:

planning is the process of identifying organisational goals and objectives, developing programs or services to accomplish those objectives and evaluating the success of those programs vis-à-vis the stated objectives (McClure, 1978: 456).

Drucker (1974) also defined strategic planning as:

a continuous process of making entrepreneurial (risk-taking) decisions systematically and with the greatest knowledge of their futurity; organising systematically the efforts needed to carry out these decisions against the expectations through organised feedback (Drucker, 1974: 125),

and states further that the

prime task of strategic management is thinking through the mission of a business; that is, of asking questions, “what is our business?- and what should it be?” This leads to the setting of objectives, the development of strategies and plans and the making of today’s decisions for tomorrow’s results. This clearly must only be done by a part of the organisation

that can see the entire business: that can balance objectives and the needs of today against the needs of tomorrow and that can allocate resource of men and money to key results.(Drucker: 611)

Steiner (1979: 13-15) defines strategic planning from four points of view. The first is the futurity of current decisions. Strategic planning looks at the chain of cause and effect, consequences over time of an actual or intended decision that a planner is going to make, looks at alternative courses of action, identifies opportunities and threats and, in combination with relevant data, provides better decisions for a company based on these opportunities and threats. Second, strategic planning is a process that begins with the setting of organisational aims, defines strategies and policies to achieve them and develops detailed plans to make sure the strategies are implemented to achieve the ends sought. Third, strategic planning is an attitude, a way of life and fourth, a formal strategic system links three major types of plans: strategic plans, medium-range programs and short-range budgets and operating plans.

The definitions of strategic planning may be many but there are several common themes that are consistently present in the various definitions. Based on some of these concepts, strategic planning may be viewed as the formulation, implementation and evaluation of actions that will enable an organisation to achieve its objectives. Strategy formulation includes identifying an organisation's internal strengths and weaknesses, determining an organisation's external opportunities and threats, establishing goals, devising policies, motivating employees and allocating resources in a manner that will allow formulated strategies to be pursued successfully. Strategy evaluation monitors the results of formulation and implementation.

Strategic planning has been interpreted in relation to many paradigms (Schendel and Hofer, 1979; Bower, 1982; Greenwood and Thomas, 1981). Though Bower (1982) argue that despite some existing paradigms there is no central organising paradigm for the strategic management field, most of the models presented in the literature, especially in the nineteen eighties have been related to the Schendel and Hofer's earlier paradigm (1979) which for a long time was believed to be the best available traditional organising framework for the

field and because of that was adopted at the International Conference on Strategic Management Frontiers in Arlington (February 1983).

The traditional paradigm, see Figure 2. 1 which has also been supported by other authors like Harrigan (1980), Porter (1980) and Doz (1979), consists of the following steps and tasks: goal formulation, environmental analysis, strategy formulation, strategy evaluation, strategy implementation and strategy control.

Before a planning system is introduced in an organisation managers must know the purposes that a strategic planning system may address. Steiner (1979) presents the following list as some of the purposes of formal strategic planning:

- Change direction of the company.
- Accelerate growth and improve profitability.
- Weed out poor performers among divisions.
- Flush up strategic issues for top management consideration.
- Concentrate resources on important things. Guide divisions and research personnel in developing new products. Allocate assets to areas of best potential.
- Develop better information for top managers to make better decisions.
- Develop a frame of reference for budgets and short-range operating plans.
- Develop situation analysis of opportunities and threats to provide better awareness of company's potential in light of its strengths and weaknesses.
- Develop better internal co-ordination of activities.
- Develop better communications.

Because others are doing it. (Steiner, 1979: 58).

An empirical study by Kono (1976) identified some of these reasons for doing strategic planning. He compared long range planning in Japan and the USA. For the cases studied in

the USA, Kono found that 65% of the sample undertook strategic planning to improve better allocation of resources, 52%, to make decisions based on long range forecasting and 44% to clarify goals and policies of the company. From the Japanese perspective to clarify goals and policies of the company scored 89%, to examine basic problems of the company 82% and to make decisions based on long range forecasting scored 53%. His overall finding was that in the USA long range planning is used to integrate the strategies of divisions and to control the divisions. The planning process is usually bottom-up rather than top-down. In Japan he found that long range planning was used for improving the strategic decisions of top management, so the planning process is a centralised interactive process.

An important characteristic of the strategy paradigm that has been widely investigated and has relevance to this study has been the assumption of a link between an organisation's strategic profile and its environment.

For many of today's organisations, success or failure, profit or loss, growth or decline depend on how well they respond to the environment. Burrack and Mathys (1989) describe the components of the environment of a public organisation as the macro environment and the micro environment and advocates a comprehensive environmental analysis to understand the environment in which an organisation operates so as to confront the issues that may affect its progress.



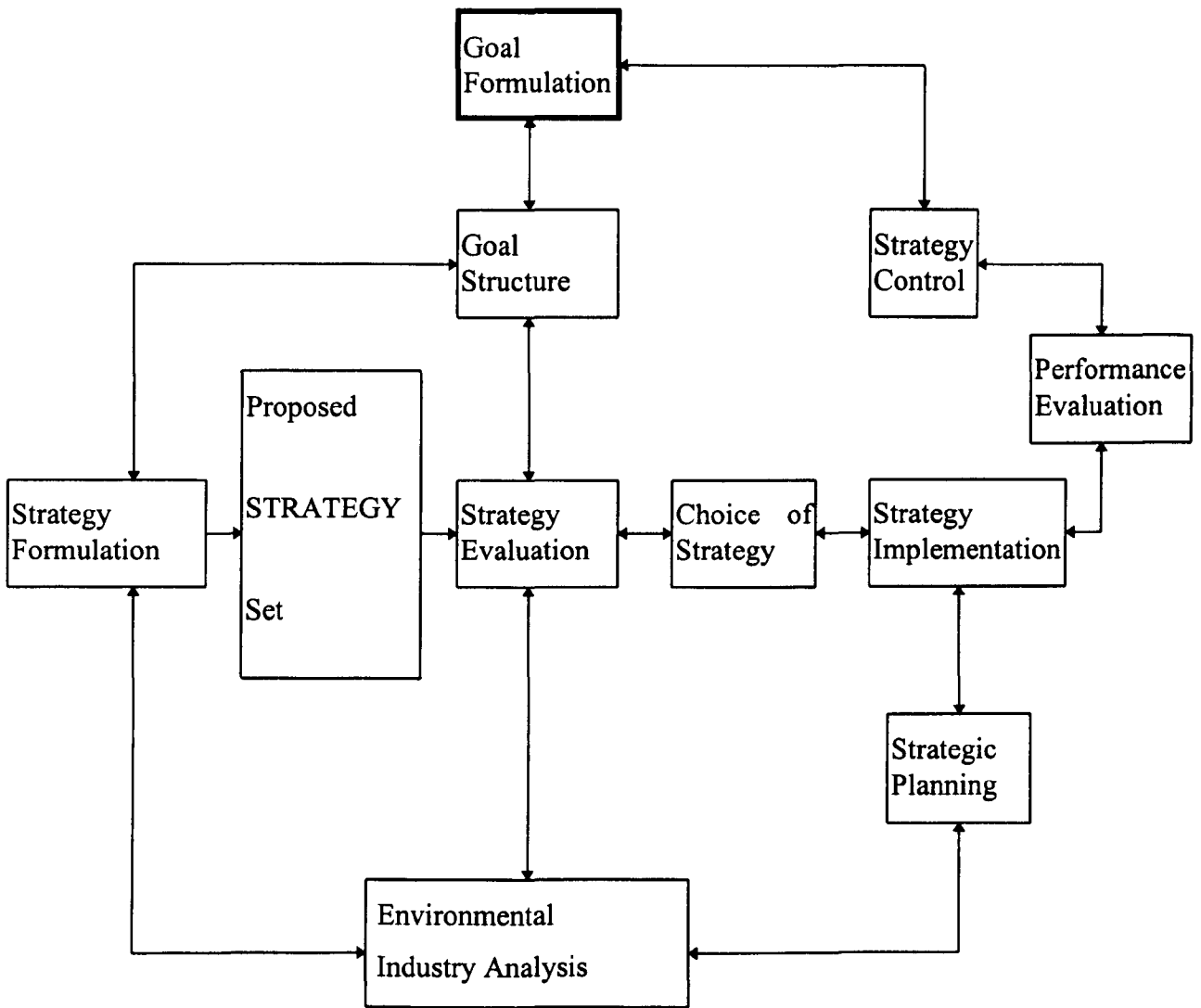


Figure 2.1 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PARADIGM (Adopted from Schendel and Hofer, 1979).

The information on a firm's external environment is obtained through environmental scanning. Scanning the environment for information to improve strategic planning has been thoroughly discussed in the theoretical literature (Andrews, 1980; Ansoff, 1965; Schendel and Hofer, 1979; Steiner, 1969). However, it was Aguillar's seminal work in 1967 that began the empirical examination of the environmental scanning process (Hofer, 1976; Prebble, Rau and Reichel, 1988). Since Aguilar's work (1967), many refinements and developments have taken place in scanning research (Collins, 1968; Keegan, 1974; Ryne, 1985).

In a more recent study Hayward (1996) states that environmental scanning is a process by which an organisation collates and analyses information about its external environment and it is considered as the first part of the strategic planning process with the aim of identifying trends and their implications for organisations. Hayward states further that it is important because, if an organisation wishes to achieve its aims and objectives, it cannot afford to stagnate by ignoring the environment. Hayward's study investigates the effectiveness of environmental scanning. It identifies and determines the techniques used and information gathered in the scanning process, and considers the frameworks used to disseminate and analyse the information within the context of both private organisations and public systems, in an attempt to determine the applicability and benefits to be derived for the latter. The study identified the role that information professionals have to play in environmental scanning in their organisations.

Ginter and Duncan (1990) also acknowledge the importance of macroenvironmental analysis. In their article, they state that macroenvironmental analysis is an integral part of systematic strategic planning. Like Burrack and Mathys (1989) they assert that, for the purposes of analysis, the macroenvironment should be classified under the headings Political/Regulatory, Economic, Social, Technology (PEST). They then cite the Ford Motor Company's market success with Tarus and Sable automobiles as an illustration of Ford's early recognition and response to society's emerging preference for superior product design. In contrast they mention the failure of the Caterpillar Tractor Company in the early 1980s to anticipate and respond to world-wide economic shifts, resulting in a dramatic decline for the company. They however discuss the major frustrations in macroenvironmental analysis as the inability to organise for effective environment scanning, the difficulty in matching

individual beliefs and detectable trends, the inability to obtain pertinent and timely information, delays between the occurrence of external events and management's ability to interpret them and general inability to respond quickly enough to take advantage of the trends detected. They state also that the process of macroenvironmental scanning consists of four interrelated activities, namely, scanning, monitoring, forecasting and assessing. They conclude that macroenvironmental analysis is an essential component of the strategic planning process, but regret that there are few guidelines for conducting macroenvironmental analysis activities while critical questions concerning macroenvironmental analysis remain unanswered.

Miller and Freisen (1983) conducted a quantitative study of two distinct samples of firms by exploring the relationship between strategy-making and the environment. They hypothesised that increases in environmental dynamism, hostility and heterogeneity should be related to specific changes in the amount of analysis and innovation which characterises strategy-making activity. The first sample consisted of 50 Canadian financial firms selected randomly from a number of diverse organisations and second of 36 US business organisations. The overall finding was that most of the relationships tended to be much stronger in successful than unsuccessful firms. For example, relative to (sample of) poor performers, (samples of) successful firms showed more positive correlations between increases in environmental dynamism and increases in analysis and innovation.

In a later investigation Venkatraman and Prescott (1990) explored the positive performance impact of a coalignment between the environment and business strategy as an important theoretical proposition in strategic management. They argued in favour of specifying coalignment as 'profile deviation' which states that coalignment is the degree to which strategic resource deployments adhere to an 'ideal profile' for a given environment. This proposition is tested across two time periods and eight distinct environments in two different samples drawn from Profit Impact of Market Strategies (PIMS) database. The results strongly support the proposition of a positive performance impact of environment-strategy coalignment.

These studies however have only supported market driven economies sampled from firms in the United States and other Western countries. Kiggundu, Jorgensen and Hafsi(1983) have

shown that an organisation's relationship with its environment differs markedly from country to country and the tendency to transfer conventional western theories to other countries has proved problematical.

The situation was confirmed in a Russian study as multinational companies that had scrambled to enter Russia after the fall of communism are now discovering that the market is not as lucrative as they had expected (Bayer, Shama and Alhadef, 1995). They noted that these companies have learnt that their strategies were frustrated because of a variety of environmental problems, notable ones being an unstable economy, poor infrastructure, lack of a legislative framework and a host of crimes that run the gamut from hooliganism to corruption in government.

Strategic planning may be seen as a process which, if effectively employed, can provide substantial rewards to managers and administrators. In 1968, Perrin identified five real pay offs of planning:

- Impact on staff, they have a clearer sense of direction, take a broader view and understanding of the companies' problems.
- It provides an opportunity of reviving the company from first principles.
- Accelerated growth for profits.
- Leads to better timing so that changes and opportunities ahead are exploited.
- Should be able to optimise resource allocation and improve co-ordination. (Perrin, 1968: 4)

The question has been raised consistently over the years by some authors about whether there is documentary evidence that some of these benefits outlined by Perrin are true.

Several empirical studies have been done to support the theory that formal long range planning improves an organisation's efficiency and effectiveness. Robinson and Pearce(1984) cite several studies to support this position:

Chicha and Julien in1979 studied 90 manufacturing firms whose staff strengths were from 5-199 with \$10 million annual sales. They used questionnaires to do a longitudinal study

from 1968-1979 on the relationship of strategic planning and performance. They identified four types of strategies and found out that there were significant increases in (1) number of personnel, (2) sales, and (3) assets for firms having highest degree of strategic planning evidenced by the number of strategy changes (Robinson and Pearce, 1984).

In a similar study in 1979, Robinson by using a field study investigated the impact of the adoption of strategic planning and the resultant strategy on a firm's performance. His sample size was 42 service firms with less than \$150,000 in annual sales. He also found out that strategic planning improved organisational management decision making, which in turn led to significant increases in sales and profit and a significant decrease in debt/equity ratios (Robinson and Pearce, 1984).

By the use of mail questionnaires Potts in 1977 studied 42 manufacturing firms. His objective was to compare the use of outside accounting/financial services between successful and failing small businesses. His conclusion was that successful firms used outside accounting services as part of their strategic planning activities more extensively than did unsuccessful firms (Robinson and Pearce, 1984).

Bracker in 1982 also describes a study he conducted to assess the relationship among entrepreneurial type, planning sophistication and performance in 224 dry cleaners using a mixed methodology approach of interviews and questionnaires. These businesses made under \$3 million in annual sales. The study found that small dry cleaners using 'structured' strategic planning performed significantly higher in relation to industry standards than did cleaners using any other type of planning (Robinson and Pearce, 1984).

The annual sales of the firms involved in all the studies appear to be small which implies that they are relatively small businesses. This could possibly explain the results which then raise a possible hypothesis that strategic planning is more effective in small business set-ups than big business firms. But many studies, for example, Thume and House, 1970, Ansoff et al, 1970 have reported that companies which practised formal planning, produced better corporate performance measurable in sales, earnings per share, and ratio of profit to capital employed than those which did not practice formal planning.

Hofer , after surveying some strategic planning research came to this conclusion:

Although subjective evaluation of results by management does not differ greatly between planners and non planners, objective financial measurements-sales growth rate, earning growth, eps growth, total assets growth, stock price growth, and so on- show a substantial difference on virtually all relevant financial criteria, the planners of our sample significantly outperformed the non-planners not only did the planners do better on the average but they also performed more predictably than did non planners. Planners seem to have narrowed the uncertainty in the outcomes of acquisition behaviour (Hofer, 1976: 263).

Hofer also cited other studies that found different correlations between performances of planners and non planners in different industries and which also raised the question of whether formal planning might be more effective in some fields of endeavour than in others.

In a more recent article titled "Is strategic management living up to its promise?" Peter Pekar Jr. and Stan Abraham (1995) supported the value of strategic planning for big and small businesses. They describe a 1993 study of strategic management in the US, based on a survey of Business Week's top 1000 companies. The study shows that their 3-years Return On Investment (ROI) grows with sophistication in strategic management. It also shows that the best planning firms excel in all stages of strategic management activities with the worst ones rating themselves weakest in all stages. Likewise the Chief Planning Officer in the best planning firms has a significantly higher profile and commands a larger bonus than his counterpart in the weak planning firm, given their admitted weaknesses in strategic management and the low average ROIs of their companies. The appearance of progress, however, conceals some problems. Three out of seven managers expresses difficulty in all aspects of new business development, internationalisation of plans, and in shifting from a 'control' mode of thought to a business-building and collaborative mentality. The study further showed that unsophisticated companies showed weaknesses in the most basic strategic management activity-financial planning. Respondents were also asked to complete ten self-test questions that appeared in a 1992 Harvard Business Review article, to determine a senior manager's strategic management activities. It was found that, while most managers like to think they are strategists, only a very few know how to develop sophisticated processes and capabilities.

Despite the studies on the success story of strategic planning, some authors do not believe it has been a panacea for the ills of business. In fact top managers and management commentators are asking whether their commitment to strategic planning has really paid off.

The arguments are many and varied. Malcolm W. Pennington, Vice President of Golightly International in New York as early as 1972 noted that planning was not making a vast and continuing contribution to more effective business management (Pennington, 1972). In practice, planning, according to him had been a resounding and expensive failure. He claimed that a survey of any representative group of companies would document the conclusion that in most of them planning still fell short of making an important contribution to corporate accomplishment and that top management was either not getting the results it expected and needed from planning, or was unable or unwilling to use the results. He provides five guidelines that he believes could give planning a better chance. These are:

- Involve top management at key points, but only at key points.
- Involve the doers in planning
- Don't look for the perfect answer.
- Plan for a real world.
- Start small, move slowly.(Pennington, 1972:3)

Wilson (1994) provides seven causes of the failure of the strategic planning process in General Electric which he termed, 'the seven deadly sins of strategic planning':

- The staff took over the process.
- The process dominated the staff.
- Planning systems were virtually designed to produce no results.
- Planning focused on the more exciting game of mergers, acquisitions and divestitures at the expense of core business development.
- Planning processes failed to develop true strategic choices.
- Planning neglected the organisational and cultural requirements of strategy.
- Single-point forecasting was an inappropriate basis for planning in an era of restructuring and uncertainty (Wilson, 1994: 13).

In rather a more moderate line of thinking, Wilson (1994) admits that strategic planning has changed dramatically since its inception in the early 1970s. Having survived its original design flaws, it has evolved into a viable system of strategic management (or strategic thinking). In an effort to be more specific about the nature and the extent of these changes, Wilson surveyed 50 corporations in a variety of countries and industries to determine their current practices and the changes that have occurred over the past 5-7 years.

The study also found that planning systems have become more sophisticated in their selection of planning techniques (such as the growth-share matrix or the experience curve), and a greater willingness to use techniques (such as scenario planning and total quality management) that are less mechanistic in their approach and more sensitive to the critical uncertainty of many of the variables that planning must address. The most provocative finding, however, is the growing emphasis on organisation and culture as critical ingredients in the execution of strategy. This change represents a recognition that the values, motivation and the behaviour of the organisation's members are critical determinants of corporate performance and so of success or failure in implementing strategy.

There is further evidence that the differences between countries' social system and changes within countries' social systems also have implications for the success of strategic planning. Whitley (1990) has shown that in Southeast Asia prevailing forms of business may vary widely according to the local interplay of state, familial and market structures. Thus, in South Korea, a traditionally strong state has promoted the creation of the vast Chaebol conglomerates; in nearby Taiwan, by contrast, the combination of an exclusionary Kuomintang state with the peculiar culture of Chinese family business has created an entrepreneurial economy of small and medium-sized firms, loosely linked by familial networks. Whitley(1990) concludes that:

different kinds of enterprise structures become feasible and successful in particular social contexts, especially where cultures are homogeneous and share strong boundaries with nation states (Whitley, 1990: 21).

Mintzberg (1994) in a two part article based on his book titled 'The rise and fall of strategic planning', contends in Part1 that planners have tended to blame the problems of the so called 'strategic planning' on a set of 'pitfalls'- notably the lack of top management support,



organisational climates not congenial to planning and the political pitfalls. Mintzberg argues that the problem with strategic planning lies deeper than these pitfalls in a set of what he terms 'fallacies'. He discusses the fallacy of predetermination - the capabilities of predicting discontinuities, the fallacy of detachment-being able to detach strategists from the subjects of their strategy making, the fallacy of formalisation - about being able to formalise the strategy making process in the first place.

He concludes that because analysis is not the same as synthesis, strategic planning has never been strategy making. Analysis, he believes, may precede and support synthesis by defining the parts that can be combined into wholes. Analysis may follow and elaborate synthesis, by decomposing and formalising its consequences. But analysis cannot substitute for synthesis and no amount of elaboration will ever enable formal procedures to forecast discontinuities, to inform detached managers, to create novel strategies. Thus planning far from providing strategies, could not proceed without their prior existence. Mintzberg states further that all this time 'strategic planning' has been misnamed and should have been called 'strategic programming', and promoted as a process to formalise, when necessary, the consequences of strategies already developed, and that, ultimately, the term 'strategic planning' has proved itself to be an oxymoron.

In part 2 of his article titled 'Rethinking strategic planning Part 2: new roles for planners' Mintzberg writes that based on the conclusions from the first article, so called 'strategic planning' really amounts to strategic programming designed to operationalise the strategy an organisation already has, rather than to give it a strategy in the first place. He states further that plans likewise line up after strategy making, as media for communicating and devices for control. Planners, besides concerning themselves with such planning and plans when they are necessary, have other important roles to play: as finders of emerging strategies, as analysts who feed important information often overlooked by line managers into the strategy process and as catalysts who encourage strategic thinking and strategic acting, not strategic planning.

Commenting on the assertions of Mintzberg, Ansoff (1994) admits that the original version of strategic planning is no longer with us. He, however, disagrees that strategic planning is dead as stated by Mintzberg (1994:12). In Ansoff's view it has been transmuted into several

different varieties of strategic planning which respond to different environmental challenges. Reacting to Mintzberg's claim that flexible strategic planning is an oxymoron, he reminds him that in practical reality making planning flexible has been a central theme in the transmutation of strategic planning into its present variety. He accuses Mintzberg of quoting parts of other authors work which support his thesis but completely ignoring quotations from the same authors which are contradictory to it.

In his contribution to the debate, Ansoff (1991) enumerates the changes which have taken place in the theory and practice of strategic planning from 1965-1991 including the need to develop organisational capability, the advocacy of the notion of strategic management and the need to deal with strategic issues.

The search for planning effectiveness continues on two levels: content and process and the need for strategic thinking was emphasised by Michael Porter, Harvard Business School Professor in a London Economist article on 'The State of Strategic Thinking'(May 23 1987):

Strategic planning in most companies has not contributed to strategic thinking. The answer, however is not to abandon planning. Instead strategic thinking needs to be rethought and recast. What has been under attack (is) the techniques and organisational processes which companies used.

In a rather provocative book, Richard Whittington (1993) also challenges the basic assumptions of the management orthodoxy. He asserts that orthodox strategic planning assumes predictable environments, similar competitions and rational managers. In practice however, he claims that the reality is different because environments are turbulent and international competition is different and managers are often chronically unable to focus rationally on the bottom-line. He proposes four basic theoretical approaches to strategy-making, all with radically different assumptions about how strategy works: the classical approach, the craft-like processual approach, the efficiency driven evolutionary approach and the internationally-sensitive systemic approach. Whittington then applies these approaches to a series of key strategic issues and works out the practical implications of different theories for key issues of innovation, internationalisation, diversification, leadership, strategic and implementation. He states emphatically his preference for the systemic approach to strategy because, in his view, with the internationalisation of business

and the acceleration of global change, the systemic appreciation of social system difference and dynamism is more than ever important to strategists today. This book however is confined to business strategy without any serious consideration of the applicability of the approaches to the public sector.

Whittington is but one of the many authors searching for a new strategic paradigm. In fact, a whole issue of the Strategic Management Journal has been devoted to the topic: 'Strategy; search for new paradigm'. Some of the contributors, for example, Rumelt, Schendel and Teece(1994), have been concerned with the direction of strategy research and practice and have recognised that the predominance of concepts and analysis that characterised the growth of strategic planning from 1965-1985 must give way to a re-evaluation to pave the way for new ideas.

Some of these new ideas have been suggested in Volume 15 of the Strategic Management Journal. For example, the article by Hosmer suggests the reinstatement of ethics in strategic management with particular emphasis on ethical analysis of decisions (Hosmer, 1994). In the same edition Rose and Ito (Rose and Ito, 1994) also suggest genealogy as a tool of diversified firms and the application of anthropological sociology as well as economic reasoning to understanding diversification. This particular issue (Vol 15) has shown that more than ever the strategy area presents a fertile field for innovative research during this decade and beyond(Strategic Management Journal 15,1994)

### **2.3 STRATEGIC PLANNING IN AFRICA**

The literature on strategic management in Africa dates back to the early 1980s. While the principles of corporate planning may appear to be the same in all countries, the practice is expected to vary from one country to the other because of differences in socio-cultural, economic, political and technological factors.

Awuah(1991), a Principal Lecturer at the Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration(GIMPA), a regional centre of management excellence, writes on the principles, processes and practice of strategic planning. He attempts to differentiate plans from strategic planning and identifies operations, administration and strategic planning as

the three types of planning. He then provides an extensive discussion on the principles that underlie strategic planning. As part of his views on the processes of strategic planning he writes on strategy formulation, strategy scenario and performance, and quality of strategy analysis. He goes on to present samples of answers that were worked out by various study groups at 1986 and 1987 workshops at GIMPA in the pioneering teaching of strategic planning in Ghana. The last part of the book deals with strategy implementation within organisations and the broad issues of managing the change brought about by the implementation process. The chapter also contains a manual titled 'Performance Improvement Planning'. Exercises on some practical aspects of strategy formation are also provided. The ideas expressed in this book are solely based on the traditional thinking that has characterised many of the books written for Western countries.

The reasons why African business managers do strategic planning are many and varied. Andre van Dam (1972) writes that corporate bodies in Africa and Asia did planning in their framework of national priorities. These priorities reflected the overwhelming requirement for progress of their nations or as part of their overall national development plans.

Writing on health strategy for Nigeria, Adeyami and Petu (1989) share Andre van Dam's (1972) view by stating that generally planning in Nigeria has had for all sectors followed the national objectives as expressed in the National Development Plan 1970-75 Vol. 12. They believe this reason for doing strategic planning in a developing economy like Nigeria has disastrous consequences. This is because it would have been appropriate to develop an inter sectoral plan to solve whatever problems are identified in one particular sector. In addition to this they identify very poor funding of the health sector as a factor in the unsuccessful planning of that sector. They recommend a separate strategic plan for each sector in Nigeria and a health system infrastructure including manpower based on intra sectoral priority and an increase in the level of funding for the health services to assist the strategic planning process.

The Association of Africa Universities (AAU)(1995) however attributes the need for strategic planning in African universities in this present world to the challenges caused by limited financial resources and an increase in student population which have resulted in inadequate instructional materials and facilities in many African universities. In its report on

a AAU/UNESCO workshop on strategic planning in African universities, a background to the report attempts to justify the use of strategic planning. The report discusses UNESCO's commitment to provide priority assistance for the improvement of both the quality and professional efficiency of university management. It sets out the objectives of the workshop and provides comprehensive guidelines based on the traditional strategic planning model for use by African universities. The report further provides case studies of the Universities of Ghana, Fort Hare, and Zimbabwe whose strategic plans are outlined in the appendices of the report with a discussion of the strategic planning experiences of these institutions.

Fubara (1986) investigated corporate planning in Nigeria to find out specifically whether formal planning or long-range planning was the panacea for the kind of corporate failures that engulfed the performances of Nigerian companies. To accomplish this, the researcher mailed a self-completion-questionnaire to 50 companies. The sample was made up of agro-based, manufacturing, finance and investment and service companies. Among his findings, Fubara discovered that the general pattern of planning in Nigeria companies was informal but not strategic. The evidence tended to show that what the corporate executives formalised was budgeting rather than planning. He argued that corporate planning should be futuristic, innovative and responsive to changes in the business environment but all these were lacking in the so called 'plans' of those companies. It was his view that such informal plans left the companies vulnerable to the slightest storm in the economy.

Fubara also identified five variables that served as constraints and contingencies that account for the poor performance trends in his sampled companies. These were presented by environmental uncertainty, complexity, change and munificence. These he stated as workers/employee, socio-cultural, legal, government and technology.

Some of Fubara's findings are in agreement with the work of Nambudiri and Saiyadain (1978) who found out that by 1980 there was a very low level of understanding of corporate planning in Nigeria and India.

In a similar study Adegbite (1986) also examines some aspects of corporate planning within the context of a less developed economy, Nigeria. He poses this question: What are the special problems of planning in a less developed economic environment and how have these problems affected the practice of corporate planning in such an economy? In addition to

mailed questionnaires, structured interviews were held with the chief executives or appropriate senior managers of 15 out of 20 companies. The 20 respondents cut across the various industrial and commercial sectors of the Nigerian economy. He found that the Nigerian environment was very unpredictable but a high percentage (95%) of the respondents had formal corporate planning systems in operation dating back to the mid 1960s and early 1970s. Among the difficulties encountered in Nigeria were :

- Uncertainty about government long-term policies and legislation.
- Rapid changes in the environment.
- Lack of management commitment to plans
- The 'roller-coaster' nature of the economy and excessive government interference in the private sector and
- Lack of cohesiveness in general policy and inconsistency in policy implementation by government.

The general conclusion is that modern management practice relating to corporate and allied areas had become institutionalised in large scale industrial and commercial enterprises in Nigeria at the period of his study. This is not surprising because the majority of the companies in the sample were at one time or another subsidiaries of multinational corporations. Even though most of the multinational corporations had lost majority equity control following the indigenisation decrees of the military, they still retained effective management for most of the companies, all of which continued to benefit from the wealth of experience of their overseas partners. Adegbite, however, states that his findings and conclusion could not be generalised to include indigenous Nigerian enterprises or state-owned companies which are governed by forces and pressures somewhat different from those confronting companies with significant foreign equity participation.

Mrema's study (1987) appears to be in agreement with Adegbeti's view on the influence of foreign companies' participation in Africa's strategic planning process. He investigated strategic planning in the Tanzania Wood Industry Corporation(TWICO). According to Mrema, TWICO contracted some Finnish consultants to audit and recommend a better management practice for the company. They recommended strategic planning. He found that power relations and conflicting interests of managers were the main organisational

problems facing the company. He concluded that it is not easy to introduce strategic planning in public sector organisation particularly in a developing country. This he attributes to the high cost of information, the inadequacy of quality manpower to generate the information and the scarcity of information generation facilities. Despite these problems strategic planning in the author's view has had some impact on the management in TWICO. It has offered the managers an opportunity to think about issues which are important for the future success of their business.

Some other research findings have identified several other factors that differentiate the planning environment in developing countries from that of developed countries in support of Adegbite and Mrema's researches ( for example, Teriba, Edozien and Kayode, 1981; Yavas, Kaynak and Dibe, 1985). Such factors can be summarised as the absence of the technology required to systematically monitor the environment and collect needed data, highly unstable economic and political environments, lower levels of general and management education, absence of a systematic data depository or information sources and the absence of political and social infrastructures necessary for the carrying out of environmental scanning activities.

In a more recent study Sawyer (1993) confirms Africa's uncertain environment in his investigation of the relationship between the perception of environmental uncertainty (PEU) and the environmental scanning behaviour of chief executive officers of 47 manufacturing firms in Nigeria. A second purpose was to compare the results of the first aim with those of previous research in the area of environmental uncertainty in order to identify any differences or similarities in the scanning behaviour of these two groups of executives.

The results indicate that the degree of perceived environmental uncertainty created by the task environment sectors (consisting of competitor/industry, customer/market, and sources of resources) is significantly greater than the degree of perceived environmental uncertainty created by the remote environment (made up of factors external to the firm that exert great influence on its operations but over which the firm has little or no control i.e., economic, political, technological and socio-cultural sectors). The study also found that Nigerian executives in the sample differed in important ways from their American counterparts in their scanning behaviour. The political sector was ranked higher in the level of perceived

uncertainty by the Nigerian executives than the American executives while the technology sector was ranked higher in perceived uncertainty by American executives than their Nigerian counterparts. Sawyer by implication is trying to say that the political and economic environment in the practice of management in developing countries are important. Developed nations, in his view, are typically characterised by relatively stable political and economic environments. Managers in developing countries however are faced with unstable political and economic environments. Government policies, according to Sawyer, are uncertain and unpredictable and lobbying is not a national culture and major decisions that affect the conduct of business are made unilaterally by government for political reasons and often without adequate regard for possible economic consequences.

Haines (1988) found that corporate planning models published in the literature are impractical for developing countries as they require a precision of input that it is not possible to obtain from these countries. His study found that officials in Nigeria for 20 years bemoaned the lateness and inadequacy of the government statistics and as a result most decisions were taken on the national level with no accurate figure for key yardsticks such as balance of payments and inflation. Figures, if released at all, were either understated or overstated to satisfy the political barometer. He also found that marketing information for strategy formation in business were unreliable, often lacking or deficient. The lack of the information input for the strategic planning model, coupled with political instability, makes, in the opinion of Haines, the corporate planning assignment very difficult to do if not impossible. He therefore suggests his own model which he believes can work in many third world countries.

## **2.4 STRATEGIC PLANNING IN UNIVERSITIES**

Interest in strategic planning has grown steadily at universities in Western countries since 1970. The literature, however, was slower to emerge than the extensive and rich literature on the business world.

Mazze (1971) criticises the universities which before this period claimed they were involved in formal planning. He states that the results of their so called 'plans' had been indifferent to overcrowded classrooms, not enough faculties, poor facilities and misallocation of funds. He claims that a university planning should be a specific attempt to select the best



alternatives to achieve specific goals. Planning in his view has to be used for a variety of purposes- from the development of educational programs to the management of the institution. He analyses the difficulties of planning in the university environment and suggests five stages of organisation through which universities are likely to pass in developing planning systems. He calls this the organisational model. The stages are:

- Localised planning-planning is carried out by department heads, budget officers or deans. Planning is short range and concerned with manpower and facility needs. This type of planning is called budget.
- Planning Committee-an all university planning committee, composed of administrative personnel, faculty members and students to produce committee reports.
- Outside planning agency
- Institutional Research - Establishment of an office of institutional research charged with collecting information to be used in future decision making.
- Planning department-emergence of a full scale planning department should be concerned with long range planning of institutional, research, public service programs and facilities.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s authors like Robert Cope (1978), Philip Kotler and Patrick Murphy (1981), George Keller (1983) and Richard Jonsen (1986) took the basics of strategic planning, as defined in a standard work like George Steiner's "Strategic Planning: What every manager must know" and applied them to higher education. These articles defined the characteristics of strategic planning, discussed how it could be implemented, related it to organisational environment and the allocation of resources, and laid the foundation for strategic planning in universities.

Few empirical studies have been done on strategic planning in universities; the writings that followed the works of Cope et al were more prescriptive than analytic as Hearn (1988) noted. Many proposals and frameworks for strategic planning in higher education environment have been suggested. Shirley(1983) describes four levels of a strategic planning system in a university which he contrasts with the three levels typically used to describe a complex, divisionalised business firm. Specific decision issues are identified for

each strategy level and compared, where appropriate, to similar issues in the business sector.

The levels of strategy presented by Shirley are:

**Level One-** Institutional strategy , focuses first and foremost on the strategic directions of the institutions as a whole;

**Level Two-** campus-wide functional strategies which include major implementation strategies established for the total institution in order to provide the context and parameters for lower-level planning;

**Level Three-** contains program strategies, those strategic plans developed by individual programs and/or program clusters in order to effect the overall institutional strategy;

**Level four-** contains program-level functional strategies, those action steps in curriculum, recruitment, fund-raising, publication and other areas that are necessary to implement program-level strategies(Shirley, 1983: 94-97).

Hearn (1988), however argues that despite the many views, some broad characteristics can be identified in the strategic planning process of a university:

- It focuses on broad goals, purposes, value and mission. It is medium-term in orientation
- It simultaneously focuses on both internal and external matters
- It is on-going and, it pursues a blend of quantitative and qualitative methods.

Meredith, Cope and Lenning (1987) undertook a study to determine the extent to which an institution is actually engaged in strategic planning. The study shows that one third of the institutions that claimed to be doing strategic planning were in fact not engaged in it. The number of institutions that conducted bona fide strategic planning was found to be lower than previous studies ( Meredith, Cope and Lenning, 1987:13).

Several authors have identified reasons why planning in universities has received considerable attention. For example Schmidlein and Milton(1988-1989:1) identified the declining population of traditional college-age students, increasing competition for

resources, and wavering public confidence. Hearn (1988) concluded that strategic planning was often initiated because of concerns about resources:

The strategic planning and management literature (about US Higher education) has usually stressed the interplay of organisational mission, environment, and values and the necessity for aggressive action by institutions to shape their futures in difficult times (Hearn, 1988: 212).

Other observations were made by Lang (1988):

That universities should plan, is a proposition that has been widely accepted, sometimes with an almost religious zeal. Why universities should plan and how they should plan are problematic questions. Most universities have accepted some form of strategic planning as a preferred mode (Lang, 1988: 20).

Writing from a UK perspective Doyle and Lynch (1976) attributed the necessity of instituting strategic planning in the UK university environment to slower growth in the demand for university places, increasing volatility in the composition of this demand and governmental cut-backs in higher education that had created new pressures on university managers. They also provide four reasons that hindered universities from adopting the type of strategic planning as employed by modern commercial organisations. They contend that though universities have unique missions, their strategic tasks are similar to those of the business firms. These tasks are the creation of an effective organisation and the maintenance of efficiency.

Doyle and Lynch argue that effectiveness requires that the university be market orientated, geared to modifying its product mix and resources to changing environmental conditions, efficiency is concerned with developing the appropriate conditions on which the university can build a reputation for teaching and research which will allow it to acquire the resources to compete in its area of concentration. Both, they agree can be accomplished within the framework of an effective long range planning system. The type of university planning they advocate differs from the conventional approach in that, rather than being focused inwardly on improving efficiency, it focuses outwards on innovation and adaptation to changing demands, a view shared by Rourke and Brooks (1986).

Doyle and Lynch (1976) state that five dimensions characterise this type of long-term planning, the first three being strategic dimensions and the final two referring to the implementation stage. These five dimensions are:

- Defining university objectives
- student focus(determination of target markets, creation of differential advantage)
- academic performance(effectiveness in transferring resources from old to new areas)
- course planning and innovation(adapting portfolio of courses to the changing environment) and
- planning and organisation(tailoring the administrative structure to facilitate the implementation of the strategy of the university) (Doyle and Lynch, 1976).

Smith and Tamer (1984) also support marketing planning for college and universities. Their article demonstrates how institutions of higher education can implement marketing planning. By using Kotler's definition of marketing(1978:13) "Marketing is a systemic approach to planning and achieving desired exchange relations with other groups" they suggest the following steps in strategic marketing planning for universities which they state are adaptations from the business sector:

- Is image and mission analysis which involves the determination of what an institution has as its mission or purpose.
- Is unit analysis i.e. analysing the strategic units by departments/colleges and by functions.
- Is market analysis which determines student market needs and wants as well as the analysis of donor market...
- Is positioning i.e. hiring professional marketing consultants and specialists to help determine where limited resources can best be used to change positioning in the areas needed,
- Is marketing mix. This involves product strategy, distribution strategy, pricing strategy and promotion strategy and step 6 is the development of the final strategic marketing plans (Smith and tamer, 1984).

Thomas (1980) advocates corporate strategic planning at the level of the individual institution, not universities or higher education as a whole. His paper is based on observations of two UK institutions that have undergone rapid growth and change at a pace unprecedented in the history of higher education. The paper reviews the relevance of key constituents in modern corporate strategic planning to policy determination in universities.

Thomas states that from the outset it was assumed that a university has a measure of autonomy within a wider negotiated environment of which the universities, as a group, are a sector for negotiating purposes. These are, therefore, important elements in the working of any university that are bound not only by general laws and customs but by specific standard policies, practices and conditions applicable to all universities within a country, e.g. salary and wage scales. Thomas, therefore, examined the environment of universities to ascertain the relevance of such an approach to their problems before passing to an appreciation of their unique features in terms of decision-taking and adaptability. He then attempted to concentrate on the particular issues which a university may have to resolve and to which such longer term planning can make a contribution.

The strategic planning process has encountered difficulties in its implementation in universities. Breaks (1991) attributes some of these to devolved power structure and universities' traditional organisation into departments or faculties run by 'feuding barons'. He states that universities lack a strong centre which is able or even willing to radically disturb established patterns.

Lelong and Shirley (1984) wrote that planning in higher education is better known for its weaknesses and lack of impact than its strengths and positive contributions. However, the lack of research into strategic planning activities and their consequences may have obscured the level of success, especially if the process is valued more than the product.

Hearn (1988: 246-247) reported that some strategy proponents 'argue that strategic success means maintaining program variety but also requires market attentiveness and a willingness to cut programs that are unsuccessful', whereas he considered that administrators commonly find appeal in avoiding tough decisions associated with internal program review in strategic planning.

Sibley (1986) identified several impediments to successful planning in Canadian universities:

- Public funding means that they are less competitive than private institutions
- Quality is unlikely to be emphasised
- the levels of both operating and capital funding are inadequate and

- The social and economic context is volatile and unpredictable (Sibley, 1986: 85-86).

Lang (1988:2) referred to inconsistent, uneven commitment to strategic planning and observed that ‘in the absence of a continuous planning process and of a ready capacity for institutional research and analysis, universities do not usually plan until events require it. And by then it is too late. In consequence, universities do not usually plan more to manage crises than to avoid crises’.

Some attempts, however, have been made to rectify some of these failures. Moore and Charach (1980) advocated interactive forecasting. Their paper delineates a number of planning and control variables encountered at the faculty or departmental level; it describes the development and use of computer-based interactive forecasting models and discusses the advantages and limitations of such models in placing a faculty’s progress towards its goals. Among the advantages discussed are:

the construction of the models encourage precise examination of the planning environment; calculation time is reduced, enabling repeated runs for analysing the sensitivity of selected planning variables; historical record keeping is encouraged; concrete factual analysis replaces rough guess work at least to some extent. (Moore and Charach, 1980: 109)

On the limiting side, Moore and Charach ( 1980) state that early success may lead to over reliance on the models.

Dube and Brown (1983) agitated for a link between strategic assessment and quality enhancement. It is the authors’ contention that the type of strategic planning that will lead to true enhancement of institutional quality can best be initiated and institutionalised when integrated with the institutional accreditation review processes, particularly those based upon the comprehensive institutional self-study approach. Current accreditation methodologies provide the data-bases and environment for institution - wide involvement in strategic planning and decision making. They believe that the planning process inherent in their scheme will provide institutional decision makers with the means to make informed decisions to maintain or enhance quality.

Based on site visits to 16 diverse higher education institutions in the USA, Schmidlein and Milton (1988-1989: 15-17) drew the following conclusions to help the success of strategic planning in universities:

- both central leadership and faculty initiatives are needed in different aspects of planning
- development of trust is essential
- the political realities of the campus must be accepted
- the planning process is more important than any resulting documents
- major planning activities should not be undertaken too frequently, although the setting of budget priorities has to be conducted annually.

They concluded that 'while planning can help to inform and expand one's understanding of possible futures, it cannot provide a detailed blueprint for future actions, nor can it avoid the need for skilful improvisation and careful judgement.'

The agitation for a university information systems strategy is gaining widespread popularity as a means of solving some of the current planning problems in universities in the United Kingdom. Many universities now believe that the future Funding Council income would be linked to the existence of information strategies (McColl, 1996).

The concept of Information Systems Strategies (ISS) is to have an all embracing strategy for the effective and efficient provision of information in every university, thus bringing together computing systems, telecommunications, management and administrative computing, library services, audio - visual and network infrastructure. ISS also establishes a framework in which the university would be able to judge individual projects and infrastructure investments (Breaks, 1991).

## **2.5 STRATEGIC PLANNING IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES**

The application of strategic planning to libraries as it had emerged in theory could be said to have begun in 1967 with Robert E. Kemper and the doctoral dissertation he completed at the University of Washington, Strategic Planning for Library Systems (Kemper, 1967). Kemper set a theoretical approach to strategic planning to aid librarians, educators and other

library managers in their efforts to improve operations and services. The objectives of the study were to :

- Construct and test a usable model for strategic planning in library administration.
- Determine the extent to which strategic planning is being used by a selected group of libraries and the relationships and differences between library planning and that done by planning officers of the institutions to which the library is subordinate.
- Determine the effects and amount of participation in the strategic planning process by library personnel, library boards, library committees, library trustees...
- Determine the sources utilised in recognising the needs, in obtaining necessary data, in evaluating the data, in formulating conclusions and in gaining approval of strategic plans...
- Discover the principal problems encountered in developing the principal functions of strategic plans as viewed by top administrators (Kemper, 1967:10-11).

Kemper first developed a framework for strategic planning in libraries based on the works of the early writings in management theories of George Steiner, Harold Kontz, Igor Ansoff and William T. Newell. He then analysed current strategic planning policies and procedures in four case study library systems. He tested his findings and their applicability to other institutions with a questionnaires involving 300 libraries. Kemper developed a theoretical approach to strategic planning with a description of the basic characteristics of a planning system he derived from a variety of sources. The approach divided planning into 3 major categories:

- strategic planning
- operational planning and
- task programming.

Kemper's theoretical approach to strategic planning included the following:

- establishing general objectives
- identifying the environment
- becoming aware of the need to change
- organising for change
- forecasting the environment
- establishing specific objectives
- evaluating, selecting and deciding on alternatives
- designing a plan of action



- gaining formal approval
- implementing change. (Kemper, 1967:34-37)

Kemper identified a common pattern in his findings his four cases that seemed to be related to the success of planning efforts. The common pattern included:

- the formal approval of objectives
- the establishment of target dates for achieving goal and
- an awareness of the need to plan.

He also developed a list of activities he found were characteristic of successful planning efforts as well as problem areas that affected the success of strategic plans. The study found that planning was vital to the success of the library programmes Kemper studied and systematic strategic planning was growing among academic institutions, public schools and local government. These institutions had come to realise that they had the same fundamental planning requirements as business corporations. As a result librarians may be forced to develop formalised library planning information so that institution administrations can reflect, library planning in the overall institutional planning programs.

Kemper recommended further research into the techniques for forecasting long-range social, economic and technical library environments. He also suggested the formulation of analytical systems, concepts and analytical operational planning concepts for libraries and the development of sophisticated computer and mathematical models for forecasting environments.

Kemper's study can be said to have formed the foundation on which many studies of strategic planning in university libraries were built. For example, Charles McClure (1978), James Henley (1981), Lenz et al (1981) and many others began to focus their articles on the importance of planning for academic libraries. These authors defined strategic planning and compared it to other types of planning. They described each stage of the planning process, provided strategies for implementation, and advised on the development of effective group processes and the strategic thinking skills of library authorities. Others also emphasised the importance of comprehensive long range planning as a basis for initiating all other efforts toward improving the management of libraries. Probably the first handbook which was devoted exclusively to strategic planning in libraries was written in 1984 by Donald Riggs (Riggs, 1984). The handbook which was basically theoretical provided general and

procedural information on how to go about adopting strategic planning into the library management constructs.

Much more variation in the context, concepts and style of the literature began to emerge from the early nineteen eighties and Wood (1983) wrote on the introduction of the marketing process in strategic planning in university libraries. By adopting some of the concepts of the strategic planning process as described by Philip Kotler (1980:4) Wood explored the strategic planning process. She showed that an organisation should examine its environment for opportunities consistent with its mission. It should then set up appropriate goals to exploit the most attractive opportunities, develop strategies to accomplish these goals and set up a structure to evaluate both current and future activities. It must capitalise on currently strong programs adding others for which prospects look good, and eliminating those less successful programs that are a drain to resources. She then showed the relevance of marketing at this stage to the planning process and concluded that if librarians were to survive in the coming decades then strategic marketing would be a significant part of the solution to some of their problems.

Riggs (1987) also writes on the entrepreneurial spirit in strategic planning for libraries. He asserts that strategic planning and entrepreneurship share many characteristics; they both focus on systematic innovation and are opportunity - driven. Calculated risk is an important ingredient in both processes; risk is managed by utilising a structured plan that identifies and provides for contingencies; both processes look critically at present ways of doing things and are not timid about bringing forth innovative ways of doing things better. He suggests a merger between the two and states that:

Strategic planning is an awesome management tool. Merging the concepts of entrepreneurship with those of strategic planning creates a management system that is complex, innovative, action oriented, futuristic and results oriented. If operationalized properly, it could be the most powerful management system available to libraries this century. It's the cats meow... In sum, it provides the library leadership with a grand opportunity to turn the corner from being creative with things to being creative with people (Riggs, 1987: 9).

Riggs (1987:42), however, cautions that strategic planning and entrepreneurship should not be perceived as cure-alls of library issues, but can be best described as means for the reassertion of an innovative climate in the library construct.

From a sociological standpoint Forsman (1990) also suggests the incorporation of organisational values into the strategic planning process. He states that if librarians are to benefit fully from this new process of strategic planning then they must not skip the first step which he believes is crucial to any success. This (step) he describes as recognition of the important role played by employee value systems and beliefs. He asserts that plans may look good on paper, but, unless supported by the values and beliefs of people who must implement them, programs and services outlined in the plans may not develop as envisioned.

Forsman makes the following six recommendations as steps that libraries may take to incorporate employee values into their strategic plans:

- early in the planning process assess the work and service values of all employees...
- clarify values through feedback mechanism, report the audit findings back to employees and ask for discussion...
- throughout the strategic planning process look for ways to mesh values with implementation methods. When library goals are consistent with personal and professional values, resistance is minimised. When employees are also comfortable with how the goals will be achieved, accomplishment is even more probable.
- repeatedly point out the alignment of values with the plan. Everyone needs to be reminded that they took part in defining the organisation's explicit values and that, in turn, those ideals are directly related to the general direction and daily operation of the library.
- when orientating new employees, stress values and philosophy and how they are to be relied upon in making daily work decisions...
- for existing personnel, outline the same framework and reinforce their efforts to use it in decision making (Forsman, 1990:152).

Forsman, however, admits that attempts to factor values and beliefs into strategic planning have complicated the process to some extent. He still believes that the incorporation of

values into strategic planning should enable a library to benefit from a strong internal commitment to implementing the plan.

Forsman has not been the only author who has recommended participation in strategic planning by all staff. Sutton (1993) explored the levels of participation and attitudes to strategic planning process among staff members at various levels in each of the organisations he investigated. The primary source of his data was a survey distributed to a sample of staff members at four participating public libraries, but the survey results were analysed in the context of detailed case studies conducted at each site.

The results reveal diversity in the views of long range planning by staff members, and suggest that each library's planning process was highly conditioned by the organisational culture of each library and the library environment. It was also revealed that awareness of the planning process was by no means universal. For all four sites combined more than 4 out of 5 respondents knew that their libraries had done some form of long range planning. Of the combined respondents, 15.3% did not know and 3% (a small number, but still surprising) claimed positive knowledge that the library had not been involved in long range planning, even though it had. Only 61.2% of all respondents knew their library had produced a written plan. These results corroborated interviews which showed that staff members, particularly those without planning and management responsibilities, did not generally encounter the document as part of their regular duties. Generally, it appears that long range planning, although striving for full organisational participation and ideally based on consensus, remains in many ways an uneven mixture of contrasts. The precise reasons for these variations have not been entirely clarified by Sutton's data. What is clear is that the unique characteristics of each planning process are strongly conditioned by local circumstances. He concludes that the compatibility between full staff participation in planning and organisational efficiency, cannot be easily dismissed.

Al-Baridi (1994) explored strategic planning in university libraries in Saudi Arabia. His major goal was to determine the degree to which university presidents, library deans and librarians understood strategic planning and the degree to which they reported that their universities or libraries practised strategic planning. A research survey design utilising questionnaires was used to gather data from the three different but related populations of university presidents, library deans and librarians.

The study found that, unlike Sutton's, a majority of the respondents understood traditional planning more than strategic planning. Also, it was found that the majority of the respondents believed that they applied traditional planning more than strategic planning in their university libraries.

Perhaps one influential article that has helped some authors of strategic planning in academic libraries to rethink the success of the application of the traditional strategic planning model in its entirety has been Ida Vincent's study (1988). In her article, "Strategic Planning and libraries: Does the model fit?" she raises some serious concerns about the application of strategic planning in libraries. She argues that a mismatch occurs between the prevailing "normative model" of strategic planning and the needs of libraries, "partly as a result of certain structure characteristics of libraries in particular their status as small and relatively powerless units in larger organisations..."(p. 37)

Six cases are examined from which the author concludes that the "normative model" of strategic planning is different because it

- Assumes a sufficiently stable environment in which chosen objectives will remain viable;
- Assumes that the organisation will have excess resources to devote to strategic initiatives;
- Requires a single, clearly articulated mission statement;
- Presents the planning process as a linear logical progression of steps(Vincent, 1988:42-43).

Vincent (1988: 44-46) proposes that libraries should seek strategic planning models which incorporate such characteristics as:

- incremental bottom-up planning.
- the capability of dealing with dependence and uncertainty.
- acknowledgement of the significance of the individual and groups.
- and promotion of planning mentality which permeates the organisation, rather than limits itself to top management.

Vincent (1988) states that, strategic planning which is done in manual or triennial fits and starts can never hope to establish an organisational "planning mentality".

Cline and Meringolo (1991:212-221) also write against presenting strategy as a linear logical progression of steps. They describe strategic planning in the University of Pennsylvania library which they claim was initiated by two key elements:

- The linkage of the annual resource plan or budget request to the strategic plan.
- The requirement that every academic and administrative unit of the university engage in planning.

Strategic issues which would help guide strategic planning over several years were identified at a seminar for key planning individuals. The most prevalent issues that were identified by the group included: funding, diversity, technology and information management, university-industry ties, educational quality, internationalism, institutional image, space and facilities, faculty quality, enrolment and effective management. The concept of “environment assessment”, scanning for political, economic, societal, legislative/governmental impacts was considered very important in the development of the strategic issues. The authors however admit that the strategic planning conducted at Penn State University had definite drawbacks that were nevertheless outweighed by its benefits. The “downside” of strategic plan includes:

- It can raise expectation levels within the libraries as well as among constituents. Identifying \$3 million of additional resource needs and receiving only one fifth of that amount can create disillusionment with the process. Strategic planning by itself will not create additional fund sources.
- Strategic planning is time consuming because it is ongoing and requires the attention of many individuals in the organisation.
- Strategic Planning requires the participants to work in a number of different time frames- generally from two to five years from the present. It can sometimes be difficult to attach resource needs to proposed strategic initiatives which are that far into the future.

Cline and Meringolo (1991) also state that the benefits that have been realised as a result of strategic planning include the following:

- The broad implementation of a system of organised planning at the operational levels of the libraries.
- Bottom-up input into the planning process provides a vehicle for institutionalising a participative management system...
- Internal organisational communications have improved as planning documents are shared across departmental units...

- Attention is focused on, to quote President George Bush, the “vision thing”. Perhaps the more relevant question than, “What business are we in?” is “How can we do our business differently, or more efficiently?”
- Serves as a beacon around which an organisational consensus and commitment are built and it can help define an organisation’s value (Cline and Meringolo, 1991).

Other authorities on university librarianship have approached strategic planning from other perspectives and have recommended different models. Gratch and Wood (1991) write on an institution-specific strategic planning model. The focus of the article is on implementation, the first-year review process, and the plan’s effects on library operations, a crucial issue on which the literature is sparse. They provide an overview of Bowling Green State University’s experience with the strategic planning process to provide the context for the discussion about implementation, revision and applications. Suggestions (such as, all staff level participation, clear definition of the differences between an objective and an action step, involvement of top leadership and review mechanism) are made for enhancing the effectiveness of the planning effort from its inception through fully-fledged implementation.

Line(1991) links strategic planning with quality. He states that no generally applicable model can be laid down for strategic planning. He then asserts that by constructing a plan, a library is taking some control of its future. His paper placed a strong emphasis on staff participation in the planning process is highly commendable. He suggests, that during the process of preparing a plan, staff have to think fundamentally about the library’s nature and purpose and whether it is achieving its aims at the time. If their present structure and management style are found inadequate to tackle the future with confidence then changes must be made. He states further that all staff must fully be involved in the planning process otherwise a great deal of the value of the plan would be lost, especially if the preparation of the plan is seen by the staff as an awesome and unwelcome task. Staff would resent it and regard it as an intrusion on the ordinary work they have to do in the library.

Writing on strategic planning for modern libraries Johnson (1994) also advocates income generation in her model. She gives the details of income generation as: raising fines, making charges for non-standard services such as on-line searching, sale of publications, book sales and hiring out rooms for meetings, exhibitions and lectures as well as special services for

clients in the private sector to raise money for the library. A survey of university and polytechnic libraries in 1986 seems to give Johnson's suggestions some support (Bearwood, 1986). The survey showed that nearly half the libraries surveyed were offering some kind of fee-based service. These services included loans from stock, photocopying, inter-library loans, reference enquiries and on-line searching. It was also noted that Berkshire Library and Information Service provided a number of contract services including community profiling, current awareness, briefings, libraries by tender, family history, services to independent and grant maintaining schools and nostalgia shops (Beardwood, 1986). Johnson also discussed a wide range of strategic issues that occur in many university strategic planning process. An important addition to the literature from her article is the inclusion of library buildings, library security and disaster planning in strategic planning. She suggests that these are issues that need serious consideration by any library manager.

In 1989 Zheng Ting wrote on strategic planning for developing university libraries in China. He based his paper on the premise that from the view point of systems scientists, university libraries are regarded both as a system of higher education and as a nation - wide library system. He then provided the following exploratory thinking for the decision makers who were to outline the blueprint for Chinese university library development as:

- The development of university libraries needs to be co-ordinated with the development of the university.
- University libraries should try to innovatively and actively suit the need required by university development; in the past, university libraries were always behind the university demand. They responded to the requirements passively, which made university libraries stable and passive. The strategic plan for the university library should go further on its own initiative.
- Development of university libraries should be based on their own existing latent abilities - university library director must recognise the staff structure and work distribution. First, the quality of staff should be enhanced, and the professional staff should be enlarged and must use existing and potential information resources in the university.
- Co-operation among university libraries in general and also other library systems.

Teng however admits that some of his recommendations may run into problems because of:

- The low level of library service in China.
- Poor standardisation of library work.
- Lack of secondary information sources.



- Lack of experience with library co-operation on a nation wide scale.
- The underdeveloped communication system.

He therefore urged other researchers to probe further into these problems in the bid to modernise university libraries in China.

### **2.5.1 FACTORS AFFECTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES.**

Many factors affect strategic planning in university libraries. Franco and Diaz (1995) group these factors into remote, immediate external and internal environments. They discuss the remote environment as the financial dimension of the country and its close relationship to the internal environment, political/legal dimension, technological dimension and the socio-cultural dimension. The immediate external environment, according to them comprises clients or users, dealers, personnel, financing agencies, competitors and the governors of the university. Writing about strategic planning in the Pontifical Catholic University of Chile, they categorise clients into internal and external clients. Internal clients are students, faculty and administrative personnel of the university, and external clients are those users from institutions with which the system has reciprocity agreements - universities, internal organisations, professional associations etc. They categorise internal environment into the organisational climate and the organisational culture. By organisational climate they refer to staffing, technical management services, job description and evaluation system, salaries, benefits and management style. They refer to work habits and attitudes as organisational culture.

The literature on the factors that affect the planning process in university libraries has either dealt collectively with issues under external or internal factors or treated the various issues under individual factors. Prentice (1989), writing on environmental scanning, presents the factors from the external environment under the following: economics, politics, society and people, technology and education for the information professions, in an analysis and summary of environmental scans that were conducted by other organisations.

Du Toit (1993) advises managers of information services to be sensitive to environmental factors to be able to know the trends, conditions, forces, events and areas of uncertainty that

could support judgement about the future. Using South Africa as a case study he argues that because the environment in which information services function is so uncertain and unstable, management cannot possibly make appropriate decisions unless it monitors the environment constantly. The key to formulating a workable strategic plan, in his view, is to identify the factors that affect the organisation concerned, evaluate and interpret the future in a systematic manner by understanding the forces that are shaping that future and consider alternative strategies in response to the scenarios that are likely to result from these anticipated changes.

Duffy and Assad (1989) wrote on ways of obtaining information through environmental scanning. They named exposure (viewing) and deliberate search as some of the ways. They distinguish the following modes of scanning the environment:

- Undirected viewing- defined as general exposure to information where the viewer has no specific purpose in mind, with the possible exception of exploration.
- Conditioned viewing - defined as a directed exposure, not involving active research, to a more or less clearly identified area or type of information.
- Informal search- defined as a relatively limited and unstructured effort to obtain specific information or information for a specific purpose. It differs from conditioned viewing principally in that the information wanted is actively sought.
- Formal search- refers to a deliberate effort- usually following a pre-established plan, procedure or methodology- to secure specific information, or information relating to a specific issue (Duffy and Assad, 1989: 280-281).

The creation of a separate department or task group within universities to monitor the environment formally has been advocated in South Africa. (University of Stellenbosch, South Africa, 1992). This is because pertinent environment information is believed to be complex and requires professional skills. A formal environmental scanning system has been argued in the same document to be very expensive; it may involve several man-years of effort and the preparation of lengthy reports that explore the many social, political, economic, technological and institutional ramifications of future development, which many university libraries especially those in developing countries, cannot afford.

Technology is seen as a factor in every strategy formation. Baker (1989) considers the technological effect on libraries' strategic plans. Using the MIT libraries as case studies,

she writes on the advantages of using modern technology to provide access to collections elsewhere. She writes that in the vision statement of MIT new libraries on campus, departmental libraries and research centre libraries will be created as “electronic library modules”, with small collections of current journals complemented by electronic access to and delivery of materials housed elsewhere and by on-line communication with subject libraries. All materials will be represented in the on-line catalogue, including specialised materials such as archival and manuscript collections, maps, slides, machine readable data files and software. It is part of the grand vision that technology will make it possible especially through national and international co-operation programs for preservation and access in order that MIT libraries will have regular access to any research materials required. Baker concludes that MIT’s strategic planning has given them a mechanism to deal with the proliferation of information in electronic forms and other changes that the MIT libraries face in their critical times.

The impact of technology on planning has been investigated by Powell (1993). He discusses the nature and evaluation of strategy and relates it to the literature on information technology as a strategic tool. He probes the extent to which the relationship between information technology and strategy has altered over recent years and probed the implementation process and previous evidence of information technology activities and the returns available in investing in them.

Powell’s views have however been challenged by Blibli and Raymond (1993) when they write on the threats of strategic use of information technology. They analyse the strategic importance of technology in the light of the specificity of organisations. They outline their own planning approaches, focusing on small and medium-sized enterprises and how they can attain a mastery of information technology for competitive advantage.

Another essential factor for the success or failure of strategy is organisational culture. Norton (1994) writes that for any information organisation such as a university library to succeed, the right kind of cultural environment must prevail. He states that an organisation’s culture is shaped by many factors - history, experience, values, beliefs, successes, failures, the environment in which it operates, and the personalities who lead it. He asserts that culture, however, cannot be precisely defined because it is something that is perceived, something that is felt. It also has much to do with the way people are managed. Norton

believes that information management can have an impact on the organisation's culture although the opposite is more often the case especially in terms of organisational structure, the distribution of power, the organisation's image, the style of the chief officer, risk taking and change, secrecy and openness and the way people work together and co-operate, or do not. Information management is also about how people interact with systems. In his paper, Norton further asserts that there are, in brief, two contrasting ways in which this can happen; one which puts systems first and the other which puts people first. He states that evidence is growing that people must come first and can no longer work in purely mechanistic ways in which they become data-processors or number crunchers. He concludes that an ideal working culture may be one where people can develop satisfactorily with the systems to which they contribute but which do not put them in a straitjacket.

Lorsch (1986) investigated the effect of culture on strategy. He describes the relationship as the invisible barrier to strategic change. In a study of successful companies he found that there exists among top managers a system of beliefs (culture) which underlies their strategic choices. These beliefs have been developed over many years of successful operation. He states that there are some positive values to a strong culture and some of these beliefs have guided managers decisions to many years of corporate success (Lorsch, 1986: 109). Managers, in his view, are guided by these beliefs because they have worked successfully in the past.

Davis, Kirkpatrick and Oliver (1992) write on the implications of organisational culture for university library strategy. The paper discusses the relationship between strategy and organisational culture in a UK university library which was in the process of developing a more service led ethos. Culture in this study was defined as "official and informal rules". These rules were then mapped via interviews, participant observation and a substantial questionnaire. The findings suggest that the general philosophy of the library management was not universally shared by staff; the issues that this situation raises were also explored. It is concluded that cultural mapping can be an effective means of surfacing the implicit norms and rules which can interfere with strategy implementation.

Several authors have reminded the university libraries of the serious consequences of strategic planning. Holdbrock (1991) underscores the importance of strategic planning for universities where resources are declining and offers some solutions. He states that the

solution to declining resources is that organisations must make choices among alternatives competing for the resources in order to eliminate or modify existing programmes and reallocate resources to new programmes to achieve success.

Ryan (1993) outlines the importance of having the right information infrastructures in order for strategic planning to succeed. He draws from the information management literature and research at Syracuse University into the development of the US Federal Government's National Research and Development (NRED) initiative. He provides an extensive review of the literature and codification of what is about information infrastructure development. He identifies its characteristics, benefits, costs and governance. He concludes that a great deal is known about aspects of information infrastructure building but research is needed to link these facets to a deeper understanding of their impact, and outlines directions for future research.

Ladizesky (1993) also describes the aims and objectives of the British Library and lays emphasis on giving high priority to the library infrastructure by providing adequate funding and securing sponsorship. A secured financial basis, he argues, would help the library achieve its strategic objectives of dissemination of information in a variety of ways, making users aware of services and conserving and preserving existing materials.

Robinson (1990) writes in support of the importance of sound financing in the strategic planning process. His article is included in an issue devoted to the theme: "Library finance: new needs, new models". He examines what products and services libraries offer their customers and defines some of them. He shows how to calculate the full cost of providing them. Robinson outlines programme budgeting and cost funding methodologies that will help administrators perform "Strategic budgeting"- defining what services to keep, where to cut back and what to eliminate in their own library.

Hayes (1993) writes on staff as a resource for an effective library management and strategic change. He states that the success of the library is dependant on the skills and attitudes of its staff and this has meant that the prime focus of the management of change at the University of Melbourne library was initially at staff level. He describes some of the staff programmes introduced and then discusses the second major focus for change which was the development of better public relations with user groups. He considers the importance of the strategic planning process in relation to services and staff commitment to the process.

## **2.6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION**

It is clear from the literature review that new paradigm(s) are emerging in the field of strategic management. The rational strategic process seems to have held sway and emerged as the dominant paradigm in the literature, crowding out other approaches. There is a good explanation for the success of the traditional classical paradigm. It is based on a well developed and understood methodology, and has clearly identifiable theoretical roots.

The emerging competitive landscape and the logic of success in the complex competitive environment, however transcends the scope of the theoretical lens provided by the traditional strategic planning models. This implicit recognition that the traditional paradigm may at best provide partial answers is the driving force behind the search for new paradigm(s).

The paradigms that are being sought must fit the emerging needs of the strategy field. Many approaches are emerging. The role of game theory in strategy development is being explored, theories of wars and diplomacy provide good models for thinking about competition and collaboration (Kissinger, 1994). The concept of balance of power, implicit understanding of stability of trading patterns, providing credible threats and forming pre-emptive alliances appear to emerge as important theories not only on a national level but in the management of large global enterprises. Human cognition and the nature of the inference process may also be used to view a wide variety of strategy issues such as the ability of managers to rapidly change large firms. Ethical and legal issues as well as reasoning are also becoming important, for example new intellectual property issues. The use of balanced scorecards to help link long-term strategy with short-term actions and to move away from the reliance on purely financial measures as a basis for strategic management is also receiving attention.

Chaos theory, the study of dynamic patterns in large social systems (Gilbert, D, 1992) is being used in strategy development. Chaos theorists pay attention to the turbulence of a system and view decision making as a continual process of adaptation to turbulent forces.

The literature on strategic planning in university libraries emerged gradually following Kemper's doctoral work in 1967. The earlier literature was rarely comprehensive or coordinated and lacked the conceptual framework that was likely to maximise changes for success. By 1980 the literature was reaching maturity as it began to emphasise the

importance of comprehensive long range planning as a basis for initiating all other efforts toward improving the management of libraries. The journal literature discussed such subjects as the appropriateness of strategic planning for libraries, the incorporation of organisational values into the strategic planning process, the entrepreneurial spirit, implementation and first year appraisal and library development and fund-raising.

Research in strategic planning in university libraries is now laying emphasis on the collaboration between chief partners and constituencies taking into consideration the complex information environment both external and internal factors. Researchers are taking into account a wide range of factors peculiar to the circumstances of each institution and country, paying attention to the needs of various groups of library users, to the performance measures and indicators which the institution believe are appropriate, to quality assurance and assessment, and the management of staff and physical resources (Follet, 1993:28)

# CHAPTER THREE

## METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the methodology chosen and the techniques used. It begins with the research design and is followed by a discussion of the theoretical framework of the mixed methodology approach used for this research. The interpretative and positivist paradigms as applied in this research are described. The selection of libraries, selection of subjects and their distribution in the libraries are then discussed. The creation and application of the instruments used are explained. Finally, the qualitative and quantitative analysis techniques used are also described.

### 3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research strategy for this study is the multiple case study approach which has been widely used in organisational and management studies as well as in the conduct of dissertations and theses.

The case study approach was chosen for this research because of the flexibility it allows in using a combination of data collection techniques. A survey only methodology was not deemed enough to adequately recognise the complexity, richness and subtlety of the concept being explored. Busha and Harter (1980) have supported this by stating that:

case study is very appropriate for researches where an attempt is made to gather extensive data about a research object so that relationships among variables associated with the observed phenomenon can be identified. It allows a concentrated focus on a single phenomenon and the utilisation of a wide array of data-gathering methods (Busha and Harter, 1980: 151).

Ford (1977), among others, has advocated the use of such multimethod approach and asserted that "... a combination of methods is often more appropriate in order to make use of



their different advantages and to counter the individual weaknesses and biases of a method used in isolation.”

A number of advantages outlined in the literature of research methodologies also influenced the choice of the case study approach. Busha and Harter (1980) summarise the following as some of the advantages of the case study approach as follows:

- Case studies allow close examinations of unique problems of individual groups or situations, something that many other methodologies do not readily permit.
- In view of concern about the social utility and responsibility of librarians as institutions, the case study approach to inquiry appears to be particularly appropriate in studying relationships between library services and a variety of social problems.
- Case studies afford for thorough and detailed examinations and analysis of research problem so that findings can be applied directly to the object of inquiry.
- Occasionally the case study method is used as an exploratory study (preliminary investigation), conducted to discover and describe what exists rather than to measure relationships between variables. In some cases, these exploratory studies have been used to clarify vague concepts or to challenge assumptions so that more penetrating investigations could be undertaken in which hypotheses were tested (Bush and Harter, 1980:152).

Some traditional arguments against the case study have been debated in sociological studies since the idea was first developed by Bronislow, Malinowski, Frederic Le Play and some members of the Chicago School (University of Chicago) (Hamel, Dufuor and Fortin, 1993:2). Busha and Harter (1980: 152) mention that the case study approach is time-consuming, it is too long and results in massive unreliable documents. Other arguments are that it is expensive and when the objects of case studies are large groups of people or complex entities, several research workers might be needed to serve as observers.

However, the two most basic faults of the case study approach debated in the literature can be summarised as:

- Its lack of representativeness and especially the lack of representativeness of the case used as a point of observation for the social phenomenon or issues constituting the object of study
- Its lack of methodological rigor- rigor in the collection, construction and analysis of the empirical materials that give rise to this study. This lack of rigor is linked to the problem of

bias. Such bias is introduced by the subjectivity of the researcher, as well as of the field informants on whom the researcher relies to get an understanding of the case under investigation (Hamel, Dufuor and Fortin, 1993: 19).

The present study has attempted to achieve reliability and credibility on the following scores:

1. The study has used a theoretical proposition which has guided the research. A series of research questions based on the study's research objectives were used to prove or disprove the proposition made. Yin (1989: 70-80) refers to this as a 'case study protocol'. Variety has been used to improve the validity of this case study research, A variety of data collection methods have been employed: interviews, observation and documentary evidence, the intention being to provide a variety of view points upon the situation being investigated, and hence increase the likelihood that the whole situation was being observed, and that the conclusions drawn were derived from more than one method of enquiry.
2. The problem of representativeness is overcome by the use of the interpretative and positivist methods. Smith(1989) and Walsham(1993) have argued that epistemology, the basis of one's claim of knowledge, and research methods are interrelated. If one adopts only a positivist epistemological stance then statistical generalisability is the key goal. However, if one assumes an interpretative position as is the case in the first part of this research, then the validity of an extrapolation from an individual case or cases depends not on the representativeness of such cases in a statistical sense, but on the plausibility and cogency of the logical reasoning used in describing the results from the cases, and in drawing conclusions from them.
3. Reliability is also achieved because of the multisite and external validity measures adopted. This study is using as many as five cases in Ghana and five in the United Kingdom. Each case has not been considered as a sample. In-depth investigation has been carried out in each case by utilising four modes of data collection techniques. Sudman (1976) has observed that confidence in the general significance and robustness of research findings increases with the number of sites in which a survey is conducted although the largest single gain occurs when the number of sites is increased from one to two. Similarly, confidence in the generalisability of the results of a case study design increases with the number of cases covered as Yin (1989:42-53) observed that: " as the number of cases increases to substantial figures the logic of statistical inference begins to complement and even replace the logic of analytical inference."

The investigation has striven to generalise a set of results to its broad theoretical proposition for the first case study. The resultant theories from the first case have been tested in a second, third, fourth and fifth cases. The idea was to find out whether the same results would occur in at least three cases to achieve literal replication. Literal replications were achieved for theories that emerged from the major variables such as resources, culture, politics, information technology application etc.

Yin (1994) refers to this manner of achieving representativeness as external validity and states that :

- a theory must be tested through replications of the findings in a second or even a third neighbourhood, where the theory has specified that the same results should occur. Once such replication has been made, the results might be accepted for a much larger number of similar neighbourhoods, even though further replications have not been performed. This replication logic is the same that underlies the use of experiments (and allows scientists to generalise one experiment to another) (Yin, 1994: 33).

### ***3.2.1 Theoretical framework***

As suggested earlier, the design of this study is a multiple case study approach based on a combination of qualitative and quantitative evidence.

The idea of combining qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study can be traced to Campbell and Fisk (1959) when they sought to use more than one method to measure a psychological trait to ensure that the variance was reflected in the trait and not in the method.

The combination of research methods in the same phenomenon has been called ‘triangulation’ by Denzin (1978), a term borrowed from maritime navigators and military strategists. Denzin (1970) had extended this view of triangulation as “only the use of multiple methods in the study of the same object” to include several other types of triangulation:

Data triangulation

- a. Time
- b. Space
- c. Level of triangulation

1. Aggregate of persons
  2. Interaction of persons
  3. Collectivities of persons
- Investigator triangulation(multiple vs single observers of the same object)
  - Theory triangulation(multiple vs single perspectives in relation to the same set of objects)
  - Methodological triangulation
    - a. Within-method(different types of quantitative data collection strategies e.g. survey and experiment)
    - b. Between-method (Denzin, 1970:301).

A combined method study is one in which multiple methods of data collection and analysis are used. These methods might be drawn from 'within methods' approaches or 'between methods', drawing on qualitative and quantitative data collection procedures (e.g. a survey and in-depth interviews) (Jick, 1979). Many studies have been cited by Grant and Fine (1992) to illustrate such combinations, ranging from observations supplemented with structured, quantitative observations, the mixing of ethnography and experimental research and qualitative procedures.

Many reasons have been advanced in the literature for the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. Greene et al. (1989) discuss 5 main reasons for combining methods in a single study :

- Triangulation in the classic sense of seeking convergence of results
- Complimentary, in that overlapping and different facets of a phenomenon may emerge(e.g. peeling the layers of an onion)
- Developmentally, wherein the first method is used sequentially to help inform the second method
- Initiation, wherein contradictions and fresh perspectives emerge
- Expansion, wherein the mixed methods add scope and breadth to a study (Green et al., 1989: 185).

Smith(1981) compares five methods for researching informal communication in organisations, drawing out the main strengths and weaknesses of each, and concludes that it

is better to combine methods; "...so that we could take advantage of the strong points of each type of data, cross-check data collected by each method, collect information that is available only through particular techniques."

Sieber (1973) has given an exhaustive rationale for integrating particular methods. He shows how field work may contribute to survey, data design, collection, and analysis and vice versa. He points out that field work may often valuably precede surveys by providing 'information about the receptivity, frames of reference and span of attention of respondents' (Sieber, 1973:1343). On the other hand, surveys may contribute to field work through:

- correction of the holistic fallacy (tendency of field observer to perceive all aspects of a social situation as congruent)
- demonstration of generality of a single observation,
- verification of field interpretations, and
- the casting of new light on field observation (Sieber, 1973:1354).

All the factors enumerated by Greene et al. (1989) and Smith (1981) contributed to the decision to adopt a strategy of using both qualitative and quantitative methods in this study. The initial use of the qualitative technique for data gathering was to help gain knowledge about the phenomenon under study from the informants who were mainly university professors and seasoned senior library personnel. The quantitative approach was used as a supplement to reduce the work load of transcribing many qualitative data. This was in line with Wilson's (1981: 241) suggestion that "when faced with a mass of qualitative data there are a number of advantages in combining quantitative modes of analysis and reporting." In this study the quantitative method was also used to attempt to validate the theories that emerged from the broad qualitative phase of the research.

The concept of mixing methods has given rise to much debate in social science (Guba, 1992; Patton, 1988). The 'purists' have challenged the mixing of paradigms and methods. Burrell and Morgan (1979) argue against mixing paradigms, saying that there can be no communication across paradigms because linguistic symbols take different meaning across paradigms and are founded upon mutually exclusive views of the social world. Reichardt and Cook (1979) advocate a choice of one or the other rather than combining them. On the other hand, Rossman and Wilson (1985) and Lancy (1993), assuming a pragmatic stance, argue that a false dichotomy existed between qualitative and quantitative approaches and

that researchers should make the most efficient use of both paradigms in understanding social phenomena. Weaver and Gioia (1994) in contrast to Burrell and Morgan's (1979) argument and in support of mixed paradigms state that ' although there may be errors of comprehension and failures of communication... there is no reason to believe that such difficulties are endemic to theoretical, meta theoretical and methodological debates.'

### ***3.2.2 The interpretative and positivist paradigms***

Burrell and Morgan (1979), Wood-Harper (1985) and many others have proposed that social theory can usefully be conceived in terms of four key paradigms based upon different sets of meta- theoretical assumptions about the nature of social science and the nature of society. One of these paradigms is the interpretative sociology (the rest are functionalism, humanism and structuralism).

#### ***The interpretative sociology***

According to Burrell and Morgan (1979:227) the interpretative paradigm embraces a wide range of philosophical and sociological thought with the common characteristic of attempting to understand and explain the social world primarily from the point of view of the actors directly involved in the social process.

This tradition runs counter to that of sociological positivism. It is nominalist - the nominalist position revolves around the assumption that the social world external to individual cognition is made up of nothing more than names. The nominalist does not admit to there being any 'real' structure to the world which these concepts are used to describe, voluntarist - man is completely autonomous and free willed and ideographic - based on the view that one can only understand the social world by obtaining first hand knowledge of the subject under investigation (Giddens, 1984). The interpretative paradigm, in the view of Dahrendorf (1959), is oriented towards obtaining an understanding of the subjectively created social world "as it is" in terms of an ongoing process. Problems of conflict, domination, contradiction, potentiality and change play no part in the interpretative framework.

The structure of the interpretative sociology is made up of distinct but related categories of interpretative theory, distinguished for the most part by their degree of 'subjectivity' in terms of four strands of subjective. These categories are: Solipsism, Phenomenology, Phenomenological sociology, and Hermeneutics.

This tradition owes much to the work of Immanuel Kant (1724-1803), who was one of the first philosophers to articulate its basic ontological epistemological foundations. Theorists such as Husserl (1929), Weber (1949), Schutz (1967) and Dilthey (1976) have also made a major contribution towards establishing the interpretative paradigm as a framework for social analysis, though with varying degrees of commitment to its underlying problems.

The interpretative theorists believe that knowledge of persons can only be gained through interpretative procedure grounded in the imaginative recreation of the experiences of others. History, society, indeed all human products, are seen by the theorists not at all like material things. Accordingly, understanding such phenomena requires that the lived experiences of others be grasped through the apprehension of their inner meaning. They also believe that the socio-historical world is a symbolic world created by the human mind and cannot be understood as simply a relationship between material things. They also reject the view that the scientific method can be applied to the study of human social life, stressing instead the role of interpretation, understanding, moral commentary, or some other relevant criterion, as the only proper and valid way of gaining knowledge of this subject matter. Reacting against positivism Dilthey(1976) is believed to have stated that:

The positivist methodology of the natural sciences is inadequate to the understanding of human phenomena except in their aspect as natural objects (Hughes, 1980: 20).

For Dilthey and others nature and culture are inherently different and involve different methods of study. Natural science conceived mainly in positivist terms study the objective, inanimate, non-human world. Society, a product of the human mind is subjective, emotive as well as intellectual. What will be referred to as causal, mechanistic and measurement oriented models of explanation are inappropriate, since human consciousness is not determined by natural forces. They also believe that human social behaviour is always imbued with values and that reliable knowledge of a culture can only be gained by isolating the common ideas, the feelings, or the goals of a particular historical period. It is these that make each social act subjectively meaningful. The observer as a human being studying other human beings has access to the cultural world of others through some form of 'imaginative reconstruction' or 'empathy'.

Blumer (1956) also states that:

In part the interpretative programme is reacting against a 'scientized' conception of the social actor which they see as embodied in orthodox social science of a positivist persuasion. The accusation is that those features which make social life a distinctively human product are analysed out and reduced to the interaction variables (Blumer, 1956: 683).

The task of the social scientist is to give some theoretical account of social life. This requires empirical study in order to bring data to bear on the theoretical formulations. This data must be derived in some way from the lives of the social actors being studied. Unlike physical phenomena, social actors give meaning to their social environments in richly varied and often exotic ways. They can describe what they do explain and justify it, give reasons or 'motives' declare goals, decide upon appropriate courses of action, try to fit means to ends, and so on.

As Schutz(1963) says:

It is up to the natural scientist and to him alone to define in accordance with the procedural rules of his science, his observational field, and to determine the facts, data, and events within it Which are relevant for his problems or scientific purposes at hand... The world of nature, as explored by the natural scientist does not mean anything to the molecules, atoms, and electrons therein. The observational field of the social scientist, however, namely the social reality, has a specific meaning and relevance structure for the human beings living, acting and thinking therein. By a series of common sense constructs they have preselected and preinterpreted this world which they experience as the reality of their daily lives(Schutz, 1963:231).

The social scientist then must come to terms with these meanings. In a fundamentalist sense the origin of the researcher's data lies in these meanings. The starting point of empirical social science research is the observation of what the members of a society do or have done. These observations may be in the form of statistical rates, tape- recordings, writings, questionnaires or interviews, archaeological remains, documentary evidence, and so on. An essential part of observation is the description of the phenomenon.

### ***The positivist paradigm***

This is also referred to by other labels such as empiricism, behaviourism and even science. Its philosophical epistemology currently holds sway within the social sciences. Two figures stand out significantly as having provided intellectual background to this approach, namely



Bacon (1561-1626) and Descartes (1596-1650). Bacon represents the Aristotelian legacy of empiricism as the source of human knowledge while Descartes revived and strengthened the Platonic rationalistic tradition.

In the social sciences the first self-conscious voice proclaiming the positivist method was that of (heard through the writings) Auguste Comte in the early nineteenth century. It was he who coined the term 'positive philosophy' and incidentally, 'social physics' or 'sociology'. Since the nineteenth century Comte's work, others like Stuart Mill, Hubert Spencer, Emile Durkheim have contributed to the style and manner of positivism in today's social science.

### ***Elements of positivism***

According to Giddens (1977) positivist philosophy covers those perspectives which have made some or all of the following claims:

- Reality consists essentially in what is available to the senses.
- Philosophy while a separable discipline is parasitic upon the findings of science. Associated with this is an aversion to metaphysics as having any rightful place in philosophical inquiry proper. As a philosophy it is as much concerned therefore to establish the limits of knowledge as well as its character.
- The natural and social sciences share a common logical and methodological foundation.
- There is a fundamental distinction between fact and value, science dealing with the former while the latter represents an entirely different order of phenomena beyond the scope of science.
- Positivism, in other words, rejects the view that all human qualities are beyond the reach of scientific understanding. While scientific knowledge has its limits these do not exclude knowledge of the supposedly 'inner' or spiritual life of mankind (Giddens, 1977:28-29).

The positivist approach, therefore, is, as Kerlinger (1986) defines scientific research, "the systematic, controlled empirical, and critical investigation of natural phenomena guided by theory and hypotheses about the presumed relations among such phenomena."

This approach assumes that reality is objective, transcending an individual's perspective and that it is expressed in the observable statistical regularities of behaviour. Positivism recognises two forms of knowledge as having any legitimacy and authority, the empirical

and the logical: the empirical represented by the natural sciences, the logical represented by logic and mathematics. By far the greater importance have been attached to the empirical. In this it took its inspiration from that philosophical tradition which claimed that all our ideas come in one way or another from experience. Any idea that cannot be said to derive from experience was not a genuine idea.

### ***3.2.3 The interpretative and positivist methods as applied in this research***

Qualitative and quantitative research are seen as being based in mutually exclusive paradigms, each paradigm having different ontological, methodological and epistemological perspectives and different views about human nature.

The apparent conflicts between the two approaches are resolved pragmatically in what Patton (1980) called 'a paradigm of choices' and Hirscheim (1985) named post-positivism, an advocacy of methodological pluralism. The post-positivist approach is about using the approach which the researcher deems most appropriate for his study, each method being applied appropriately at any stage in the research (Patton,1980).

In this study the two paradigms were used in a more typical fashion where the interpretative approach has been used in an exploratory manner to study the factors that affect the strategic planning process in university libraries in Ghana. The search for literature on strategic planning in university libraries produced a null result as far as its practice in Ghana is concerned. This lack of prior research and the desire to know the points of view of key stakeholders of university libraries indicated that an interpretative approach had to be taken. The results of the interpretative study were then used as the basis for a large-scale positivist study of the same research questions. The interpretative study addressed such issues as why particular behaviours occurred, based on the view of the persons engaged in the behaviour. This corroborates Patton's (1980) and Hirscheim's(1985) claim for a post-positivist view of research. The interpretative study in this research also helped to identify many more categories which would not have easily come to this researcher if any other method had been used. The positivist approach served as a confirmatory study and also helped to generalise the theories that emerged from the interpretative research to situations other than those in which they were developed.

This study can therefore be said to have drawn its strength from Giddens (1979) theory of structuration which allows the hybridisation of the two paradigms of positivism and interpretative.

“Structuration” according to Giddens(1979) is a metatheory whose principal goal is to connect human action with structural explanation in social analysis. Structuration attempts to merge many of the perceived disjunctions in organisational study by providing an interpretation of such investigative traditions as “framework” research (e.g.formal organisational roles, procedures) and “interaction research (informal patterned regularities) (Ranson et al, 1980). The structuring process also allows research to bridge the chasms created by macro/micro and qualitative/quantitative polarizations (McPhee and Poole, 1980). Structuration accomplishes this integration through its conceptualisation of structure.

### **3.3 SELECTION OF LIBRARIES(CASE STUDIES)**

In September 1995, when the field work was being planned, Ghana had five universities. All the universities were considered ideal for this study. Sampling, which is usually used to assist statistical generalisability, was not done because case study research does not depend on statistical generalisability of sampled cases. The cases were all sociologically representative of the object of this study. Each case was necessary to refute or support the initial theoretical proposition of the research. In - depth investigation of each case was conducted and empirical materials were obtained which helped the understanding of the object of the study. Most writings on the case study method are in agreement with this. Yin (1989) says that a selected case in case study research is not representative because of the observed frequency at which a social issue or phenomenon occurs. It is representative in terms of an initial theory, which presents it as the selected observation point for an object of study. An analysis of this object will establish how general it is. This generality is “analytic” as Yin (1989:21) put it, it is analytical in the sense that it is derived from the analysis of the case that is presented as the preferred vantage point.

After the decision had been made to include all the 5 university libraries in Ghana in the investigation, the researcher, who had no knowledge of the stage(s) that the universities were at in the strategic planning process, had to make enquiries from some key university librarians in Ghana by electronic mail as to their levels of participation in strategic planning.

The feedback indicated that universities in Ghana had been urged by the government which is sole financier of the universities to formulate strategies for the running of their institutions and by implication the libraries too. Requests for the relevant strategic documents by post did not yield any fruitful results.

The respective librarians of the universities were written to, first to obtain permission for access to their libraries, records and their staff for the investigation and secondly to seek their assistance in gaining further access to the non-library staff who are major stakeholders of the university libraries. The letters sent to the librarians introduced the researcher and the aims of the field study. It highlighted the potential value of this research to university library development in Ghana and provided for their attention and study and subsequent action the research questions of this study. The letter also assured all potential respondents of strict confidentiality and anonymity. A promise was also made not to reveal the names of the universities in the analysis and discussions of responses. Further assurance was also given that any publications that arose from the investigation would not disclose the identities of respondents and their respective libraries. In fulfilment of these assurances, UnivA, UnivB, UnivC, UnivD and UnivE have been used to denote the names of the universities and their libraries. The project supervisor also wrote a supporting letter to the university librarians, emphasising the need for their co-operation in the researcher's quest to find some of the answers to the information provision problems of university libraries in Ghana. Though maximum co-operation was given the investigator in all the institutions in Ghana, it must be stated that only one of the university librarians wrote back to pledge his support and co-operation for the investigation.

In the United Kingdom, the selection of cases was not based on any comparable characteristics with their Ghanaian counterparts as would have been the ideal case. This has not been so because it was very difficult to determine common characteristics such as size, discipline orientation and so on. Universities in the UK are far ahead of their Ghanaian counterparts in terms of population, disciplines and academic facilities. While the maximum population of students in Ghanaian universities is about 6000, many universities in the UK have as many as 20,000 students. Any attempt to use any of these variables for comparison purposes between the two very different countries would have been unfair. Secondly this is not a comparative study in the strict sense of the word. The rationale for investigating some

UK university libraries was to combine the knowledge gained from the study of some UK university libraries with the information from current information management literature, with a view to adopting some of the recent developments that the researcher found relevant to the Ghanaian situation.

Selection of the five cases in the UK was therefore based on accessibility, convenience and geographical proximity and a quest to have both 'old' and 'new' universities represented. The libraries selected for the UK investigation were all in England and near Sheffield. They were made up of three libraries of 'new' universities (ie. former polytechnics) and two libraries of the 'old' universities. The librarians of the five selected libraries were contacted by mail to permit access to the selected subjects and library documents and to explain the aims of the research to them.

### **3.4 SELECTION OF SUBJECTS**

The selection of subjects for the study was done in two parts. The first subjects selected were for the qualitative aspect of the investigation and the second for the quantitative part.

An important aspect of selection in qualitative research is to purposefully select (purposeful sample) informants who will best answer the research questions. As stated by Creswell (1994:148) "no attempt is made to randomly select informants."

A list of prospective interviewees was prepared as part of the case study protocol. This list was compiled in such a way as to provide an appropriate representation of the range of views relevant to achieving the objectives of this research. This list was made up of the major stakeholders (stakeholders refer to the individuals who are directly or indirectly affected by an organisation's pursuit of its goals (Mullins, 1996) of the university libraries in Ghana who at the time of conducting the interviews were influential in matters regarding university/libraries policies, decisions, funding/disbursement of funds, employment/promotion and all general matters that affected the libraries either directly or indirectly.

Table 3.1 is the list of subjects selected before the field study per the case study protocol and the actual subjects who took part in the interviews case by case.

Subjects	Numbers	Number Actually Interviewed Per Case				
	Selected	UnivA	UnivB	UnivC	UnivD	UnivE
Dean	2	3	1	1	4	2
HOD	2	2	3	3	1	1
Registrar	2	1	2	1	2	3
Planning officer	2	2	0	2	1	0
Univ. Librarian	1	1	1	1	1	1
Deputy Librarian	1	1	1	1	1	1
Member Lib.Board	2	3	3	0	1	0
Chairman Lib. Board	1	0	0	1	0	0
Mem.Lib. Strategic Comm.	2	2	2	2	0	0
Finance Officer	1	0	1	1	1	0
Dep.Fin. Officer	1	1	0	0	0	1
	17*5					
<b>TOTAL</b>	85	15	13	13	12	8

**Table 3.1** Selection of Subjects for qualitative study

Table 3.1 shows that the total number of subjects selected from the universities for the interviews was 85 and 4 senior civil servants were also selected bringing the total number to 89. The number that was actually interviewed was 63 giving a response rate of 70.8%. The table also shows the distribution of subjects in almost every category of university/library administration that took part in the interviews across cases. It must be stated that some Deans were also Heads of Departments. In certain situations the number of subjects interviewed was more than the number selected. This did not affect the trend of the interviews but rather helped to gather many diverse views.

Before the investigator went to any institution a list of selected subjects with a brief explanation of the research was sent to the librarian to pass on to the potential interviewees. Four of the librarians had already selected and contacted the subjects before the researcher arrived and had planned a working schedule for him. Their selection of subjects, according to them was based on those who they knew would be willing to meet the investigator, were willing to take part in the research and would be available during the period of investigation.

This arrangement made accessibility easier than had been anticipated. This prior arrangement had not been made in only one university and this actually affected the duration of the interview period in that institution.

Subjects for the quantitative research were selected in conformity with (some of) the norms and guidelines provided by social scientist Daniel Katz (1960:167). A number of reasons has already been discussed for selecting the cross-sectional survey method (information was collected at one point in time but not over a period of time) as a supplementary design for this study. The subjects were selected from a working universe (Smith, 1980:267) of the following staff from the five university libraries in Ghana: professional, para-professionals and non-professionals. Because one of the objectives of the study was to explore the level of participation in the planning process by the different types of staff categories, the initial intention was to sample so that the staff categories were well represented in the samples of each case institution. Stratification could not work with this population because the resulting samples produced very few subjects, in some cases as small as one but, statistically, a sample has to be large enough to allow generalisations, within measurable limits of accuracy to the subject group from which it was selected. Though the population was such that individuals could be placed into homogenous categories or strata, a clear prerequisite for stratification, the sample size was too small. Stratification was therefore abandoned.

An attempt was to select the subjects by proportional representation based on the number of staff for each case study institution. It was realised, however, that there was a highly uneven distribution of staff between the cases and such proportional representation would have produced a null subject for one of the cases. A stratified random sample of the total library staff therefore was statistically insignificant. It was therefore decided to select 34 subjects randomly from the first case and 30 from the second and third cases. These had populations of 61, 44, 51, respectively. The fourth and fifth case institutions had populations of 18 and 8. 18 and 8 subjects (all of them) were selected respectively from those cases for the survey (the characteristics of the populations of case institutions are described in Chapter 5). In this case statistical inference about the total population of library staff in universities in Ghana was not possible. What was possible was to compare individuals and category of staff across cases for the purpose of testing theories, by the use of non-parametric techniques and

then to consider each result across cases. Table 3.2 is the selection of the subjects for the quantitative research.

Libraries	Number of Staff	Number selected
UnivA	61	34
UnivB	44	30
UnivC	51	30
UnivD	18	18
UnivE	12	8
<b>TOTAL</b>	182	120

**Table 3.2** Selection of subjects for survey.

For the UK study the heads of the university libraries and their deputies were selected for the interviews.

### 3.5 INSTRUMENTS

The instruments for collecting data for case studies can be many but the six most important means of data collection are: documentation, participant observation, direct observation, interviews, archival records and physical artefacts. These have been extensively discussed in numerous textbooks and research articles, for example the works of Schatzman and Strauss (1973), Murphy (1980), Webb et al. (1981) and Pelto and Pelto (1978). In this study, the data gathering methods that have been used are: interviews, questionnaires, observation and documentary evidence.

#### 3.5.1 Interviews

Three major types of interviews stand out clearly in most of the textbooks on research methodology. Cohen and Mannin (1980) for example discuss these as : structured or formal, semi-structured (less formal) and unstructured or informal. They also contend that



interviews may serve three purposes when used as principal means of gathering information:

- They provide access to what is inside a person's head, make it possible to measure what a person knows (knowledge and information), what a person likes or dislikes (values and preferences) and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs).
- They may be used to test hypotheses or to suggest new ones or as an explanatory device to help identify variables and relationships.
- They may be used in conjunction with other methods in a research undertaking. May be used to follow up unexpected results, to validate other methods, or to go deeper into the motivations of respondents and their reasons for responding as they do (Cohen and Mannin, 1980: 51).

The interview instrument was found essential in this research in order to ask key respondents for the facts that relate to university libraries as well as their opinions about events under study. This was because not a great deal was known about the planning activities of the target population. This helped to identify key variables for subsequent investigations. This idea of being informed by the actual players i.e., the major key university library stakeholders in Ghana, is supported by Yin (1994) who states that:

Overall, interviews are an essential source of case study evidence because most case studies are about human affairs. These human affairs should be reported and interpreted through the eyes of specific interviews, and well informed respondents can provide important insights into a situation. They can also produce short cuts to the prior history of the situation, helping you to identify other relevant sources of evidence (Yin, 1994: 85).

This research used the semi-structured interview as its primary research instrument. This means that some of the interview questions were structured and some were open-ended. The structured questions were used mainly to gather factual information and the open-ended questions allowed the respondents to reply freely to the questions laid down in the interview schedule.

The preparation for the interview took many forms. First, a number of social sciences texts were consulted in order to develop the approach necessary to conduct interviews effectively. An initial interview schedule was drafted and the questions were piloted on a number of

several uninvolved colleagues to ascertain clarity as was the final draft of the interview schedule. Some modifications were made to improve the logical sequence of the questions.

The final interview schedule had a brief explanation of the research, a guide to the main questions which was then followed by the interview questions. In the brief explanation of the research, the essence of this research was spelt out to the respondents. It also assured them that their views were valuable and of significance to the interview to be conducted. The manner of recording responses was explained as tape recording and hand note taking. This explanation was detached from the main interview schedule and sent to the subjects prior to the site visits via the university librarians. Background and other environmental information from the main interview schedule was also prepared separately and detached from the main schedule. (See Appendix B). These were served to the respondents for self completion before each interview and were personally collected by the investigator after the interview. Question 29 was structured and was also detached from the main interview schedule (See Appendix C). This question had as many as 13 subquestions with rating scales which appeared more suited to self completion - than by oral replies. These questionnaires were administered after each interview and were collected immediately after completion. This idea of separating these two questionnaires from the main interview schedule helped to cut down on the long interview period that would have otherwise been spent at the various sites.

The main interview schedule (See Appendix A) has 49 questions with an option for comments numbered 50. The questions were categorised according to the work roles of the respondents. Questions 1- 4, which were (somewhat) factual, had answers written on cards which were given to the respondents before the questions were read to them. They had to choose their answers from the cards. Questions 1- 7 were intended for all category of interviewees. They were about the goals and mission of universities/libraries as well as the visions the informants had for the universities and their libraries. Questions 8- 14 were answered by the Executive Officers of the Ministries of Education and Finance and all non-library staff. Questions 15- 17 were answered by subjects who were university staff while all the interviewees who were library staff answered Questions 19-49. Comments regarding strategic planning were requested from all the respondents in Question 50.

All interviews were conducted privately, face-to-face. The process in every case was identical according to the following plan:

- 1 Brief social conversation to establish rapport and to make respondent feel at ease.
- 2 Brief explanation of interview.
- 3 Permission to tape record interview.
- 4 Assurances of anonymity and confidentiality.
- 5 Administration of oral questions.

Two modes of recording the interviews were employed simultaneously, tape recording and note taking. Only one interviewee objected to his answers being tape recorded. One or two also requested the recorded answers be played back to them. One audio tape was exclusively used for each interview except in some circumstances when there was the need to use more than one tape.

There were prompting questions to stimulate response especially from those who appeared to be hesitant in giving responses. Prompting was used very much when political views were being sought. Every attempt was made to encourage discussion of the questions, especially in situations where the interviewee showed considerable interest. Probing was also used to encourage the respondents to clarify or extend answers. Some of the probing techniques used were eye contact, silence, enquiry glance, repetition of the interviewee's own words and sometimes bluntly demanding further explanations. Many ambiguous terms and other meaningless responses were thus clarified. Much verbal probing was used, particularly in the interviews with the subjects of the government ministries and university finance officers. This sometimes made the interviewer deviate from the sequence of the questions as described in the interview schedule. This was because clarifications and responses to some of the emerging issues from the point of view of university staff were necessary to obtain a balance of views. In fact this technique unveiled other issues which were not part of the original interview protocol.

For the non-library staff, interviews took between 30 and 40 minutes but for library staff interview times averaged 65 minutes. Between 1st February and the end of March 1996, 63 subjects were interviewed. It must be stated, however, that many difficulties were

encountered. For example, appointments with government officials and the Finance Officers were never kept as planned as they had to attend to other business they considered more important though the researcher kept the appointments. In one particular instant the researcher had to reschedule the appointment eight times. Also, on about six occasions, technical problems with the tape recorder were encountered, though no loss of data was experienced because of the notes that were taken during the course of the interview. Notes were also taken for the following reasons: to highlight items of interest; as a device to encourage the subject to continue talking or to stop talking. It was observed that the subjects were more likely to continue discussion of a topic while the interviewer was taking notes or was poised to take notes; it helped the interviewer to focus on the words being spoken and be less distracted by the surroundings. Some notes were also made after each interview in order to focus on items that seemed especially important at the time and to record any significant impressions of the subjects. These notes were also reviewed to determine whether or not any new material had accumulated and whether or not saturation had been achieved.

Another common problem that was encountered was the issue of deviation from the topic by some subjects as well as repetitions of answers. However, as the interview process matured, the interviews were more closely guided to avoid lengthy repetitive digressions about the individual subject's interests which were remote from the area being discussed. Back up interview tapes were made to avoid the possible loss of data.

### **3.5.2 Questionnaires**

A questionnaire has been defined by Heather and Stone(1984) as:

a structured schedule of questions which is either self-completed by the respondent or completed by an interviewer who reads out the questions and records the responses. (Heather and Stone, 1984: 2)

This definition means that structured interviews and self completed questionnaires are the principal instruments. The structured self completion questionnaire which was used as a secondary instrument to the primary instrument of interview for this study has a number of

advantages and disadvantages which has been well documented in the literature. Busha and Harter (1980) list twelve advantages and disadvantages. Heather and Stone (1984) also present some advantages of the questionnaire as a survey instrument over interviews as well as some limitations.

A number of advantages was considered before the self-completion questionnaire was used. Notable amongst them were:

- To cut down on the time for the entire field work by using the instrument as a supplementary data gathering method administered to a larger number of individuals at the same time. This allowed greater economy of effort.
- Some of the questions which involved junior staff comments on organisational climate in relation to senior members in the organisational hierarchy would have been very difficult for them to discuss freely if interviews had been used. Respondents were able to give frank anonymous answers.
- The quantitative data was relatively easy to collect and analyse.

Since the use of self-completed questionnaires implies that a good deal was known already about the target population the main purpose of using this instrument was to obtain valid and reliable information so that specific theories that had emerged from the qualitative study could be supported by multiple sources of evidence. A convergent line of inquiry is therefore relevant during data collection. A chain of evidence that supports the same theories in a case study research helps to achieve what Yin (1994) terms “construct validity” of the entire research. The survey phase of this study grew directly out of the interview phase and was therefore considered as a means of verifying the conclusions of the interview data and to test hypotheses about factors affecting information provision in university libraries in Ghana.

The questionnaire had the following specific objectives:

1. To investigate the nature of current of planning (that was in vogue) in the university libraries.
2. To determine the levels of awareness of the strategic planning process among

a larger population of the library staff; awareness by site and by combined sites, awareness by years of service, awareness by staff category and awareness by educational level.

3. To determine staff levels of participation in the planning process; this would involve participation by site(s) and by personnel category.
- 4 To determine the factors that affect long range planning in the university libraries in Ghana from the perspective of general staff based on factors that had already emerged from interview data and to specifically test some hypotheses in the external environment

In a similar manner to the preparation for the interviews the investigator consulted literature that dealt with questionnaire preparation; their advantages and disadvantages and construction of good questions. Some of the criticisms and problems inherent in the use of questionnaires and other disadvantages such as the possibility of ambiguity, poorly worded questions arousing antagonism or inhibitions on the part of respondents, as reported in the main research literature were carefully studied before the questionnaires were designed and administered.

The questions asked were formulated from the most frequent issues that emerged from the qualitative analysis of interview data from the first two case institutions. These individual categories with some more that were developed later during the final analysis of all the interview The questions of the instrument however still addressed the same research questions as the interview questions. The first and main questionnaire had 32 questions (See Appendix B2) presented under 4 main broad categories:

- Staff awareness and participation.
- Organisational culture and climate.
- Politics and Funding.
- Technology.

A fifth section of the questionnaire was biographical information.

There were a variety of questions. Some questions were information questions, for example questions 1-4: others were designed to elicit opinions and attitudes, e.g. questions 6 to13 and question 18. Some explanatory questions, for example, questions 14 and 15 were also asked which allowed the respondents to explain certain actions of some of the staff. Question 28-32 were made up of biographical questions.

The questions were developed in the field. The draft questions were forwarded electronically to the project supervisor and the Head of Department in the University of Sheffield for their criticisms and suggestions. The feedback from the head of department helped to modify the questions and achieve a lot more clarity. The questions were then tested on a few library staff in Ghana. No new modifications were made after the test as respondents appeared to have had no problems with the questions. The survey took place in March 1996 after all the interviews had been completed. The questions were distributed to the subjects as indicated in Table 3.3. At four of the sites the investigator personally administered the questionnaires. Because respondents found the questions clear and easy to complete they completed them and returned them immediately to the investigator. At these sites it took the rest of the respondents a maximum of three days to return the completed questionnaire to the investigator who went round personally to collect them. At one of the sites, the university librarian administered the questionnaires on behalf of the investigator and mailed the whole batch to him at another site. Two of the subjects who did not submit their questionnaires sent them by post to the investigator after the field work.

The overall response rate was 81.67%. This encouragingly high response rate is an indication of the effective procedures this investigator followed in administering the questionnaires. It must also be stated that personal familiarity with the institutions surveyed was an important contributory factor. The response rates for the different case institutions are shown in **Table 3.3**.

	Number	Number	Percentage
Library	Distributed	Received	Response
UnivA	34	26	76.4
UnivB	30	24	80.00
UnivC	30	23	76.67
UnivD	18	17	94.4
UnivE	8	8	100.00
<b>Total</b>	120	98	81.67

**Table 3.3** Survey response rates

The Overall response rate = 81.67%

### *The supplementary questionnaire*

It became necessary to confirm some more of the issues that emerged from the interviews especially from the last sets of transcripts. A supplementary questionnaire (See Appendix D) was subsequently mailed to the subjects of all the five case study libraries in Ghana. The questionnaire had the following sections: 1. Biography 2. Goals/mission/vision 3. External environment 4. Internal factors and 5. Technology. A total of 22 questions were asked. The response rate for the different case studies are shown in Table 3.4.

Library	Number Distributed	Number received	Percentage response
UnivA	34	34	100
UnivB	30	22	73.3
UnivC	30	15	50.0
UnivD	18	11	61.1
UnivE	8	7	87.5
Total	120	89	74.2

**Table 3.4** Response rates for supplementary questionnaire

### **3.5.3 Observation**

The third instrument used to gather data in this study was observation. Busha and Harter(1980) write that:

the term observation is used to indicate that the object or subject of an investigation is being subjected to close -usually visual-surveillance and that the information obtained(i.e. the observations in the form of recorded data) will then be related to more general propositions or theories(Busha and Harter, 1980: 147).

This investigator as part of the case study protocol realised some sort of surveillance was necessary to confirm some of the issues that would emerge from interviews. Bearing in mind that field visits to case study sites were going to be made, the opportunity for direct observation had been created automatically.

Creswell (1994) presents the following as the advantages of observation as a qualitative technique of data gathering:

- Researcher has firsthand experience with informant.



- Researcher can record information as it occurs.
- Unusual aspects can be noticed during observation.
- Useful in exploring topics that may be uncomfortable for informants to discuss (Creswell, 1994:151).

Some limitations of this instrument have also been discussed in the literature, for example Busha and Harter (1980) have described this technique for gathering data as a relatively primitive procedure. However, for this study, this technique was, rather, found to be valuable in affording the investigator the opportunity for a personal experience of some of the issues which appeared difficult to grasp as they emerged from the interviews with the management of the libraries. Not only was this technique used as a confirmatory instrument but observation was used to generate other types of data which also contributed in a distinctive way to the understanding of some events. It was, therefore, used as an effective and cogent research tool to validate the data that had already been collected, a view shared by Herbert Goldhur(1969) when he stated that:

direct observation is a good method by which to verify data secured by other methods, e.g., the interview; if those parts of the data which are verifiable turn out to be correct, one can have confidence in the accuracy of the non-verifiable parts (Goldhur, 1969:132).

The type of observation used for this study was rather casual and informal as well as occasional. It was both obtrusive and unobtrusive. It was non-participant, without direct interaction with the activities of the subjects. A small notebook was kept to document the findings of the observation as soon as they occurred in the various settings, thus giving the procured data a high validity.

Observation was carried out any time the researcher visited any of the sites. Because of the familiarity of the investigator with most of the librarians in at least three of the institutions, uninvited visits were made to some of the work areas such as cataloguing rooms, computer processing rooms, audio visual rooms and periodical processing rooms. The aim of these intrusions was to monitor the performances of subjects on duty and to record periods when subjects engaged in non-working activities such as private conversations, as well as the periods when they had to leave their desks for other private engagements. It is assumed that subjects were not disturbed in any way by the presence of the observer since none of them complained about his presence and his activities. Some of the subjects did not seem

bothered by the findings the observer made regarding loitering and other negative work habits. Mindful of the phenomenon under study, some subjects tried to justify some of their actions by informing the observer about their low remuneration that did not merit a hundred percent work output.

The observer was particularly interested in the following phenomena: organisational climate and culture; library infrastructure and technology; and relationship between university staff and government representatives. Among the organisational climatic factors that had to be observed because of their emergence from the interviews were:

- employee behaviour
- work habits
- punctuality
- attendance registration
- management-staff communication.

Political factors included the relationship between the university staff and government officials at meetings.

Under library infrastructure and technology the following were the factors that were observed:

- number of PC's
- reading facilities
- computer peripherals
- computerised operations
- computer usage by staff
- general library facilities.

### ***3.5.4 Documentary evidence***

Documentary information is relevant to every case study topic and documents were an essential component of the case study protocol before the start of the field work. Documentary evidence has the following advantages:

- enables a researcher to obtain the language and words of informants.

- can be accessed at a time convenient to researcher-an unobtrusive source of information.
- represents data that are thoughtful in that informants have given attention to compiling.
- as written evidence, it saves a researcher the time and expense of transcribing (Creswell, 1994:151-152).

In addition to these advantages the main advantage of using documentary evidence as an instrument for this research was to corroborate and augment evidence from the other sources (interviews, observation and survey). Inferences drawn from examination of documents gave vital clues to the development of some of the variables that were subjected to further investigation in the interviews.

As part of the data collection plan a list of documentary information that the researcher thought might be relevant was made. This consisted mainly of Ghanaian environmental information based on the research questions and the objectives of this study. The aim was to understand the environment in which the librarians operated in order to discover the issues that were likely to affect their progress. Some of these issues had already been dealt with by some of the other instruments, contradictions in some of the results also warranted the use of this instrument.

A systematic plan was devised which divided the documentary information into three broad categories namely:

- macro environment
- corporate environment/internal environment
- libraries' own environment.

**Macro environment information:** Documents were collected under the headings- politics, economy, social and technology. These documents were from such primary sources as government publications, letters, memoranda and communiqués from the public service. Secondary sources like textbooks and other rare texts were obtained from the University of Ghana library, where the researcher spent a considerable amount of time in the Africana library reading room gathering data and background information on Ghana e.g., culture, economy and political history.

**Corporate environment:** documents on the university environment or the corporate environment were mainly university reports, annual calendars, administrative records and books written about universities in Ghana. Information obtained from these sources included, the history and traditions of universities, university strategic plans, university demography, financial reports and departmental progress and annual reports.

**Libraries' own environment:** primary sources such as library working files, minutes of staff meetings, letters, annual reports, library automation reports and acquisition data bases were used to gather information on library history, goals and objectives, strategic planning documents, organisational charts, user statistics and current services and resources.

The gathering of data by documentation was made known to the librarians of the universities in Ghana when they were written to before the field work. Permission for the granting of access to their libraries, staff and documents was sought in the letter. The librarians were very co-operative in giving access to the relevant documents by allowing the investigator to copy them. Most of the documents were made available to the investigator both before and after the interviews with the university librarians. In some cases, the librarians allowed the researcher to come back to collect more documents with the assistance of their secretaries. It can be said that the scheduling of the retrieval activities was usually more flexible than previous data gathering methods and the search was usually conducted at the convenience of the investigator. The investigator visited some of the sites several times to gather more documentary evidence when the need arose without any objections from the authorities. Photocopies of the original documents were made and in some rare cases relevant portions of the materials were copied by hand. Original corporate reports which were for sale to the general public were purchased.

At some of the sites reliance upon documentation brought with it certain problems. In some instances, the needed documents were not available, others were out-of -date. In some institutions it was not possible to obtain documented budgetary figures for certain years In one of the case study institutions basic user statistics were not available.

The findings and results of the examination of the documents can be found in Chapters Four and Five of this dissertation.

## **3.6 TREATMENT AND ANALYSIS OF DATA**

Treatment and analysis of data in social science research involves the examination and manipulation of evidence in order to address the research propositions.

The aim of analysis of data, in this study was to work on the data gathered to see how best the objectives set out in Chapter 1 had been achieved. The analysis was therefore guided by the theoretical proposition that led to this study with the data collected having been shaped by the research questions, research problems and research proposition.

For each library the purpose of the case study was to explore the factors that affect the strategic planning process. The analysis was therefore guided by this institutional goal which helped to focus attention on certain data and to ignore other data. In conformity with the methodological plan of this study the analysis has been both qualitative and quantitative.

### **3.6.1 *Qualitative analysis***

Qualitative research is about ‘understanding’, it emphasises context, sees the social world from the point of view of the actor and human behaviour from the actor’s own frame of reference (Hannabus, 1995: 7). Rather than hypothesising from the outset such research often involves familiarisation with the people and situation. This is what Bourdieu termed the ‘habitus’, the social setting of the actor, his or her way of talking and doing, the inside-head meanings and representations in language. It is a ‘shared body of dispositions, classifications and schemes, not just cumulative history but the source of objective practices and their subjective generative principles(e.g. how we explain things).’(Jenkins,1992)

Material collected through qualitative methods is invariably unstructured and unwieldy. A high proportion of it is text- based, consisting of verbatim transcription of interviews or discussions, field notes or other written documents. A qualitative researcher therefore has to provide some coherence and structure to this cumbersome data set while retaining a hold of the original accounts and observations from which it is derived.

Qualitative data analysis therefore is essentially about detection, and the task of defining, categorising, theorising, explaining, exploring and mapping are fundamentals of the

analyst's role. The methods used for qualitative analysis need to facilitate such detection. In support of this Mellon (1990) states that:

Naturalistic researches make sense out of their data by identifying themes, arranging the themes into patterns of behaviour and developing statements to explain the patterns they observe. The end result of analysis is to present the theories, patterns, and explanations to an audience of readers or listeners so that they understand the phenomenon in the same way that the researcher does (Mellon, 1990:69).

The goal of qualitative analysis is the generation of theory or explanation building (Yin, 1994: 110) or hypothesis-generation (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). That is, themes are identified and verified and are used to construct hypotheses.

### ***3.6.1.1 Aspects of grounded theory techniques as applied in this study***

Analysis of data for this study has not been carried out strictly according to all the rules of the grounded theory approach (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The interview was semi-structured and there was also no development of a theoretical sampling, an essential feature of grounded theory. The major core categories of the data were not inductively developed from the interview data as it is the case with the grounded theory approach. The data was rather structured under major themes which were already part of the interview schedule. These major themes are:

- Goals/Mission
- Vision
- Funding
- External factors
- Library services
- Organisational structure and climate
- Politics
- Personnel
- Technology

The *a priori* structure given to the interview schedule focused the interviews towards set courses under the major themes listed above. Enough flexibility was however given to subjects to permit free utterances of their thoughts and to probe in- depth where appropriate.

What this analysis did was to use some of the analytical tools from the grounded theory approach to analyse the qualitative data. Some concepts have therefore been adopted from Open Coding, Axial Coding and Selective Coding. Before the application of these techniques the interview data had to be transcribed.

### **3.6.1.2      *Analysing interview data***

Analysis began with the labelling of transcripts. Each transcript for the Ghanaian case studies was given a unique label. A label for each case study institution was the first four alphabets of the fictitious name of the institution. One transcript for each case study institution was then differentiated from the other by simply adding the position number of that transcripts in the pile of transcripts to the alphabets e.g.,UnivA1,UnivA2...UnivAn where n is the total number of transcripts for each case study institution. For the UK case studies each transcript was labelled by adding the digit 1 or 2 to the label assigned to the particular library. For the first library the label UK1 was assigned to it and therefore the transcripts were accordingly labelled UK11 and UK12, the second library was labelled UK2 therefore the transcripts were also labelled UK21 and UK22. All the others were labelled in a similar fashion.

Coding techniques as found in the grounded theory approach were then used to analyse the data. Coding was done in three stages as recommended by Strauss (1987): Open Coding, Axial Coding and Selective Coding.

At the Open Coding stage categories were developed from the transcripts under the major categories that had been imposed on the data. Categorisation was done one case after the other. Categorisation was done in the field for the first two case institutions. The categories that were derived were used to construct the questionnaire for the survey. The rest of the transcripts were fully analysed after the entire field work.

Categorisation of data was done by reading portions of the first paragraphs of the transcripts. Concepts were derived from the sentences and were written along the margins of each line in the transcripts where they occurred. Having come up with dozens of concepts under each of the major categories, the concepts were categorised and named. The naming of the categories were logically related to the data and the major categories though some in vivo codes(derived from interview data) were also used.

The categories were then copied onto 5 x 3 inch record cards. They were sorted alphabetically and placed under each of the main categories. Each category had one card. These categories were analysed in turn to discover the various inherent codes and other categories (subcategories). These subcategories were then listed under each of the earlier categories. The labels on the transcripts were recorded on the category cards as a category for a transcript fitted any of the categories on the cards. Most of the transcripts of the first two case study institutions were analysed in the field. The rest of the interview data was also analysed in a similar manner after all the interviews had been done. In some cases new category -cards had to be created because those categories had not emerged from the analysis of the first transcripts. After all the transcripts had been analysed in this way the categories were then developed in terms of their properties and dimensions.

As the data analysed entered the next phase, some aspects of axial coding were also used in order to relate subcategories and their categories hypothetically by using the coding paradigm (Strauss, 1987). Each category was developed in terms of the causal conditions that gave rise to it, the specific dimensional location in terms of its properties, the context, the action/interactional strategies in the light of that context and the consequences of any action/interaction that was taken. The relationships or hypotheses that were deduced were verified against the actual data as continual movement between inductive and deductive thinking was done (deductively statements of relationships were made from the data and then actually verified inductively against the data). The search for more properties of categories and subcategories and their dimensional locations of the data indicative of them went on. There was constant interplay between proposing and checking. An exploration of variation in phenomena was also done by comparing each category and its subcategories for different patterns. The relationships derived this way were tested in the quantitative study.

***Selective Coding:*** When the analysis had been completed and provisional findings had been written, analysis gave way to exposition. This was linked with the practical issue of selection- that is selecting examples from the transcripts to illustrate in a concrete form the abstract features of the theories (Ellis: 1993). Selection was based on particular categories that had occurred in several transcripts. Examples were also chosen from categories whose properties had slight variations in meanings or emphasis to illustrate nuances.



### ***3.6.2 Analysis of strategic planning documents***

In order to achieve part of the first specific objective of this study, i.e., to determine the sort of planning in vogue in the university libraries, the strategic plans of the libraries had to be analysed.

Among the documents that were requested from the university libraries in both the UK and Ghana investigations were their current or recent long range planning documents (i.e., master plan, five year plan etc.) or formal statements of goals and objectives or planning priorities.

In Ghana four of the case study institutions submitted their formal strategic planning documents. The fifth institution was, however, in the process of drawing up a plan. As a result, the librarian submitted the goals of his library which was part of a brochure for general library development. The dates of the plans submitted ranged from 1994-1995.

The strategic plans were analysed according to a set of guidelines drawn up after consulting different literature on similar exercises. Appendix E is an outline of the guidelines used. The set of guidelines used a rating system of 1-4 for the factors of the plans. The ratings were subjective determinations of the extent to which each plan addressed the factor under consideration. The results and discussion of analysis are documented in Appendix F.

### ***3.6.3 Quantitative analysis***

The survey instrument was constructed with how the data would be analysed in mind. It had been decided to use the SPSS (Nie et al., 1970), a package for statistical analysis of quantified research data.

The decision to use this package was influenced by the fact that it is widely used and taught as a course in the University of sheffield making consultations for further explanation of difficulties possible and easier. The developers of SPSS in their introduction to the SPSS manual indicated the following advantages among others for its use; ease of use; excellent data formats that require no editing nor debugging; and the provision of good documentation associated with the package (Nie et al., 1970: viii).

Having made the decision to use SPSS based on these reasons, the survey questions were formatted in such a way that the responses could easily be translated into a format that could

be analysed by SPSS. Analysis was begun by coding the responses from the questionnaire. Three main principles were followed in coding the data: a value was given for every response; codes were constructed for non-response; consistency was maintained during coding. To achieve consistency, a coding sheet was constructed and used to code the responses. Appendix G is the coding scheme used. Data was then entered using SPSS.

Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means and percentages were used to present the results of the analysis. Tables were used in most cases to display the results. The chi-square value, a frequently used measure of independence for nominal data, is included in tables where significant relationships were established. Significance values that fell below the .05 level were therefore recorded in the tables where statistical significance resulted.

The Kruskal-Wallis one-way anova test, a non-parametric test was used to show the mean ranks between the case studies in some instances where rankings by subjects helped to explain certain issues better.

The data analysis did not have separate chapters or sections devoted to individual cases. Rather, the entire report consists of the cross-case analysis. Each chapter and section is devoted to a separate cross-case issue and the information from the individual cases (in UK and Ghana) are dispersed throughout each chapter and section.

# **CHAPTER FOUR**

## **A BRIEF GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY OF GHANA**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

One of the determinants of a successful strategic plan of an organisation is the history and background of the present condition of the country in which the organisation finds itself. What Ghana has become today is a result of its history and policies - the way these policies have been carried out and the extent to which the Ghanaian society has been affected by them. This chapter, therefore, provides some documentary evidence of Ghana's history and its implication for the practice of strategic planning.

### **4.2 GHANA-THE COUNTRY**

Ghana, formerly the British colony of the Gold Coast, is right in the centre of West Africa between longitudes 3 07' W and 1 14'E and latitudes 5 25' and 11 N. It is bounded on the East, West, and North respectively by the Republics of Togo, Côte d'Ivoire and Burkina Faso, on the South by the Atlantic Ocean. It has a total area of 92,100 square miles (238,540 sq. kilometres) which is approximately the same area as the United Kingdom and is relatively flat. Figure 4.1 shows Ghana in the context of West African sub-region.

The coastline, extending East to West for some 334 miles is for the most part regular, with no major indentations to create natural harbours. Ghana lies within the belt of tropical climate. In most places the maximum temperature occurs during the equinoctial month of March. The maximum temperature ever recorded was 169F (71C) in Navrongo while an absolute minimum of 44F (5C) has also been recorded in Bui. The average daily temperature is about 86F (30C) maximum and 73F (23C) minimum. The average diurnal temperatures are greatest in January when the North-Easterlies bring Harmattan influences from the Sahara. Rains fall in May-June and in September-October. January-February can be said to be the period of no rain.

93

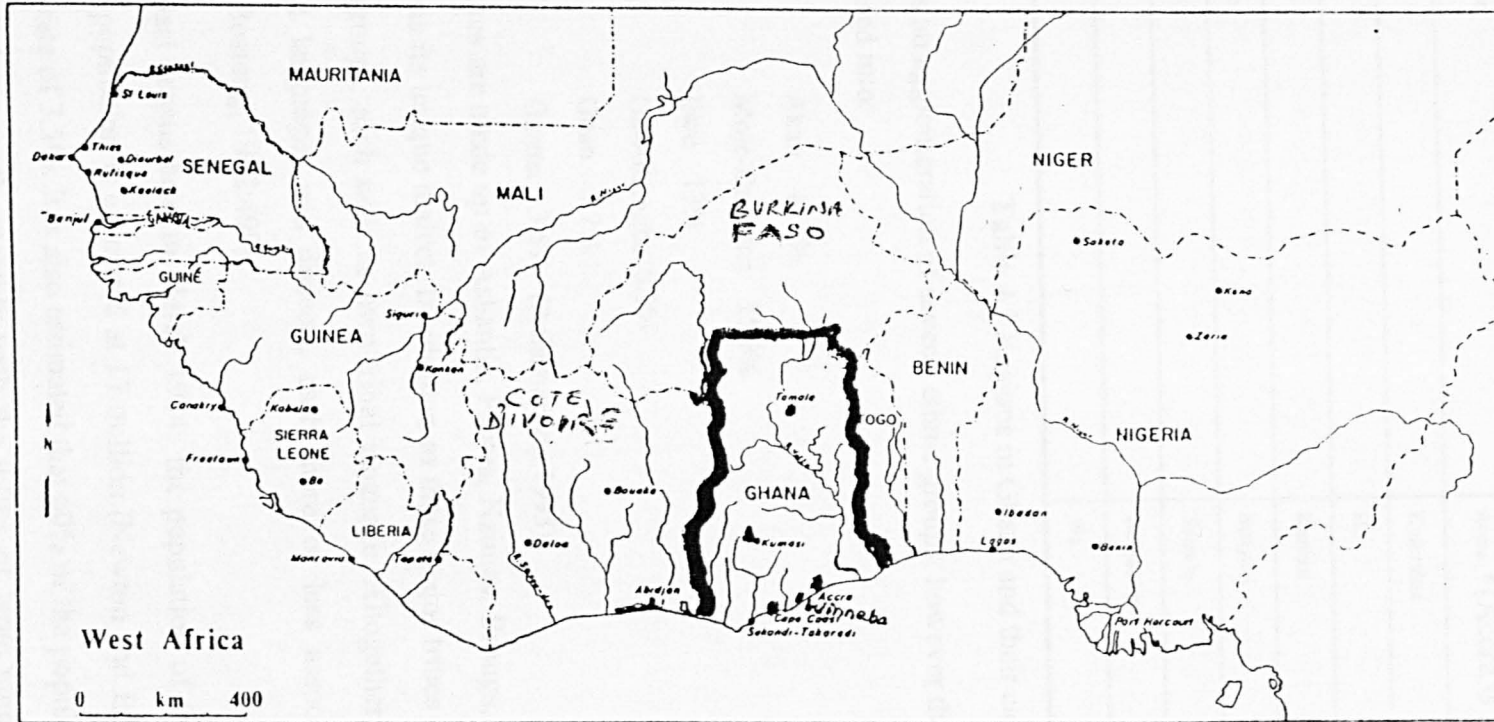


Fig. 1.1 GHANA IN THE WEST AFRICAN CONTEXT

Ghana is divided into ten regions for administrative purposes, as listed in **Table 4.1**

REGION	CAPITAL
Western	Sekondi-Takoradi
Central	Cape Coast
Greater Accra	Accra *(Accra is also the national capital)
Eastern	Koforidua
Volta	Ho
Ashanti	Kumasi
Brong Ahafo	Sunyani
Northern	Tamale
Upper East	Bolgatanga
Upper West	Wa

**Table 4.1** Regions in Ghana and their capitals

Ghana is an agglomeration of several ethnic groups, however the main ethnic groups can be categorised into:

- Akan 44.1%
- Mole-Dagbane 15.9%
- Ewe 13%
- Ga-Adamgbe 8.3%
- Guan 3.7%
- Gurma 3.5% (Acheampong,1995)

The Akans are made up of Ashantis, Fantes, Nzimas, Brongs, Akims and Akwapims. Each group has its unique dialect. In addition to these major tribes there are several other minor ethnic groups, each with its own tribal language. Altogether, there are no fewer than 75 different languages and dialects, each more or less associated with a distinct ethnic group.(Boateng, 1992:499).

At the last census held in March 1984 the population of Ghana was 12, 296, 081. The present population is estimated at 17 million (Newton and Else, 1995:361) with an annual growth rate of 3.5%. It is also estimated that 60% of the population is literate. The high rate of population growth, together with the influx of large numbers-mostly youth- from the rural areas into the urban centres and coupled with a virtually stagnant economy and the

lack of adequate opportunities, pose very serious social and political problems. The problem of providing food and other basic necessities for people in the face of escalating inflation and declining productivity in both agriculture and industry continues to defy solution. Meanwhile, large numbers of Ghanaian youth, as well as professionals, leave the country year after year in search of employment in other countries, especially Togo, Cote d'Ivoire, Nigeria, UK, South Africa, USA and, of late, Korea and Japan.

At the last census (1984) 70% of the country's labour resources were employed in agriculture, while, of the remainder, only a very small proportion was completely divorced from the land. Cocoa growing is the principal occupation. Ghana was the world's largest producer of the crop from 1920 to late 1970s. It is currently the second largest producer of cocoa.

### **4.3 THE HISTORY OF GHANA**

#### ***4.3.1 Pre-colonial period***

It is believed that settlements along the Ghanaian coasts date back 40, 000 years. One theory that is widely acclaimed is that the ancestors of today's Ghanaians may have migrated from the North of Africa, starting around the 12th century, after the fall of the Empire of Ghana- a kingdom to the north-west which was made up of parts of Mali, Mauritania and Senegal but had no relation with the present day Ghana.

The Portuguese arrived in the late 15th century, searching for gold. They found enough in the Ashanti region and decided to build several forts along the coast in 1482. Gold was shipped back to Europe as ingots. By the 17th century, the currency had become gold-based. The real wealth however turned out to be in the trade of slaves. It was this lucrative business that attracted the Dutch, the British and the Danes in the late 16th century. Until the 19th century, all four nations competed fiercely in this trade, building forts and capturing those of their rivals. According to Newton and Else (1995), the average yearly take in slaves was 10, 000. When slavery was abolished, seventy-six forts and castles were left along the Ghanaian coast, an average of one every six kilometres.

### ***4.32 The colonial period***

After the abolition of the slave trade, the British stayed on, claiming that they were ensuring that there was no revival of the trade. They took over the forts to use as customs posts and signed treaties with the local chiefs. European missionaries also invaded the coast to spread the Gospel.

The Ashantis adopted most of the European life style and employed some of the British in the 19th century as economic advisers and military trainers, however this alliance was not to last. The British decided to attack the Ashantis in 1873. It took the British over a year before they were able to annexe the Ashanti kingdom. Immediately afterwards they declared the Gold Coast, a crown colony.

The British set out to develop the Gold Coast. Cocoa became the backbone of the economy and in 1920 the colony overtook Equatorial Guinea as the world's leading producer. Gold was exported to the UK. The British built railways to link the cocoa producing areas and created a port in Sekondi. By the 1950s the Gold Coast was the world's leading producer of manganese and also exported diamonds and bauxite. The British also established the University College of the Gold Coast, now the University of Ghana, in 1948 and sent some of the local citizens abroad to be trained.

After the Second World War, the Gold Coast started to protest against British rule. This protest involved lawyers, newspaper editors, doctors and other members of the professional intelligentsia who were essentially middle-class and gradualists (Wallerstein, 1964). The protest was given a broader base by the Second World War; social fluidity, economic dislocation and the experiences of Gold Coast soldiers in the British army in East Africa and Burma army, fused with the older tradition of middle class protest to produce, in 1947, the United Gold Coast Convention (UGCC) which started to press for independence. Its leader was Dr J. B. Danquah, a lawyer - scholar with a distinguished history of constitutional protest against the British. Its secretary was Dr Kwame Nkrumah who was educated in the USA and fully understood the decline of European powers in the aftermath of the war and the rapidity of social change (Rathbone, 1973).

### ***4.3.3 Independence of Ghana***

In 1949, the secretary of UGCC, Dr Nkrumah, who was not a gradualist and other like-minded radical nationalists, broke with the UGCC to form the Convention Peoples Party (CPP). They rejected the gradualists approach of the UGCC and agitated for 'self government now'. The CPP organised a series of protests and in 1951 the British gave in. There was an election that led to indigenous ministerial government under the British Crown. Nkrumah's CPP won subsequent elections in 1954 and 1956 under the aegis of the British. Having won three successive elections Nkrumah pressed for full independence. This was granted and on the 6th of March 1957 the Gold Coast became the first black African country to gain independence and was named Ghana, with Dr Nkrumah winning 54% of the popular vote at the general election and 71 of the 104 seats in the national parliament (Rothchild and Gyimah-Boadi, 1981).

### ***4.3.4 Dr. Nkrumah and CPP rule***

The constitution designed at independence was derived from the Westminster model. It made provisions for parliamentary government based on multi-party competition and continuing participation in regularly scheduled elections.

The democratic government of the new state was confronted by a host of problems. These included not only the almost insurmountable challenge of meeting inflated expectations with meagre resources, but also the need to assert autonomy from the metropolis, to integrate a diverse population into a workable whole and to establish policy guidelines for future action (Chazan, 1978).

The rather slow progress in development attracted a lot of opposition to the government. This was at times violent and when rumours circulated about plots against the regime, a preventive detention act aimed specifically at Nkrumah's vociferous detractors (especially members of the UGCC and their leaders Dr Danquah and Dr Busia) was passed (Bing, 1968).

At the same time, government resources were channelled into party coffers. By 1960, the euphoria of decolonisation had begun to wear off, and the inherent problems of governing a predominantly rural population in an unintegrated economy had intensified. The



Westminster model did not seem to provide adequate means either to respond to continuous pressures on the new regime or to stifle discontent within the ranks of the party faithful.

Dr Nkrumah decided to alter the government structure. In April 1960 in a referendum, a Republican constitution that augmented the concentration of powers in the hands of the president was held nation-wide (Jones, 1976). Nkrumah naturally won the referendum. Consequently, effective opposition was eliminated and a firmer grip on the reigns of government by Nkrumah was established. The other presidential contender Dr Danquah lost the election. He was later imprisoned by Nkrumah and is believed to have died in prison.

By 1960 the Westminster democracy had collapsed and Ghana had become practically a one-party state. Ghana's experiment with Westminster democracy was half hearted and short-lived. Ghanaians had had little practical experience with this model under colonial rule until the post war period. The independent class structures that buttressed this form of government in Europe did not exist in Ghana at the time. In Ghana, as elsewhere on the continent, a British style of parliamentary democracy retreated quickly along with its colonial originators because the new leaders had little commitment to uphold its precepts (Breytenbach, 1976).

Ghana had become a Republic in 1960 and popular participation in decision making had been circumscribed. State institutions charged with the enforcement of decisions were politicised and subjected to direct partisan pressures. Nkrumaism, Ghana's brand of African socialism, was to provide the substantive direction for these structures. Designed to forward what it considered the good of all the people, it rejected both the colonial and precolonial past in an effort to come to terms with demands of social and economic reform (Chazan, 1975).

Nkrumaism rested on several distinct pillars: an outright and speedy attack on under development; industrialisation as the key to economic growth; the rapid expansion of state intervention in the economy, and a realignment of foreign contacts (Young, 1982). In a dawn broadcast on the 8th of April 1961 Nkrumah officially launched the socialist chapter of the first Republic, which had been stimulated by the new leadership in the CPP that was composed of a mixture of radicals and opportunists. The cocoa trade was nationalised, heavy emphasis was placed on centralised planning and state ownership and a shift from investment in infrastructure to industrial production was announced (CPP document n.d).

The state was elevated to the major employer in the modern sector. State enterprises however were expensive, inefficient, and frequently mismanaged (Rimmer, 1978). Revenues from the public sector firms declined, party officers (including the president himself) took advantage of their positions to enrich themselves and to mollify their followers.

Economic problems began to surface in 1961 as imports and government expenditures rose, while proceeds from exports began to level off. The austerity measures imposed to deal with these difficulties merely intensified public discontent. Between 1962 and 1966, industrial production fell off, prices rose and while capital investments remained high, consumption declined and debt grew.

The policies of the authoritarian government evoked strong opposition. Vocal dissenters were jailed or exiled. Between 1962 and 1964 there were serious attempts on the president's life as well as a generalised wave of protest by students, women's associations, professional organisations and disenfranchised ethnic groups and railwaymen (Jeffries, 1978).

In 1964 through a manipulated referendum, the government officially transformed Ghana into a one-party state. It resorted to the use of force to achieve compliance, and its officials continued to indulge in rampant corruption (Diamond, 1984). By 1965, falling cocoa prices and failing state enterprises combined to make the Nkrumah experiment a shambles: Nkrumah was isolated and authoritarian rule gave way to precariously personalised government. The country's foreign debt had risen to \$768 million (Young, 1982:16-44)

On the 24th of February 1966, a group of army officers, led by Colonel E. K. Kotoka, Police Inspector General J. W.K. Harlley and Major A. A. Afrifa carried out a coup d'état against Nkrumah while he was on a state visit to China. The National Liberation Council was formed to govern the country (Afrifa, 1967).

#### ***4.3.5 The National Liberation Council (NLC) 1966-1969***

The first intrusion of the military into the political arena was intended to clean up the mess left by Nkrumah and then hand over government to a new set of responsible leaders. It was therefore temporary in nature and corrective in design (Austin, 1981:91).

The ruling National Liberation Council (NLC) was headed by Lieutenant General J. A. Ankrah. Its eight members were mostly Sandhurst-trained, Western-oriented senior military

and public officers. The NLC's outlook was pragmatic and pluralistic, reflecting its administrative make up and its distaste for Nkrumah and his ideology (Pinkney, 1972).

The NLC ruled Ghana for three and a half years, during a period of deepening economic crises. The military leaders dismantled several state corporations in an effort to streamline government expenditure. They lifted controls on the private sector, permitted the freer importation of goods from abroad and avidly courted Western financial concerns. In 1967 the government adopted an IMF stabilisation programme and devalued its currency by 30%. Some stability was experienced: commodity prices dropped, inflation was checked and cocoa production was sustained.

The administration was not, however, without its critics; students and displaced politicians started to object to the NLC's Western stance. In April 1967, Colonel E. K. Kotoka was killed in an abortive coup. Individual conflicts within the NLC started to emerge on ethnic lines. The leader and Head of State, General Ankrah was forced to resign in April 1969. However the NLC was able to hold together and retained control of the army and the police. Seeing itself as a transitional regime it lifted the ban on political activities in May 1969. Two major political parties emerged. The Progress Party (PP) led by Prof. K. A. Busia and the National Alliance of Liberals led by K. A. Gbedemah.

An election for a new national assembly took place on the 29th of August 1969. Busia's PP won an overwhelming victory, gaining 105 of the 140 seats and 60% of the popular vote.

#### ***4.3.6 The Second Republic, 1969-1972***

Busia took office as Prime Minister on 1 October 1969. The three senior members of the erstwhile NLC maintained their presence as a three man presidential team until August 1970, when Edward Akuffo Addo, a prominent lawyer was appointed a non-executive civilian president.

Busia's regime came to power in an atmosphere of goodwill and was determined not to repeat the mistakes of the past. The administration pursued a laissez-faire policy and upheld fundamental human rights and liberties. It is most pertinent to note that it remains the only regime in Ghana's political history in which nobody was detained for political reasons. Freedom of the press flourished and the opposition spoke freely both in parliament and through several newspapers including the popular Spokesman.

The government rightly saw rural development as crucial to economic growth. As a complement to the rural development policy and the indigenisation of the Ghanaian economy, the small business loans scheme was established, designed to aid Ghanaian businessmen financially and to provide jobs (Ocquaye, 1980:3-5).

However, the PP government had inherited power during a period of accelerating economic decline, and this was to be a recurring problem for the new administration. Like its predecessor, the Busia government found its effectiveness impaired by mounting foreign debt. Meanwhile, cocoa prices continued to fall, leading to the high expenditure of precious foreign exchange on imported goods, inflation rose and there was high unemployment. Between 1970 and 1971 the current deficit on Ghana's balance of payments virtually doubled. The government responded to these developments by introducing a severe austerity budget in July 1971, but these measures had little effect. The balance of payment situation deteriorated and in 1971 the government was finally forced to devalue the cedi by 44%. Massive price increases ensued, leading to widespread disillusionment and discontent with the Progress Party administration.

The failures of the PP government in the economic sphere were reflected in other areas of policy-making. In December 1969 the government promulgated an Alien's Compliance Order (mainly affecting Nigerians), which was designed to relieve the country from the strangle-hold of certain dubious alien businessmen. In 1970 some 500 civil servants were dismissed in an effort to rationalise the public service. By the close of 1971 the PP government was in serious difficulties. The condition of the economy and popular discontent had begun to affect the unity and integrity of the government.

On 13 January 1972, in circumstances reminiscent of February 1966, the Busia regime was overthrown by a military coup, led by Lt-Col Ignatius Kutu Acheampong, the acting commander of the army. Acheampong banned party politics and placed the country under the rule of a National Redemption Council.

#### ***4.3.7 The National Redemption Council (NRC), 1972-1975***

Like its military predecessor, the NRC was composed of army and police personnel who unlike the NLC came with the intention of staying in power and therefore started to undertake institutional and social reform.

The new military government moved swiftly to tackle Ghana's desperate economic problems by reversing the devaluation of December 1971 by revaluing the cedi by 40% and repealing a much resented 5% tax surcharge on incomes and then restoring legal status to the TUC that had been outlawed by the Busia regime. In February 1972, the NRC government refused to assume responsibility for the repayment of a number of medium-term debts contracted under the first Republic in a signal to the international community that Ghana intended to 'go it alone' and attain economic self sufficiency.

In the same month an austerity programme was implemented: the import licence system was reviewed and drastically tightened and a host of imported luxuries were prohibited. Symbolic of the NRC's emphasis on austerity and self reliance was the launch of 'Operation Feed Yourself'(Rothchild, 1980). Ghana's self-reliance translated into a refusal to align itself with either the East or West. By 1974 the Acheampong government had dealt with the immediate problems that had confronted it upon assuming office with a degree of moderate success.

It decided to change the administrative structure to further sustain the doctrine of self-reliance by creating 58 new district councils. The idea was to decentralise and devolve authority. Implementation brought problems and rivalries within the NRC which came to a head in 1975. The most senior army officers in the country also pushed Acheampong to be allowed to be part of the administration of the country. In October 1975 Acheampong had no choice but to retire three of his original colleagues and to allow in the senior officers in a seven member Supreme Military Council (SMC).

#### ***4.3.8 The Supreme Military Council (SMC),1975-1979***

The SMC was composed of the Head of State, Acheampong and the heads of three armed services, the heads of the police and the border guards and the Chief of Defence Staff. The effect of these changes was to concentrate more decision-making power in Acheampong's hands. This increased Acheampong's responsibilities beyond proportion and very soon the modest successes of the NRC began to erode away (Prouzet, 1978).

The principal problem was the economy. By 1975 the initial impetus of the self-reliance programme was exhausted and attempts to decentralise its implementation had proved to be patchy and ineffectual. Import restrictions had resulted in the lack of spare parts for

agriculture equipment and consequently agricultural outputs fell dramatically. There was a staggering increase in food prices. Between 1974-1977 the SMC's 'control price' mechanism had rather resulted in the rise of prices of foodstuffs by 300-600%. The shortage and inflated cost of foodstuffs led to the creation of a flourishing 'black market' in which hoarding and smuggling were major factors. This resulted in the 'kalabule economy'- a term coined by Ghanaians to denote this economic mischief. A number of additional factors worsened the economic situation; the rains were late and insufficient in 1976, and in 1978 the national petroleum refinery ran out of raw materials and was closed down, thus resulting in a severe petrol shortage.

The SMC mismanaged the economy by implementing a series of ill-considered solutions lacking in coherence or perspective. There was an increase in illegal traffic in foreign (hard) currencies and the smuggling of large amounts of cocoa to neighbouring countries in order to earn 'hard' currency. Acheampong himself preyed on small traders, extracted bribes from investors, personally controlled desired imports, and set up large bank accounts abroad (Ninsin, 1982).

The SMC became subject to vocal criticism from the professional middle class, the Ghana Bar Association (GBA) and the National Union of Ghanaian Students (NUGS). The SMC's response was to moot the idea of a Union Government, which only seemed to assist the SMC to hold on to the reins of power. The idea, ill-defined in detail, was rejected outright by Ghanaians. In 1977 the Christian Council, GBA and NUGS called for a return to party politics. Acheampong responded by imprisoning prominent lawyers, used inducements to calm the other ranks of the army and then closed down the universities (Owusu, 1979).

On 17 June 1977, the GBA, the Ghana Medical Association and NUGS staged a national strike. They demanded the dissolution of the SMC. In July 1977 the SMC reluctantly announced a time table for handing over power to a Union Government. It held a referendum on the acceptability of the Union Government idea to the electorate. The government claimed that 60% of the electorate were in favour of this idea. Ghanaians did not believe this result, most especially when the electoral commissioner disappeared suddenly at the period of counting of the votes.

The government nevertheless decided to implement its union government policy. Selected opposition figures and their leaders were placed in detention without trial. The coercive

authoritarian regime of Ignatius Acheampong was an unmitigated disaster for Ghana. During his six and a half years in office he ignored popular concerns, trampled on civil rights, ravaged the economy, and transformed Ghana into a private estate for himself and his followers. In this process, he severely undermined the commitment of Ghanaians to their central government. While it is true that Acheampong inherited from his predecessors a failing economy and a set of serious structural problems, under his inept guidance these difficulties intensified and became almost insurmountable (Kraus, 1980). On 5th July 1978, Acheampong was replaced in a palace coup by his Chief of Defence Staff, Lt. General F. W. K. Akuffo.

#### ***4.3.9 The Supreme Military Council (SMC) II***

Akuffo's ensuing regime proved to be no more than a footnote to Acheampong's period in power. He had been closely identified with Acheampong's policies and his capacity for decisive action and innovation was impaired from the outset by the legacy of Acheampong's final years in power.

He immediately released numerous detainees, reopened the universities, dismissed several of Acheampong's advisers and partially restored freedom of the press and debate. Akuffo publicly announced that he would adhere to the agreed timetable for transferring power. The economy had deteriorated further. The currency had experienced another 60% devaluation, and prices of consumer foods had shot up by 200-400%. The country had sunk into deeper poverty. From 1st January 1979 political parties were once again legalised. The union government idea was abandoned. Sixteen political parties were registered and a general election was scheduled for June 1979.

On May 15 1979 some discontented junior officers and Non Commissioned Officers (NCOs) of the Ghana army staged an inept coup attempt that failed. Flt-Lt. Jerry John Rawlings the leader was imprisoned. On 4th June 1979 some junior officers forced Rawlings's cell open and freed him. On the same day Rawlings and his associates seized power in a coup that has gone down as the bloodiest in the history of Ghana. The coup was greeted with almost universal popular acclamation. The Armed Forces Revolutionary Council (AFRC) was formed to rule Ghana.

#### ***4.3.10 The Armed Forces Revolutionary Council (AFRC)***

The AFRC led by Rawlings was as traumatic as it was brief. At its root was a belief that the former leaders must be held accountable for their actions, and that more fundamental normative change was needed to recover from years of military misrule. Among the AFRC's objectives was to punish the corrupt leaders of previous military regimes. This it did by executing by firing squad some of the leaders of the NLC, NRC, and SMC. It also dismissed senior officers of the country's civil service. It also pursued a campaign of moral reform. Morality and class revenge featured prominently in the decrees and statements that were issued.

It attempted to eradicate black marketeering, hoarding and other corrupt practices. There were probes, property confiscation and tax collection exercises. Those found guilty were fined, flogged and jailed for life.

These actions did not increase overseas confidence. The IMF and other external sources of support dried up, and in protest against the AFRC's wave of execution and violence some suppliers imposed an informal embargo (Legon Observer, 1979).

The AFRC however had no intention of clinging on to power so it kept the elections date of the SMC. Six parties emerged out of the original sixteen and the People National Party (PNP), an offspring of the CPP won the election with Dr Hilla Limann as president of a third Republic of Ghana.

#### ***4.3.11 The Third Republic, 1979-1981***

The Limann administration made concerted moves to restore some measure of economic health immediately it came to power, with an economy that had experienced a 30% fall in production in the preceding decade, governmental institutions in disarray and a public that had become suspicious of all governments (Kraus, 1982).

The PNP government was highly critical of investment policy since independence and began to implement measures designed to attract foreign investors. Limann refused to devalue the cedi at the insistence of the IMF and therefore failed to achieve a much-desired rapprochement with IMF. The Limann administration had a weak political base and was assailed by internal divisions and by the machinations and political manoeuvring of its



civilian opponents. A crisis within the PNP developed in June 1980 when its national congress split.

By the beginning of 1981 the authority of the PNP had been seriously eroded. By December several senior members of Limann's government were embroiled in court cases involving corruption charges. Limann's relationship with the army had gone sour. Rawlings was still in the army, overseeing every activity of the new government. Limann had to dismiss the chief of defence staff and to forcibly retire Rawlings and other members of the AFRC (Austin, 1985).

The leaders of the government of the third Republic operated under severe constraints from the outset. The constitution of the third Republic had been altered by the AFRC which also served notice that its patience was extremely limited. The paucity of resources, coupled with the president's feeble leadership, however doomed this experiment to failure. The PNP was not so much mismanaged as it was inept. With people clamouring for a square meal, Limann's moderation was a poor substitute for the forceful policies needed at this juncture (Dent, 1983).

On 31 December 1981, Rawlings carried out his threat to Hilla Limann that he would return if the third Republic did not pass his test. In retrospect, the two years of the third Republic were simply an interlude between Rawling's hesitation and his decision to engage in politics on a more permanent basis. By 1981, inflation was 116% and the military enfeebled. The third Republic government was so weak that when Rawlings struck the second time no one put up a fight.

#### ***4.3.12 The Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC), 1981-1992***

Rawlings formed the PNDC government. He cited corruption and the continuing economic malaise as his reasons for staging his second coup. He assumed chairmanship of the PNDC which comprised four military personnel and three civilians. Rawlings imprisoned the former leaders and expressed his intention that he had come to stay.

Immediately upon assuming office, the PNDC decided to implement the leftist-populist principles of the first Rawlings' 'intervention'. Its main themes of democratisation and mass participation and the dissolution of established hierarchies, generated a particular form of

political environment. This resulted in a political awareness that made Ghanaians less tolerant and more critical of government errors.

The 'democratic army' was becoming impatient at the gap between speed of performance and a revolutionary rhetoric. In March 1982, a number of military men staged an abortive coup against the PNDC. The military was factioned into leftists and the conservative right. Soldiers all over the country were divided along ethnic lines and expressed dissatisfaction with the pace and direction of Rawling's economic policies. The Ewes supported Rawlings and the Northerners supported his deputy Sergeant Akata Pore. In disagreement with the leftists the Chief of Defence Staff resigned on 22nd November 1982 and on the following day a very serious coup was attempted with the aim of making Akata Pore the new head of state. This failed and Akata Pore was arrested and together with other defectors and conspirators was able to leave the country and continued to plot against Rawlings from exile (Rothchild, 1985).

Disaffection in the army continued to simmer: there were minor attempts, amateurish and ill-prepared, to overthrow the government in February and March 1983. In June the most serious attempt to overthrow the government took place. The participants, mainly non-commission officers, were able to briefly seize the Ghana broadcasting house, from where they addressed the nation. The coup was, however, suppressed, leaving 17 dead.

The process of democratisation also had its effect on Ghana's student community. By May 1983, university students, initially supporters of Rawlings, were engaged in violent protests against the government regarding a number of issues: economic grievances, a demand for the rule of law and a return to civilian government and resentment at the government's links with Libya and Cuba. Major clashes between workers and students ensued and the PNDC closed the universities and converted them into training schools for revolutionary cadres.

The economic policies of the PNDC were ineffective. It became very intimate with the Eastern bloc countries. It publicly continued to allege Western - and particularly US, UK and South Africa - involvement in attempts to overthrow it. The US cancelled all aid programmes to Ghana. The PNDC government was very violent, harsh and particularly repressive. Its institutions precluded serious debate and criticism.

By 1984, however, it was apparent that the regime was having difficulty in all spheres of operations (Ray,1986). The PNDC therefore had to modify its faltering policy of self-sufficiency by surrendering to the World Bank and IMF for assistance. Currency and tax measures were immediately introduced to meet IMF conditions. Harsh but necessary measures were brought into place. The government started to adopt softer approaches in dealing with its own citizens. Although still rhetorically committed to mass participation, the government increasingly downgraded its own populist structures, co-opted a new group of technocrats and insulated itself from public interest. Corruption resurfaced in the ruling circle. The contradiction set in motion by the PNDC were unavoidable (Ray, 1986).

In 1985 Ghana's economic plight and stringent economic measures brought the PNDC into open conflicts with the Trades Unions, students and the Ghana Bar Association. The universities were closed for short periods. Rawlings executed many people in response to the re-emergence of widespread financial speculation, theft, fraud, corruption and attempted coup d'états.

In February a number of alleged plotters were arrested in Kumasi, the second largest city and were accused of plotting to overthrow the government. Later in the month more military officers were executed for similar allegations. By 1986 there were a lot of dissident activities from abroad. The PNDC became increasingly pre-occupied with domestic security. A number of people were executed for attempted coups. The PNDC at the same time continued to experience serious problems with the economy. Rawlings began to do without hesitation whatever the IMF and the World Bank asked him to do. Between 1983-1986, he devalued the currency 33 times. The economy began to show some growth and articles in Western newspapers were appearing with titles such as 'Ghana; Black Africa's economic showcase (Newton and Else, 1995). Notable economic measures imposed on Ghana by the IMF were the Programme of Action to Mitigate the Social Costs of Adjustment (PAMSCAD) and Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP).

The average Ghanaian, however, did not experience IMF statistics translated into an improvement in his living conditions. Though the government promised wider freedom and implemented various administrative reforms, 1988 saw another wave of protests from the country's universities. The universities were closed for four months, following students' boycott over subsidies and the proposed introduction of student loans.

Impatience for political openness and government anxiety at its possible consequences, were also apparent. In 1990 there was pressure on the government to lift the ban on political activities. The Movement For Freedom and Justice (MFJ), with Prof. Adu Boahen as its leader, was formed to openly challenge the brutalities of Rawlings's government and to agitate for the the lifting of the ban on party politics.

In May 1991, contrary to previous expectations, the PNDC endorsed the restoration of a multi-party system. A few days later a consortium of international donor agencies including the World Bank pledged \$970 million to support Ghana's Structural Adjustment Programme and declared itself satisfied with Ghana's progress towards a democratic government (Newton and Else, 1995). Following a referendum approving a new constitution in early 1992, political parties were given complete freedom to organise, just three months before the general elections. Rawlings after 11years of ruling as a military dictator put himself up as a candidate for his party the National Democratic Congress (NDC). The main challenge came from the New Patriotic Party (NPP) led by Prof. Adu Boahen of MFJ fame, and the People National Convention (PNC).

In November 1992 Ghanaians went to the polls once again to elect a president and parliament. Rawlings emerged the obvious winner in the presidential elections polling 59% of the popular vote, followed by the NPP with 30% and the others with 11%. Although the elections was deemed free and fair by international observers, the opposition cried foul and boycotted the parliamentary elections after exhibiting a catalogue of election malpractices at the polls in local news media and in a book titled 'The Stolen Verdict', (1993) Consequently, only 29% of the electorate bothered to vote in the parliamentary elections and the NDC won in a landslide. The fourth Republic parliament was therefore without any effective opposition. Ghana was more or less a one party state.

#### ***4.3.13 The National Democratic Congress(NDC),1992-1996***

Rawlings's message to the electorate before the elections was continuity of PNDC policies. There was no significant changes with the new administration. Almost all the key PNDC men were retained in one form or another. After a few initial hiccups with some Supreme Court rulings against Rawlings in some domestic matters, he replaced some of the judges who had previously ruled against him. Rawlings then had control over the executive, judiciary and with a full house of his 'yes' parliamentarians, continued to rule Ghana as if

no change had taken place. The NDC government, therefore, went ahead to implement all its policies without any serious opposition. In 1993 students of the universities demonstrated against educational reforms. In characteristic fashion Rawlings's personal army invaded the campus of the University of Ghana and shot some students. Academic work was briefly disrupted.

Ghana's economic recovery programme that had experienced some successes from 1985-1991 started to slacken, a fact that Aryeetey (1994) attributes to poor investment response following reform. In his study he shows that poor growth in private investment may be attributed to the perception of uncertainty in the political and economic environment since 1982. The poor performance of the economy and the general deterioration in university education, coupled with the appalling remuneration of university lecturers, resulted in another protracted sit - down strike by the University Teachers Association of Ghana (UTAG) in 1994. The strike action went on for a year as the lecturers continued to make unrealistic demands with negotiations breaking down one after the other. The government threatened to stop the salaries of the striking teachers. Soon after this threat the UTAG called off its year - old strike.

In 1995 the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice, after probing some of the top officials of the government (after newspaper allegations of corruption in high circles), found the Ministers of Interior and Agriculture and other officials guilty of corruption. Surprisingly the government did not react to these findings until the guilty parties resigned their ministerial positions. In December 1996, in accordance with the Fourth Republican constitution, Ghana's electorate went to the polls once again to elect a new president and parliament, making Rawlings the first leader in Ghana's history to stand for re-election.

From 1992 to 1996 Rawlings's government was corrupt, economic performance had worsened and educational system was in complete turmoil yet on the 7th of December 1996 Rawlings was re-elected for another four year term polling 57.9% of the popular vote.

#### **4.4 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

The present difficulties in the implementation of strategic planning in any of Ghana's sectors can be best appreciated within the context of its historical perspective.

The country now called Ghana was a creation of European rivalries and imperial ambitions lasting for decades. Great Britain, which took over the reins of power in the nineteenth Century, was not particularly interested in developing the country but was rather more interested in its gold and other mineral resources. It did not become closely involved in the inner workings of Ghana and instead continuously stressed the importance of increasing trade to move the country along further. However, because the British did not substantially invest in those parts of the infrastructure which were not tied to the short - run profit derived from trade, Ghana remained continuously underdeveloped (Scotch, 1991).

Ghana gained independence in 1957 from the British. Between that period and 1983 the political history was characterised by instability and violent changes of government. Ghana was pulled from side to side by differing political ideologies in the form of nine different governments and four military coups. There have been only three civilian governments. The average life span of each was two and half years, a period too short to ensure any long-term strategic perspective by the leadership.

The last successful coup was in 1981 and its military pilot leader has since then ruled the country without any 'interruptions', as a military officer and later transformed into a civilian president. There appears to be political stability but this president has experienced about fifteen abortive coups, a situation that has created an uncertain climate during his reign. This perception of uncertainty in the political environment is not conducive to strategic thinking by managers and this might have resulted in the present very poor private investment in the country (Aryeetey, 1994).

# CHAPTER FIVE

## THE GHANAIAN ENVIRONMENT

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The problems and challenges of strategic planning in a country can best be appreciated within the context of its economic, sociological, political/educational and technological circumstances. Consequently, this chapter reviews the salient features of the macro environment in Ghana from pre-independence days to 1996. The last section of the chapter highlights the implications for strategy formation.

### 5.2 THE ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT

The Ghanaian economy for a very long time has been based primarily on agriculture. The dominant commercial and export activity has been cocoa production. In the late 1950s, at the time of independence, Ghana was the world's leading exporter of cocoa and the crop has continued to account for between 45%-70% of commodity exports in most years since the early 1970s (Roe, 1992).

Other cash crops for export include coffee, bananas, palm kernels, copra, lime, kola nuts and shea nuts. Agriculture which is fundamentally a 'peasant' activity despite the establishment of large-scale mechanised state farms during the 1960s centres on the production of maize, millet, sorghum, rice, cassava, yams and plantains. Livestock and fish (especially tuna) are exported. Together with the primary products of cocoa and forestry(timber), agriculture accounts for 43% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) with approximately 65% of the population engaged in subsistence farming. The 3.7 million(1992 est.) labour force has agriculture and fishing by occupation accounting for 54.7%.

#### 5.2.1 *Ghana's Currency*

The unit of currency is the cedi which is divided into 100 pesewas (p). The cedi is pegged to the US dollar at an adjustable rate. Amounts in cedis are usually prefixed with a C with a slash through it. The currency floats on the market and has not got a stable exchange rate. In 1960 the dollar was exchanged for 1.4 cedis. By 1994, after a string of devaluations, the cedi had depreciated to 943.83 to one US dollar. Table 5.1 shows the annual average rate of the cedi to the US dollar from 1960 to 1994.

YEAR	CEDI	YEAR	CEDI	YEAR	CEDI
1960-1964	1.40	1965-1966	1.17	1967-1971	1.02
1971	1.03	1972	1.33	1973	1.17
1974-1977	1.15	1978	1.76	1979-1982	2.75
1983	8.83	1984	35.99	1985	54.37
1986	89.20	1987	153.37	1988	202.35
1989	303.00	1990	345.00	1991	390.00
1992	520.00	1993	815.00	1994	943.83

**Table 5.1** Annual average exchange rate of the cedi to US dollar 1960-1994

(SOURCE: Acheampong, Nana Otuo.(1994)

The cedi depreciates every month against the major currencies (dollar, pound, yen, deutsch-mark). Against the CFA-the currency of Ghana's French-speaking neighbours- it has not fared any better. Currency dealers, according to Africa News Home Page (1996), attribute the continued decline of the currency to market forces and the dependence on imports paid in hard cash. Table 5.2 indicates the monthly depreciation of the cedi against four major world currencies for 1995.

1995	UK POUND	US DOLLAR	GERMAN D-M	JAPANESE YEN
JANUARY	1633.13	1037.47	673.19	1043.05
FEBRUARY	1661.40	1057.69	703.80	1075.67
MARCH	1703.40	1067.23	756.11	1175.22
APRIL	1787.70	1105.00	805.05	1311.18
MAY	1800.01	1120.00	813.60	1360.78
JUNE	1854.02	1153.00	823.16	1363.78
JULY	1871.64	1173.00	843.28	1355.93
AUGUST	1861.09	1188.75	825.12	1268.93
04 SEPTEMBER	1846.28	1195.00	812.81	1233.45
11 SEPTEMBER	1870.76	1205.00	823.48	1236.29
22 SEPTEMBER	1909.82	1230.00	826.89	1186.98
29 SEPTEMBER	2030.81	1285.00	906.52	1301.93

**Table 5.2** Exchange rate of the cedi against the UK pound, the German deutsch -mark, the US dollar and the Japanese Yen for 1995.



The cedi, which averaged 350 to the US dollar in 1990 as at November 1996 was being exchanged at 1,720 to one dollar and on 16th December 1996 it was being exchanged at 2,852 to the pound sterling, 1,725 to the dollar, 1112 to the Deutsch- Mark and 1511 to the Yen (Financial Times, 1996).

### **5.2.2 *The Economy, 1950s-1960s***

In the late 1950's, just after Ghana's independence, the economy bore the hallmark of colonisation. It was a rural economy, with more than half its GDP originating in agriculture and related activities. It was a classic case of an open economy, heavily dependant on international commerce -a result of long period of colonisation. Most capital goods and many kinds of consumer goods had to be imported. Exports were dominated by cocoa. The percentage of foreign trade to GDP was 30%(Killick, 1978).

Growth per capita real income during the immediate pre-independence years was satisfactory and the country had a 'promising start as one of the richest, most successful and politically mature regions of Black Africa', having substantial sterling reserves and well formulated plans (Huq, 1989: 2). The first few years after independence (1957-1960) witnessed satisfactory annual average GDP growth rates of over 6%. This was ahead of many developing countries. Its per capita national income of £70 in 1960 was significantly higher than that of Egypt (£56), Nigeria (£29) or India (£25) (Huq, 1989:2).

### **5.2.3 *The Great Decline***

The period from 1961 to 1983 is described in the economic history of Ghana as the great decline (Newton and Else, 1995; Frimpong-Ansah, 1991), seen as one of stagnation in agricultural productivity and fragmentation in pricing and marketing. Frimpong-Ansah (1991), a former Governor of Bank of Ghana has described the situation by stating that by 1982, fiscal policy had completely collapsed. The government revenue base was a mere 5.6% of GDP (compared with 20-25% in other West African States). The cocoa sector base had shrunk to 1.2% and that of imports to 3%. The imbalance in the external sector had persistently worsened, particularly after 1975.

By 1983, the degree of overvaluation of the currency was estimated at close to 1,300% (Frimpong Ansah, 1991). Inflation had been rampant in the two decades and by 1982 was nearly 123%. The collapse of government expenditures was a strong factor in the decline.

#### **5.2.4 Current Monetary And Economic Reform, 1985-1996**

With the aid of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) Ghana has embarked on an Economic Recovery Programme (ERP). Three important measures were outlined in the first phase of the ERP:

- In an attempt to find a realistic foreign exchange rate the effective exchange rates were floated so that the real purchasing power of the exchange rate in terms of currencies of Ghana's major trading partners was maintained
- fiscal policy was to ensure financial discipline and eliminate the traditionally high deficit in the government budgets
- the new commodity pricing policy was to be based on production costs together with appropriate incentive margins, so as to tackle production bottlenecks, raise productivity and production and encourage responsible financial management (Huq, 1988:11-12).

After the first phase of the recovery programme, the economy began to show some positive signs of recovery. From 1985-1990 an average growth rate of 5% in the GDP was experienced. Inflation which was 122% in 1983 fell to 10% in 1985.

However, since then inflation has generally been rising, reaching a rate of 40% in 1987, before falling to 25.2% in 1989. Three main factors, according to Huq (1989), seem to account for this disappointing performance in inflation. The first is the adjustment programme itself with the rather large depreciation of the currency. The second is the probable ending of the stabilising effect of devaluation on prices associated with the existence of the profits from scarce import licenses. The third is the apparent retardation of the recovery in food production. The liberal foreign exchange policies and virtually no restriction on imports has had a rather negative effect on the economy. The result is that although efforts are made to promote exports, imports continue to soar even though the domestic currency has been depreciating in value at an alarming rate relative to major world currencies.

After a formidable growth, the response of non-traditional exports to the efforts of Ghana's economy is still concentrated towards gold, cocoa and timber with gold overtaking cocoa and accounting for 45.2% of the value of merchandise exports in 1994. From 1991 tourism overtook timber in export earnings thus making gold, cocoa and tourism the top export commodities for Ghana (The State of the Ghanaian economy 1994, 1994). The reliance of

most of the export earnings on a few commodities make Ghana highly vulnerable to world economic conditions. Any time the world price of any of the major export commodities falls, then there is serious impact on the balance of trade.

The economic performance of Ghana over the last few years has been well documented in ‘the State of the Ghanaian Economy in 1994’ and also in the 1995 edition. Using some selected economic indicators it is shown that the growth of the economy which was 5% before 1990 actually declined in 1992-1994. Table 5.3 is a selection of some of the economic performance indicators from 1990-1994.

INDICATOR	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Real National income per Capita(cedis billion)	437	449	453	462	-
Growth Rate % p.a	-0.5	2.0	0.9	2.0	-
Real GDP(cedis billion)	6,853	7,216.6	7,498.0	7,873	8,172
Growth rate % p.a	3.3	5.0	3.9	5.0	3.8
Real agric. GDP(cedis million)	3,058.9	3,203.6	3,183.1	3,262.7	3,295.3
Growth rate % p.a.	-2.0	4.7	-0.6	2.5	1.0
Real Industry GDP(cedis million)	994.8	1031.6	1091.1	1138.0	1168.9
Growth rate % p.a.	6.9	3.7	5.8	4.3	2.8
Govt revenue (cedis million)	267,347	390,690	396,143.2	664,436.0	1,261,281
Growth rate % p.a.	24.6	46.1	1.4	-	-
Govt expenditure(cedis million)	254,473	340,262	498,813	782,872	114,9572
Growth rate % p.a.	29.5	33.7	46.6	-	-
Money supply(cedis million)	216,958	229,190	360,685	461,347	693.5
Growth rate % p.a.	13.4	18.0	57.4	27.9	50.3
Interest rates Bank rate %	33.0	20.0	30.0	35.0	33.0
Cocoa price in London(£tonne)	743	723	-	-	-
Growth rate % p.a.	-18.00	-2.7	-	-	-

**Table 5.3** Selected economic performance indicators, 1990-1994 (Source: The State of the Ghanaian Economy in 1994, 1994)

The rate of growth of the economy declined from 5% in 1993 to 3.8% in 1994. This is consistent with a trend in the performance of the economy that emerged since 1989. From that year a typically 5% growth rate in one year is followed by a decline in the following

year. The year 1994 witnessed continuing high inflation rates fuelled by very high monetary growth, high nominal interest rates ineffective in checking monetary growth and an increasing fundamental fiscal disequilibrium, masked by the unusual divestiture receipts from the sale of Ghana's largest gold mining company. The year also revealed a looming debt problem caused by short-term borrowing in the domestic market at high interest rates and high unemployment rate estimated at about 20% and threatening to reach 33% by the year 2000 ( The State of the Ghanaian economy in 1994, 1994).

At the root of these problems are governments loss of control of its expenditure which as shown in Table 5.3 had increased by 46.6% in 1992, a non-dynamic framework that does not respond to emerging potential growth constraining factors and a sluggish and stagnant real sector, particularly manufacturing and agriculture combined with public sector restructuring involving the retrenchment of labour is at the heart of the high open unemployment.

Overall, the performance of the economy since 1983 can be considered a major success, compared to the extremely poor record of the twenty preceding years. However, the basis of economic activity still remains fragile and sustainable economic development is still lacking in Ghana. The macroeconomic objectives of the Ghana government for 1995 were to achieve a higher level of GDP growth, lower inflation rate of 18% and to maintain a narrow budget surplus of 1.2% of GDP (The State of the Ghanaian economy in 1995, 1995). The reality was a run-away inflation of 65.0% in 1995 (Ghana Review International, 1995) and 70.8% in 1996 (Reuters).

### **5.3 SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT**

The social and cultural contexts in which people are 'reared' play a significant role in determining the behavioural patterns of individuals in organisations. This socialisation process has implications for strategy formation.

The implicit culture of a particular society can be conveniently discussed in terms of the following categories: cultural beliefs, cultural values and cultural norms (Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey, 1962).

### **5.3.1 Cultural Beliefs**

The concept of cultural belief involves myths, religion, superstition and legends. Religion in the view of the average Ghanaian involves man's relation with the supernatural including worship of God Almighty, worship of small gods, ancestral worship, magic and sorcery, witchcraft, twins and festivals (Nukunya, 1992).

Beliefs and practices associated with the supernatural in Ghana operate at many levels and in different forms and among different tribes. The Almighty God who is worshipped by Christians and Muslims was known to Ghanaians before missionary activities in the 19th century. In fact the traditional name for God was adopted by the missionaries who came from Europe to spread the gospel (Assimeng, 1989). God is regarded in Ghana as the omnipotent and worshipped directly by individuals. Christians know him by reading the Bible. The small gods sometimes called divinities operate in shrines. Most of them are natural objects like rivers, ponds, rocks or trees. In Ghanaian traditional religion, worship of these gods is done through priests and congregations. Ritual purity on the part of the priest is essential to ensure success and efficiency. Some of these gods are special purpose, for example there is a god for the sea, one for war and a god for prosperity. In most parts of Ghana Tuesday is dedicated to the god of sea and fishing on that day is a taboo (Opoku, 1978: 60). Other gods are physical objects or instruments which are not commonly owned but are possessions of individuals or certain families who put them to beneficial or harmful and destructive use (Opoku, 1978). There is also ancestral worship. The underlying belief of traditional ancestor religion is that death is not the end of man. When one dies it is only the physical body that is affected but his soul goes to the land of spirits to join other departed souls. In the land of spirits the dead are able to watch over the affairs of the earthly world, punishing offenders and rewarding those who conform to accepted ways and put up exemplary behaviours (Evans-Pritchard, 1937).

There is the belief in magic and sorcery. The essential feature of magic is the manipulation of physical objects to effect supernatural ends. The essential elements are spells or incantations which together with the condition of the performer affect the result. Magic usually is used to benefit the performer or others. Sorcery, on the other hand, is reserved for the anti-social use of magic, that is, the manipulation of physical objects to effect evil supernatural ends. It is popularly called juju or black magic. Magicians and sorcerers are

consultants whose services include: intervention in promotion exercise, interviews; causing harm to a rival or even having him killed; protection against accidents; protection against conviction in a court case or making it impossible for an opponent or a policeman to appear in court to give evidence; to stop a boss from effecting unrequired changes at work; or to enable lost property to be found (Mair, 1934).

The supernatural force which generates fear but not necessarily the equivalent respect is witchcraft. About 75% of deaths in Ghana are attributed to the actions of witches. Evans-Pritchard (1937) wrote that witchcraft accusations are motivated by jealousy, hatred and envy as well as fear. He further stated that for a witchcraft accusation to come from someone, the supposed victim must have some relationship with the accused, the relationship being kinship, neighbours, friends, colleagues or fellow students. There is a general belief that witchcraft is associated with certain physical characteristics and behavioural patterns in human beings. Persons with red eyes, quarrelsome dispositions, old ladies, loners and misers are prone to suspicion (Evans-Pritchard, 1937). In fact, anyone whose habits are considered anti-social may be suspected and accused. Other indices are excessive wealth or success and at the other extreme abject poverty and wretchedness. Inherent features of the phenomenon are complemented by nocturnal orgies and possible transmutation of the practitioners into birds, reptiles and creatures. In fact the belief in witchcraft affects a lot of human behaviour. Some heads of organisations are scared to take decisions that may affect suspected witches.

The attitudes, beliefs and practices associated with twins needs mentioning. In many Ghanaian societies, though human, twins are treated as special beings with their own specific names. They are believed to have some kind of association within celestial spirits. Every set of twins on earth is said to have a corresponding pair of spirits in the sky and must be treated as special human beings in an organisation where they work (Nukunya, 1992).

Another manifestation of Ghanaian beliefs and practices associated with the supernatural is found in festivals. Annual or periodical festivals are found among all the ethnic groups in Ghana. The general name among the Akans is Afahye. The most popular festival is the Odwira. According to Warren (1973) it is a purificatory ceremony lasting one to two weeks usually in September or October. The central part of the festival involves remembrance of

the dead, harvest and thanksgiving. The Odwira festival is also the occasion for settlement of disputes so as to bring back harmony into the country.

### **5.3.2 Cultural Values**

Organisational behaviour is affected by the values held by the individuals of the organisation. According to Blunt(1983: 35) a value is: “a particularly important belief shared by members of a society, concerning what ought to be or what is good or desirable.”

Ghana like most African countries treasures its cultural values which determine the definition of ‘good or bad’. One value that runs through the national culture is the recognition of inequality among people. Ghana, like any country has its elite which in contemporary Ghana is made up of politicians, senior government officials including those of the military and police, lawyers, doctors, university lecturers, engineers, architects, accountants and professionals of similar standing, businessmen, business executives and industrialists, chiefs, landowners, landlords and the clergy (Nukunya,1992).

Most of these possess wealth, power, prestige and privilege and are highly respected in the society. As a group, their importance lies in the fact that because of their access to what people consider important in the society they wield a good deal of influence. Some of these elites take decisions in the society and have access to all essential items of information. They influence public opinion by the opportunities they get both in making speeches or issuing statements. They are also in a good position to know where and how to get assistance when necessary. They have a good chance of getting what they need with much greater ease than those from the lower rungs of the social ladder. Less powerful people are more dependant on the more powerful and the less powerful people are polarised between dependence and counter dependence (Lasswell, 1962).

The elites are power brokers and have large power distance (Hofstede, 1991) from those at the lower rungs of the ladder. At workplaces these bosses are respected as one respects his parents at home. Superiors and subordinates consider each other as unequal. Superiors are normally called with titles such as Sir, Chief, Boss etc. Ghana’s social system is hierarchical, based on existential inequality. An organisation’s central power is in the hands of the boss and the other ranks are supposed to do what they are told. Salary structures show wide gaps between top and bottom in the organisation. Superiors are entitled to privileges

and contacts with other peer groups. Nukunya (1992) cites the example of a principal secretary of a civil service being more likely to get a personal loan overdraft whilst a messenger has no chance of getting an overdraft. In the first place, his credentials alone tell the bank manager that he is a good risk. Traditionally, contacts between superiors and subordinates are supposed to be initiated by the superiors only. The ideal boss in the subordinate's eyes is a benevolent autocrat or 'good father', (Hofstede, 1991). With the Ghanaian elitists, might prevails over right, those with power are usually considered right and good.

### **5.3.3 Cultural Norms**

Another influence on behaviour is that exerted by cultural norms. These specify standards or rules that guide behaviour in Ghanaian society. They are best understood when one examines some of the traditional features of Ghanaian societies such as kinship, marriage, family and tribalism.

Kinship is the basis for the organisation of many groups and relationships around which the fabric of social life is built. Kinship according to Nukunya (1992) refers to social relationships derived from consanguinity, marriage and adoption. It explains why certain values are upheld in society. Ancestor worship is related to kinship as is etiquette because it involves the principles of seniority, the respective positions of women in society, of old and young, father and child, mother and child as well as husband and to some extent a boss and his subordinate.

Ghanaian society believes in the clan and lineage system as descent groups. A clan is a group of people, male and female, who are believed to have descended through one line only from common putative ancestors. Members who can be as many as one million are believed to have descended from a common source. Because of its rather large size and dispersion all over the country, the clan is normally not an effective means of regular and frequent social interaction. It is therefore in the fields of rituals and interpersonal friendship among members that clanship really works. Members of one clan speak the same language and are forbidden to marry one another. A traveller who finds himself in a strange locality will be assured of warm hospitality among his clansfolk in that place (Rattary, 1929).



When clansfolk find themselves in the same locality their relationships are more frequent and effective. When a segment of the clan is found in one locality it is called a lineage (Nukunya, 1992). The lineage is almost like a corporate group with a leader. It is developed as a family tree over five generations with each generation considering itself with the other as a unit. To show the strength of bonds between people of the same lineage, terms like uncle, cousin, grandfather and grandmother usually are used to refer to more than one category of kin. Because of this a system has been devised to give precision to them. This is done by actually describing the relationship instead of using such blanket terms like cousin, uncle etc. Thus instead of uncle, people usually say my mother's brother or father's brother. Also instead of grandfather, mother's father or father's father is used (Rattary, 1929).

Two different kinship systems exist in Ghana, the patrilineal and matrilineal. In a patrilineal descent system, the group is made up of persons male and female who are descended through the male line only. In patrilineal societies, the father is a disciplinarian. His duty is to make sure that his children, especially the sons, are brought up in a manner commensurate with the norms of society. Although he loves his children and gives them the necessary parental support and care, it is the disciplinary aspect of the relationship that is emphasised (Radcliffe-Brown, 1952). Father-son relationship is full of formality, respect and even taboos. The children of male members of a descent group belong to the system but those of the females do not. It follows that the lineage is usually exogenous, children of brothers will be forbidden to marry one another since they are members of the same descent group. However the children of brother and sister can marry. Succession and inheritance also pass in the male line in patrilineal societies. According to Radcliffe-Brown (1952) children believe that their father's brothers children are also part of their family.

In a matrilineal system, practised by the Akans, an individual has more to do with his mother's people than his father's because the descent group to which he belongs is traced linearly through the female line. The mother's brother performs the functions normally reserved for the father in matrilineal societies. The uncle of a child (mother's brother) usually performs the parental role of a son in many respects and is regarded as having more responsibility to his nephew (Fortes, 1949).

In both systems fathers or uncles as the case may be bring children up to be obedient to their elders. Children treat their elders with respect. There is an order of authority among children

themselves, younger children are expected to yield to older children. Independent behaviour of a child is not encouraged. Respect for parents and other elders is seen as a virtue; this is the normal way of life in Ghanaian societies and it is soon acquired by the children. Respect for parents and older relatives lasts through adulthood. Even if a child grows and builds his own family he treats his parents and grandparents with formal deference.

Closely related to kinship is the subject of family. There are many types of family in Ghana. Nukunya (1992) identifies three: the nuclear family which refers to a married couple and their children, polygamous family comprising a man, his two or more wives and children and the extended family. The extended family refers to a social arrangement in which an individual has extensive reciprocal duties, obligations and responsibility to relations outside his immediate family. The extended family is seen as a collection of nuclear families. The structure of the extended family is determined by the descent system. The main functions of the extended family are socialisation, economic co-operation and protection. Every member is supposed to be loyal to the family and children are taught to think in terms of 'we'. Harmony is always maintained and direct confrontations among individuals are avoided (Hofstede, 1994). The loyalty to the group which is an essential element of this collectivist (Hofstede, 1994) family also means that resources are shared. If one member of an extended family of 20 people has a paid job and the others have not, the earning member is supposed to share his or her income in order to help feed the entire family. Obligations to the family are not only financial but also ritual. Family celebrations like baptisms, marriages and particularly funerals are extremely important and should not be missed.

#### **5.3.4 *Some Social Vices***

Tribalism, bribery and corruption and the lack of punctuality are vices which have crept into the social fabrics of the Ghanaian life.

##### **5.3.4.1 *Tribalism***

Tribalism refers to the act of people thinking of themselves as members of their traditional entities (members of the same tribe) rather than as Ghanaians. National interests come second to local interests and feelings towards their own tribesmen. Tribalism is manifested in both attitudes and behaviour (Nukunya, 1992).

Sociologists like Sprigge (1969) and Austin (1964) among others have stated that tribalism is motivated by a number of factors which in various combinations determine attitudes and behaviour towards members of one group or the other. These include similarities or differences in linguistic and socio-cultural background, inter-group competition and rivalry, insecurity, size of tribal units and inadequate knowledge of members of other tribes. According to Nukunya (1992) the strongest tribalistic feelings and behaviours occur among the southern Ghana tribes namely, the Akans, the Ewes and Gas. It is however common knowledge in the country that the strongest tribal sentiments are among the Ewes, where the present president of Ghana comes from. Most Ghanaians have expressed their disapproval of most government executives' being Ewes. Bluwey (1996) writes on the 'Ewe bashing' which tells the story of how the Ewes voted massively for their tribesman, the president in the country's general election. In the president's tribal area whilst the president polled 50,000 the opposition polled less than one thousand of the votes and the pattern was the same in all the constituencies of the region.

#### **5.3.4.2 Bribery And Corruption**

'Bribery and corruption' have become household words in Ghana. This implies that the words constitute a social problem because many Ghanaians have complained about this and the Rawlings administration of 1981-1992 executed many of its own citizens for this.

Bribery means the practice or process of giving money, services or other things to procure illegal or dishonest action or decision in favour of the giver. Corruption refers to the practices associated with the giving and accepting of bribes (Nukunya, 1992). Nukunya (1992) further states that corruption in Ghana today has reached such a dimension that it is usually perpetrated either as party or government policy. Corruption according to him takes many forms and operates at different levels. It may involve organised groups or individuals. Contract awards could be made conditional on the payment of a commission, usually percentages of the contract amounts. Choice of suppliers to the government of commodities and equipment could be made only with the willingness or ability of suppliers to pay commission. In fact, corruption at the lower and individual levels is also common. In banks bribes are paid for quick service at counters.

Nukunya (1992) asserts that it is now common for senior civil servants and others in certain key positions to demand and receive commissions, kickbacks, gifts and other forms of

payments and that anyone in a position to demand and receive bribes does so. Even messengers are known to have enriched themselves illegally by means of their employment when they have to carry important documents from one senior officer to the other. Customs officers, the police and even the military are all known to be involved. It is known that some military men once collected huge sums of moneys from politicians to overthrow the government of the day.

#### **5.3.4.3 Punctuality**

Ghanaians like many Africans are known to ignore punctuality in their daily activities. Arriving late for an appointment has been dubbed 'African punctuality' Adam (1996), a lecturer at Ghana's military academy, states that:

These days it is common for some one to book an appointment only to appear 2 hours after the appointed time. Instead of apologising for turning up late, the furthest he can go is to smile without any remorse and say "African punctuality". In almost all activities these days, that sense of urgency with regard to time is absent. We appear to have the least regard for time. Important functions delay either because the invited dignitaries are late or the host or organisers have kept the audience waiting by turning up late themselves... It is also very common to see invited guests trickling in to take their seats and inconveniencing others after the function had begun... (Adam, 1996: 4)

#### **5.3.4.4 Effect Of Ghanaian Culture On Organisational Behaviour**

The cultural environment described so far shows the meanings workers in Ghana attach to the jobs they do and the organisations they work for. In fact, some of the views of some of the respondents of the survey and interviews carried out in this study can be corroborated by some of these cultural practices.

England, Dhinghara and Agarwal,(1974) share this view and have concluded that beliefs, values and norms are of significance because they influence many aspects of organisational behaviour, such as :

- Our perception of other individuals and groups and therefore interpersonal relationships.
- The decisions we make, and the solutions we adopt to particular problems.
- What constitutes ethical and unethical behaviour.
- Our willingness to accept organisational goals, rules and regulations.
- Our perception of individual and organisational success and appropriate means of attaining them.
- The way in which the organisation is structured and managed, and reactions to this. (Agarwal, 1974)

The importance of culture in organisation has considerable support in African literature Gutkind (1968: 39) for example notes that under certain circumstances traditional values and the rejection or acceptance of demands of modern commercial or industrial operations are closely related. Dawson (1963: 21), in a study carried out in Sierra Leone (a West African state), has observed that traditional values thus limit the extent to which tribal groups adapt themselves to the new work demands of the emerging society.

It goes without saying that the value that Ghanaians attach to obedience in a family hierarchy and kinship has found its way into work environments. This has resulted in work alienation. Powerlessness and meaninglessness (Seaman, 1959), two dimensions of alienation exist in Ghanaian organisations. The worker has little or no control over the immediate work processes connected with his job. Decisions are made at upper levels of the organisation by a managerial elite and transmitted down to the worker. Meaninglessness implies that as a result of standardisation of work methods and the division of labour, the worker is unable to see the final product of his work. He is therefore denied the opportunity for creative self-involvement and his understanding of the organisation as a whole is severely limited.

Ogionwoo (1971: 281) has investigated levels and correlates of alienation among Nigerian workers in Port Harcourt (Nigeria has similar social structure as Ghana). He employed an interview schedule based on Blauner's (1964) study of alienation in the USA and found that levels of alienation were 'higher among manuals than non-manuals (and) lower among those who stress the intrinsic features of their job.'

More than 30% of Ghana's population (1960 census) accept traditional beliefs. It is no wonder that prevailing religions and philosophical systems stress hierarchy and stratification which are rooted in the Ghanaian educational system. Teachers are expected to take all initiatives in class, they are considered as gurus who transfer personal wisdom. Students treat teachers with respect. The relationship between employer and employee therefore is perceived in moral terms, like a family link relationships. Hierarchy in organisations reflect the existential inequality between higher-ups and lower-downs (Hofstede, 1991).

Strong beliefs in kinship and tribalism create the problems of conflicts which cause the stresses associated with working in Ghanaian societies. House and Rizzo (1972) discuss role conflict under person-role conflict (the degree to which role expectations clash with the values or orientations of the focal person), intersender conflict - the degree to which role expectations from one member of the role set opposes those from one or more of the other members of the role set, intrasender conflict- the degree to which two or more role expectations from a single member of the role set are mutually incompatible, and overload whilst most studies of exogenous role conflict in Africa have tended to see the problem in terms of clash between indigenous particularism and bureaucratic universalism. The basic conflict between western-type organisations and traditional (particularistic) norms and values spring largely from differing views concerning the use or legitimisation of authority. Fallers (1965), in his study of Uganda, has made it clear that the seeds of this conflict lie in the fact that in the traditional setting authority relations are based on interactions between individual groups. In Western bureaucracies, on the other hand, authority is situational, that is authority is vested in a position or office and not in the person who holds such an office i.e. universalistic (Parson, 1951).

Price(1975) has documented the difficulties that arise for modern government officials as a result of traditional beliefs, kinship and family intermeshing with day to day administration of civil services in Ghana. His study of role orientations among Ghanaian civil servants clearly depicts the role expectations and pressures directed at them from members of their role sets outside of the civil service.

Price based his findings on data collected during 1968 and 1969 in three attitude surveys: a civil servant survey, a client survey and a comparison survey. Price assessed the degree to which the civil servants' social environment was supportive of the behaviour formally

required of them by virtue of their positions in a government department. Hypothetically, Price asked the respondents what they thought an average civil servant would do if a senior officer of the civil service arrived at his office to find several people waiting to see him about routine business, one of whom is his relative. They were asked whether it would be proper to keep this relative waiting because others came first (Price, 1975: 63). The majority of them felt the senior civil servant would give his relative a preferential treatment though most of them said that was not the proper behaviour.

In another hypothetical situation presented in the study a civil servant is officially informed that he is to be transferred from the capital to the north of the country. This person has all his friends in Accra, the capital, and is also looking after his aged parents who are too old to move to the north with him. He therefore goes to the head of department who happens to be his cousin and asks to be kept in Accra (Price, 1975: 66). Again, the civil servants were asked to say whether 'in this situation' the head of department's relative would 'be likely to expect him to arrange to have his cousin stay in the Accra post.' The overwhelming response was that the relative would expect his/her demands to be met. Eighty-five percent of the civil servants indicated that in such a situation the head of department would be expected to ensure that his cousin was not transferred. Price concludes (1975: 68) that the preponderant opinion of all categories is that in normal practice a civil servant yields to particularistic familial role.

Given the central role of the extended family in Ghana it is clear that the sanctions of kin carry considerable weight and that heavy pressures to conform can therefore be exerted on their members in positions of power. Pressures to conform are increased by the perception the civil servant has of how his relatives will behave towards him. The head of department would be ostracised for refusing to help his relative.

Price (1975: 112-113) assessed the public's views on what they thought was the most effective manner of getting things done at government offices. A majority of the respondents felt that the most effective method of getting things done when dealing with a government office was to establish some form of particularistic connection with an official. Among the particularistic methods mentioned in the responses was giving of material benefits the-so-called 'dash'. 'Dash' is widespread in West Africa and in other parts of the continent, although it may go under different names, its form and prevalence varies. 'Dash'

is often an integral part of the most routine transactions in Ghana, and unlike the 'tip' in western societies it precedes rather than follows the performance of the service in question. The term 'dash', however should not be seen as analogous to the English word 'bribe'. According to Price (1975), 'dash' performs two social functions which are normally associated with the giving and taking of bribes. First it is a socially accepted method of establishing a personal relationship between a client and a civil servant (or anyone in authority) who are strangers to one another. Second, 'dash' acts as a symbol of the unequal status of the two individuals. In effect by giving dash the client is, at the same time, seeking to establish a personal tie with the official and acknowledging his superior status.

Price's study addresses issues which have serious effects on the functioning of public organisations in Ghana. When the Ghanaian writer Ayi Kwei Armah says that 'nothing works' and that the organisations which are supposed 'to take care of this and that... might just as well not exist' he is describing a state of affairs which perhaps reflects the dominant method of role conflict resolution adopted by civil servants in African government organisations: in other words intense role conflict is avoided by attending to particularistic extra-organisational role expectations, thereby impeding the attainment of organisational goals (Blunt, 1983).

#### **5.4 THE TECHNOLOGICAL ENVIRONMENT**

The technological environment of Ghana takes into account the opportunities for networking, the use of the internet, dissemination of scientific information, problems associated with the use of information technology and copyright and legal deposit laws.

Ghana's telecommunication infrastructure, which for the past two decades had collapsed, has started experiencing rapid rehabilitation by the Post and Telecommunication (P&T). The country currently has 100,000 telephone lines. Seventy percent of these lines are found in Accra, the capital. A telephone line costs about two thousand dollars (Inter Press, 1996).

Ghana was the first country in West Africa to have full internet connection. There are three internet providers in the country. The three internet providers are Africa Online, Ghana Internet Service and Network Computer Systems.



## **5.4.1 Internet Providers**

### **5.4.1.1 Africa Online**

Africa Online is the largest on line service provider in Africa. It provides a wide range of internet services to business, Non-Governmental Organisations(NGO'S) and individuals. In addition to internet access, the company provides World Wide Web site development and management services, advertising, internal network connection and security software development. Africa Online currently provides a wide variety of services to the Ghana market including electronic mail, computer networks, and access to World Wide Web. The company hopes to introduce walk- in centres and cybercafés through partnerships with approved computer training centres. It hopes this will help expand the market and bring the new technology to every Ghanaian by enabling people who do not have access to computers to send and receive electronic mail and access the World Wide Web. Africa Online has also developed its own extensive web site (Africa Online, 1996).

### **5.4.1.2 Network computer Systems (NCS)**

NCS in October 1996 commissioned its satellite earth station to serve as an international gateway to provide internet services. The earth station connects Ghana to Mae East, Vienna, Virginia State, USA. NCS currently has 413 customers, 93% of whom are in Accra (Inter Press, 1996).

## **5.4.2 Science And Technology Research**

Ghana's main research body is the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) which was established in 1968. The CSIR is responsible to the Ministry of Science and Technology. Its main function is to advise government on scientific and technological matters, and to encourage and undertake scientific and industrial research. The CSIR is the supreme body charged with the responsibility of co-ordinating research in Ghana and is also mandated to collate research publications in the country and to disseminate the results of research and other technical information nationally (Alemna, 1994). To be able to organise research and science and technology information CSIR has established the National Science and Technology Information Centre (NASTLIC).

#### **5.4.2.1      *The National Science and Technology Information Centre (NASTLIC)***

NASTLIC which used to be the Ghana National Scientific and Technological Information Network (GHASTINET) seeks to establish in Ghana a national capacity for the provision and dissemination of the results of scientific and technical information (STI). It also includes socio-economic information generated in Ghana and elsewhere pertaining to Ghana (Kissiedu 1994). The project's mandate is to facilitate the collection, organisation and dissemination of STI and data relevant to national needs through the application of modern information technology (Villars, 1991).

It is largely at the fundamental stage of development and is funded by CSIR and the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) Ottawa, Canada. When fully developed NASTLIC will also be the focal point for a network of identified institutions in nine major sectors of the national economy. This networking has not taken off. According to Kissiedu (1994) one main reason why it has not yet taken off is the absence of tools for co-operation such as union catalogues, common databases and the underdeveloped levels of telecommunications technology. Alemna and Antwi (1990: 275) believe that any effective networking needs a firm financial backing from the institutional authorities. The major information centres are all government funded and suffer the results of the government insolvency and lack of commitment to developing the information sector.

#### **5.4.3      *Problems Affecting Information Technology In Ghana***

Ghana's problems and constraints in the development of STI systems are typical of all black African countries. At a continental workshop held in Nairobi in 1989 the following common problems were identified:

- Shortage of funds
- Communication problems
- Chronic shortage of trained personnel
- The lack of enabling environment and
- Poor institutional co-ordination (Bostid Report, 1989: 7-9).

Ghana for some thirty years has always experienced fiscal shortages. In most Anglophone countries there is a critical shortage of foreign exchange which limits the purchase of goods and services from abroad. Computers and other elements of the communication infrastructure are all imported into the country by the use of hard currency which is not easy

for the institutions to come by. The Ghanaian cedi depreciates daily against the major currencies, making it extremely difficult to change the local currency on the world markets. This affects the purchasing power of most organisations. Though tariffs on computers have been temporarily waived by the government, this situation has made the prices of PCs double over the last few years. Access to foreign journals have suffered too. Many libraries especially university libraries have given up trying to keep up with subscriptions to foreign journals (Bostid Report, 1989: 7).

The maintenance of telecommunication systems poses difficulties for Ghana. It is easier to telephone internationally than across the capital or from town. International service is usually the most profitable part of the telecommunication service. World Bank experts estimate that the telecommunications sector in Africa has to grow at an annual rate of 20% for the next two decades or double the average growth of the past two decades, to reach the average state of service currently available in Europe (Bostid Report, 1989).

The problem of inadequate personnel and skills to man the emerging information systems is prevalent. Few professionals possess the skills required to handle the technology of electronic networks. Modern management and communication skills are also lacking. This has been expressed by Ayiku (1991:119-120) and Dandzo (1993).

#### **5.4.4 *National Information Policy***

Ghana does not have a national information policy. Kissiedu (1994) states that Ghana's libraries and information centres have continued to develop rather haphazardly, without the institutional and legal framework required for networking. The uncontrolled and uncoordinated development of information technology in the country is evidence of this lack. There are over 50 computer agencies in the country, but according to Ayiku (1991:16) Ghana has no regulations on the importation and distribution of information technology beyond licensing them on their receipt.

An attempt was made in 1992 to formulate a national information and communication policy in Ghana under the auspices and sponsorship of the Ministries of Information and Transport and Communication. A national workshop and seminar were held but these exercises tended to concentrate on the media at the expense of other information-related

institutions like libraries, archives, museums, documentation centres etc. (Entsua-Mensah, 1994).

#### **5.4.5 Copyright And Legal Deposit Laws**

Before independence, Ghana used the Copyright Act of 1911 of the United Kingdom. The first legislation for the information profession was enacted in 1949 and established the Ghana Library Board which was charged with a nation-wide public library service (Entua Mensah, 1994).

After independence, the government enacted the 1961 Copyright Law as its 85th Act of Parliament. The Act made provision for copyright in literary, musical and artistic works, cinematographic films, gramophone records and broadcasts. The term of copyright was calculated 25 years after the end of the year in which the author dies. The Act also made Ghana a party to the Universal Copyright Convention (Ghana, Copyright Act 1961). The act was amended on 10th August 1961 to include the Book and Newspaper Registration Act-Act 73. The act provided for the preservation of copies of books and newspapers. Three copies of books published in Ghana were by law to be delivered to government within a month of being printed. One copy was then forwarded to the Ghana Library Board, another to the council of University of Ghana and the last copy kept by the Registrar General (Ghana, Act 73, Book and Newspaper Registration Act, 1961).

In 1985 the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) law 110 broadened the scope of the works eligible for copyright to include programme-carrying signals and derivative works and also clarified some of the anomalies in the previous acts. The law also changed the duration of copyright in the case of individuals to 50 years after an author's death. This law made the copyright law of Ghana more comprehensive and also stipulated permitted use of works and the transfer of copyright (Ghana, PNDC Law 110).

An amendment to the Copyright law of 1985 was made on 22nd January 1992. This established the Copyright Society of Ghana which was charged to:

- represent and protect the professional, economic, moral and other interests of authors of literary, musical, artistic, dramatic and other works.
- serve as a collecting body for the collective administration of copyright of the members of the society(Ghana, Copyright Amendment Law, 1992).

## **5.5 THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM**

The educational ladder of Ghana has since independence comprised a primary school system of six years duration, followed by a secondary school course of five years or a middle school of four years. The five year secondary school is usually followed by a two year sixth form before university or any tertiary education. Since 1988, however, following the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) educational reform, the duration of secondary and university education has been drastically reduced.

This system of education is backed by Ghana's 1992 constitution which states that:

- All persons shall have the right to equal educational opportunities and facilities and with the view to achieving the full realisation of that right-
  - (a) Basic education shall be free, compulsory and available to all.
  - (b) Secondary education in its different forms, including technical and vocational education, shall be made generally available and accessible to all by appropriate means and in particular by the progressive introduction of free education.
  - (c) Higher education shall be made equally accessible to all, on the basis of capacity, by every appropriate means, and in particular by progressive introduction to free education.
  - (d) Functional literacy shall be encouraged or intensified as far as possible.
  - (e) The development of a system of schools with adequate facilities at all levels shall be actively pursued.
- Every person shall have the right, at his own expense to establish and maintain a private school...(Article 25. 1992 Constitution of the 4th Republic of Ghana).

### **5.5.1 Organisation**

The Ministry of Education has been responsible for the organisation of all public education. Before the 1988 educational reform, the ministry was divided into three sections for this purpose: the general education division which was concerned with primary and middle schools, secondary-grammar schools and teacher-training colleges; the technical education division which supervised junior technical and technical institutes and secondary technical schools; and the Higher education division responsible for the universities and other higher educational institutions in the country.

### 5.5.2 Finance *Tertiary Education*

Education in Ghana is free in the primary and in part of the secondary school levels. University education is also free. Government also pays the entire cost of teacher's salaries in all types of educational institutions except private institutions.

The amount of money allocated to education depends on the size of the national budget. Statistics show that in 1984, 27% of the national recurrent budget was allocated to education. The percentage rose to 37% in 1992 and 40% in 1994 (Deheer-Amisshah, 1996).

### 5.5.3 Tertiary Education

Tertiary education now embraces all post-secondary institutions (Deheer-Amisshah, 1996). It therefore includes the country's five universities, polytechnics and Regional College of Arts and Sciences (RECAAST). Tertiary institutions in 1996 received 18% of the total budget for education, with the universities being allocated 11% (of the grand total). According to Deheer-Amisshah (1996: 8) it is unlikely that tertiary education's share of the total education recurrent expenditure would be allowed to increase at the expense of allocation to the two lower levels- basic and second cycle. Table 5.2 is a breakdown of the 1992 and 1996 education budget for the Ministry of Education.

	1992	1996
TOTAL(in billion cedis)	82	111
% of recurrent budget	37	41
	share %	
Primary	44	40
J.S.S(Junior sec. school)	20	21
S.S.S(Senior. sec.school)	18	14
Tertiary	17	18
Non-Formal	1	6
TOTAL	100	99**

**Table 5.4** Recurrent Budget for Education 1992 and 1996

(SOURCE: Deheer-Amisshah (1996) \* Attempts to have an explanation why this figure does not add up to 100% failed)

#### ***5.5.4 Reforms To Tertiary Education System***

The essence of the PNDC educational reform is summarised on page two of Ghana Government White Paper, 1990 as:

Between 1988 and 1993 a revamping, recapitalisation and expansion of facilities at the tertiary level are to take place. This is however to be accomplished by a firm program of unit cost reduction and waste elimination. (White Paper, 1990: 1-2)

This tracks the views of the World Bank on the desired direction of higher education reform in Sub-Saharan Africa. There is the same emphasis on cost-recovery, income generation, equity and vocationalisation (World Bank, 1988). It is no secret that, since 1987, undertakings on many of these matters have been a condition for World Bank credits to the education sector.

Pre-tertiary sector restructuring reduced the period of pre-university education from up to 17 years to 12 ( nine years of basic-primary and junior secondary education for all and three more of senior secondary for a smaller number). The principal aims were to cut down waste, increase access at all levels, and introduce a substantial vocational element. The reforms, started in earnest in 1987, were pushed through in an atmosphere that brooked little opposition, and after four years of undisturbed operation public reaction to its results is mixed.

For the tertiary sector, a University Rationalisation Committee (URC), appointed at the end of 1986 proposed far-reaching reforms in a report submitted in January 1988 (URC Report, 1988). Both Report and the White Paper (1990) on it took a rather limited view of higher education stated that:

Education is conceived by government as an essential component of development strategy to achieve... national goals, with the particular contribution of tertiary education being the training or retraining of upper, middle and high level manpower to steer and manage economic and social development (White Paper, 1990:2).

##### ***5.5.4.1 Some Elements Of The Reform Programme***

Against the background of this instrumentalist conception of higher education, the main elements of the reform programme were:

#### ***5.5.4.1.1 Co-ordination Of The Tertiary Education/Supervision By The Ministry Of Education:***

In order to ensure co-ordination of the tertiary education system and expeditious implementation of government policies, all institutions of higher learning were brought forthwith under the general supervision and direction of Ministry of Education. The distinction is made, however between the policy formulation and monitoring functions of the ministry and responsibility for policy implementation by the tertiary institutions. In this regard the academic autonomy of the tertiary institutions is recognised (White Paper, 1990:5).

In effect, there was to be a standardisation of all tertiary institutions, formalising the directory role of the Ministry and relegating the institutions, including the universities, to the status of implementing agencies. According to Sawyer (1992:27) practice has shown that, despite the lip-service to academic autonomy, the role of the universities in the reform process was indeed intended to be confined to implementation of Ministry policy, even in relation to academic matters.

#### ***5.5.4.1.2 Amalgamation And Regrouping Of Institutions In The Tertiary Sector To Upgrade Some Of The Non-University Institutions.***

#### ***5.5.4.1.3 Funding And Financing***

It is intended to develop a system of cost sharing between government, the student population and the private-sector. This will be achieved in the following ways:

- provision of recurrent subvention, equipment and capital grants;
- provision of scholarships on basis of merit and in accordance with the government's development priorities including the improved management of public administration system, decentralisation and the planning of reforms.
- assistance to students to obtain loans to defray maintenance and other expenses and
- retention of free tuition (White Paper, 1990:7-8).

The universities and the institutions newly promoted to tertiary status were to share the governments 18% of the education budget. Currently the universities are allocated about 11% of the educational budget and the government intends to keep it at that level(Deheer-Amissah, 1996:3).



#### **5.5.4.1.4      *Internal Administration Of The Universities***

Measures under this included the alteration of the composition of the University Councils, the introduction of new bodies such as Corporate Planning Units and Business Managers as well as the requirement that universities conformed to administrative, financial and staffing norms to be laid down from time to time by the Ministry.

The object here was to ensure cost-effectiveness and efficiency and it was this need that gave rise to universities' employing business techniques like strategic planning (White Paper, 1990:8)

The reforms, according to the Government White Paper, were intended to :

- 1      .Increase government's administrative supervision and control of the universities and other tertiary institutions.
- 2      Standardise the various institutions with the tertiary sector, erasing differences, not only among the universities but also between the universities and other institutions in the tertiary sector.
- 3      Create new institutional structures; upgrade existing institutions; expand enrolment, reform and upgrade course structures; regulate the academic year, student-staff ratios and the male/female enrolment ratios.

#### **5.5.4.1.5      *Some outcomes Of The Reform***

As the reform process unfolds the following are some of the results so far:

- A      Universities changed their entrance qualifications. Senior secondary school leavers in addition to their performance must now take a university entrance examination.
- B      **Increased Enrolment:** In implementing government policy there was a 30% increase in total enrolment in the case of the University of Ghana(University of Ghana Annual Report, 1994).  
Government has however been unable to finance expansion and rehabilitation of facilities on the requisite scale. Librarians have suffered most with no money for subscriptions to journals and library space remains the same. The UTAG strike lasting for almost a year was partly due to poor teaching facilities that did not correspond with the increase in student numbers.
- C      **Planning Units:** some of the universities had planning units already. They started to encourage other departments to draw strategic plans.

- D** Appointment of Business Manager: This has attracted little enthusiasm, though some registrars have been given added responsibilities to manage consultancy services. There has also been some fund raising activities in some of the universities.
- E** Semester/Course Credit System: some universities adopted a two-semester course credit system though some had already done so.
- E** Academic, Administrative and Financial norms:

Stringent student/staff and academic/administrative staff ratios as well as norms for the disbursement of university funds were introduced. The universities and the ministry reached agreement on target ratios for the different subject areas. The universities reduced the number of non-academic employees. The Ministry now requires that its approval be sought for new appointments. This the universities have complied with as far as non-academic staff are concerned but have continued to fill established academic positions.

Sawyer(1992), a former Vice Chancellor of the University of Ghana, summarises the outcome of the reforms by stating that:

While the formal positions taken by government indicate a desire to impose large scale change on the universities and increase political and administrative supervision over their work, experience so far suggests that matters are not as clear-cut as the official pronouncements would suggest. Thus, while the broad framework of the government programme has remained intact, important elements and the planning of its implementation have seriously been affected by the stand taken by the universities... Particularly... the effectiveness of the universities in resisting aspects of the program and refining others in such a way as to preserve what the universities consider the minimum conditions for the maintenance of their integrity as institutions of higher learning (Sawyer, 1992:35-36).

## **5.6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

The Ghanaian corporate planning environment is riddled with many challenges. The advent of foreign rule and the impact of western civilisation meant that several of the old customs and traditions had to give way to advancing modernisation, industrialisation, urbanisation and economic development. Ghanaians, however, treasure their customs, beliefs and

traditions such as kinship, extended family and hierarchical social system based on existential inequality. Consequently there is a sharp conflict between the Ghanaian traditional system and modern solutions to organisational problems such as strategic management.

Another effect of modernisation is that the Ghanaian traditional social structure is experiencing different stages of decay in all ethnic groups with the emergence of new sources of power, new forms of wealth accumulation and education. Moreover, this has resulted in a weakening of traditional beliefs, values and social norms. One major consequence of this is the growing crime rate, graft and widespread corruption coupled with a general permissiveness of society.

In most Ghanaian institutions, there are role conflicts, the seeds of which lie in the fact that in the traditional setting authority relations are based on interactions between individuals or groups. In Western bureaucracies on the hand, where long range planning is 'successful', authority is situational, that is authority is vested in position or office and not in the person who holds such an office. Decisions in public services in Ghana are influenced by kinship and familial considerations. Particularistic considerations as a result of family ties impede the attainment of organisational objectives (Blunt, 1983).

However, in the technological arena, spectacular developments have been made as Ghana has joined the information superhighway. There are presently three internet providers with the possibility of an increase in this number. What remains a problem is the lack of individual organisational communication infrastructure and the development of the requisite skills to manage information technology.

In terms of the economic environment, the recent government which has been in power since 1981 has embarked on some harsh but necessary economic measures with considerable World Bank and IMF inputs. Ghana's economy has been heralded as a model for African development. GDP has been turned from negative to positive figures. Inflation which was 120% in 1983 fell to 10% in 1985 but in 1996 rose to 78%. The cedi, the currency of the country, depreciates every month. In fact, this situation is probably the worst factor for planners in the country. Strategic financial planning is difficult if not impossible in such circumstances.

# **CHAPTER SIX**

## **THE CORPORATE AND INTERNAL ENVIRONMENTS OF UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES IN GHANA**

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

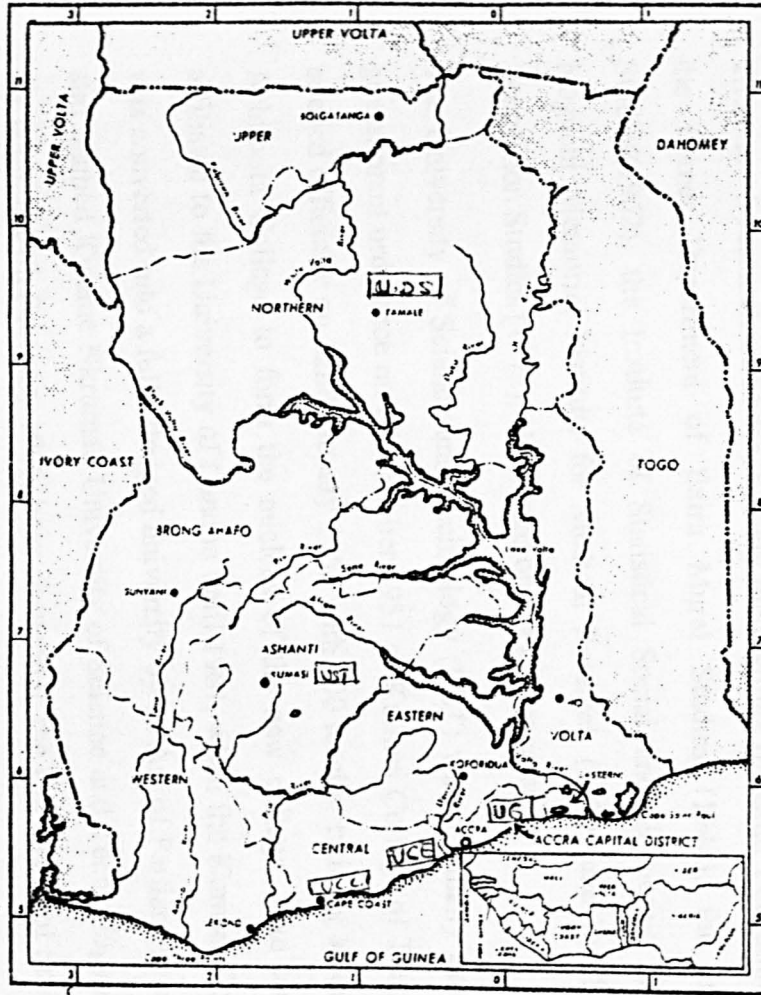
University libraries have a particularly complex operating environment. They need to relate to the missions of their parent organisations and to any legislative and procedural framework of the universities.

For the university librarian, therefore, strategic management requires, among other things, an ability to understand and analyse the library's position within the context of the larger corporate body. This requires the librarian to be fully aware of the institutional resource capabilities and all other essential environmental components. This will then enable the librarian to relate these factors to the services the librarians might provide.

This chapter therefore reviews the Ghanaian universities and their libraries' own internal environments. Section 6.2 is about the corporate university environment and Section 6.3 deals with the internal library environmental factors of library infrastructure, library organisation and management, staffing, collection management, library funding and information technology. All information in this chapter is based on the working files and other primary documents obtained from the university administration and the university librarians' offices in Ghana.

### **6.2 THE CORPORATE ENVIRONMENTS**

Ghana has five universities: the University of Ghana (UG), the University of Science and Technology (UST), the University of Cape Coast (UCC), the University College of Education of Winneba (UCEW) and the University of Development Studies (UDS). The first three universities are usually referred to as the old universities and the last two as the new universities. Figure 6.1 is a map of Ghana showing the various locations of the universities.



□ UNIVERSITIES.

Fig. 6.1 MAP OF GHANA SHOWING THE LOCATIONS THE UNIVERSITIES.

### **6.2.1 *The History And Structure Of Universities In Ghana***

The University of Ghana was the first to be established by the then colonial administration of the British government as the University College of the Gold Coast. It began in 1948 as an affiliate college of the University of London. In 1961 the University College of the Gold Coast was by an Act of Parliament reorganised as the University of Ghana and authorised to award its own degrees (University of Ghana, 1993:14).

Except for the Medical School and Agricultural field stations, it is housed on an extensive campus 15 kilometres outside Accra, at Legon (by which name the university is colloquially known). The university is fully residential. Besides the Faculties of Agriculture, Arts, Law, Science and Social Studies, the university includes two originally autonomous schools: the School of Administration (established in 1960 as the College of Administration and integrated into the University of Ghana in 1962) and the Medical School, which was integrated into the University of Ghana in 1967. The Medical School is located at Korle bu, about 3 kilometres west of Accra and about 18 kilometres from the main campus.

There are 5 research institutes, namely the Institute of Adult Education which grew out of the former Department of Extra Mural Studies (1948), the Institute of African Studies(1962), the Institute of Statistical Social and Economic Research (1966), the Noguchi Memorial Institute for Medical Research (1979) and the Regional Institute of Population Studies (1972), all located on the Legon campus.

The University of Science and Technology (UST) was originally established by colonial government ordinance on 6th October 1951 as Kumasi College of Technology. However, it opened officially on 22nd January 1952 with 200 teacher training students transferred from Achimota College to form the nucleus of the new college. Like its predecessor it was affiliated to the University of London until 1961, when the Kumasi College of Technology was converted into a fully-fledged university by an Act of Parliament on 22nd August 1961 and named Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (this name has, since the coup of 24th February 1966, been changed to the University of Science and Technology (UST). The UST was officially inaugurated on Wednesday 29th November 1961 and started awarding its own degrees in June 1964.

The university is situated on a seven square-mile campus of undulating land about four miles from the centre of Kumasi, the second largest city in Ghana. The university is also residential, having five halls of residence and staff accommodation. There are five Faculties, two Schools, three Institutes and one College. They are: the Faculties of Agriculture, Environmental and Development Studies, Pharmacy, Science and Social Sciences; the School of Engineering and Medical Sciences, the Institutes of Mining and Mineral Engineering, Renewable Natural Resources, Technical Education and the College of Art (University of Science and Technology, 1992).

The University of Cape Coast (UCC) became the third university to be set up in 1962. It was established to satisfy the need for highly qualified and skilled manpower in education. It was specifically established to train graduate teachers for secondary schools, teacher training colleges and technical institutions, a mission that the two other universities were unequipped to fulfil (University of Cape Coast Library Report, 1994). After nine years of existence, initially, as a college in a special relationship with the University of Ghana, the college achieved the status of a full university in 1971 by an Act of Parliament, the UCC Act 1971(Act 390).

There are five Faculties: Arts, Education, Science, Social Science and Agriculture. The university has two sites, the southern sector (old site) and the northern sector (new site). The two campuses are 8 kilometres from the centre of Cape Coast (University of Cape Coast Library Report, 1994).

The University College of Education of Winneba was established in 1993 by the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) law of 1991. The law required that all the then existing diploma awarding colleges be constituted into the University College of Education of Winneba to award degrees, diplomas and certificates. It was set up with three main aims: “to provide higher education and foster the systematic advancement of the science and art of teacher education, to turn out tutors for the regional colleges of applied arts and science and technology and to provide teachers with professional competence for teaching in institutions such as pre-school, junior and senior secondary schools and in non-formal educational institutions”(UCEW Planning Unit, 1996). The university is currently an affiliate of the University of Cape Coast. It is made up of seven diploma awarding institutions, three of which are found in Winneba itself, one in Ejumako (Central region), one in Kumasi

(Ashanti region), one in Mampong (Ashanti region) and one in Mampong Akwapim (Eastern region). Winneba is the focal point and has two campuses a mile apart from each other (UCEW Planning Unit, 1996).

The University of Development Studies(UDS) was established by the PNDC law 279 in May 1992 at Tamale in northern Ghana and was opened to students in September 1993. The main campus of the university is at Nyampkala, some miles away from Tamale. Other campuses are at Navrongo, Kintampo and Wa in the Upper West, Brong Ahafo and Upper East regions respectively. The campuses are therefore spread throughout several administrative regions. The central administration is located in Tamale, 654 kilometres north of Accra.

The university was established to solve the social deprivation and environmental problems which characterise the northern part of Ghana in particular and which are found in pockets and in varying degrees in rural areas throughout the rest of the country. It offers courses in Agricultural Sciences, Medical and Health Sciences and Integrated Development Studies (UDS, 1994).

### **6.2.2 *University Governance***

Universities in Ghana have as their heads the Chancellors who by law are either the Head of State or his appointee. The governing body of each institution is the University Council. The number making up the Council differs from university to university. The constituents are however identical and are made up of all the principal officers of the university, government nominees, and nominees of the Ministry of Education; there are also representatives from the alumni, Student Representative Council, organised labour and the Union of University Teachers (UST 1986-92, 1992). The Council has a chairman who oversees all meetings.

The day-to-day administration of the universities is conducted under the leadership of the Vice-chancellors who are the academic and administrative heads and chief disciplinary officers (University of Ghana, 1993:15). The Vice-chancellors are assisted in the performance of their duties by Pro-Vice Chancellors, Registrars and teams of administrative and professional staff. The central administration of the universities consists of the registrar

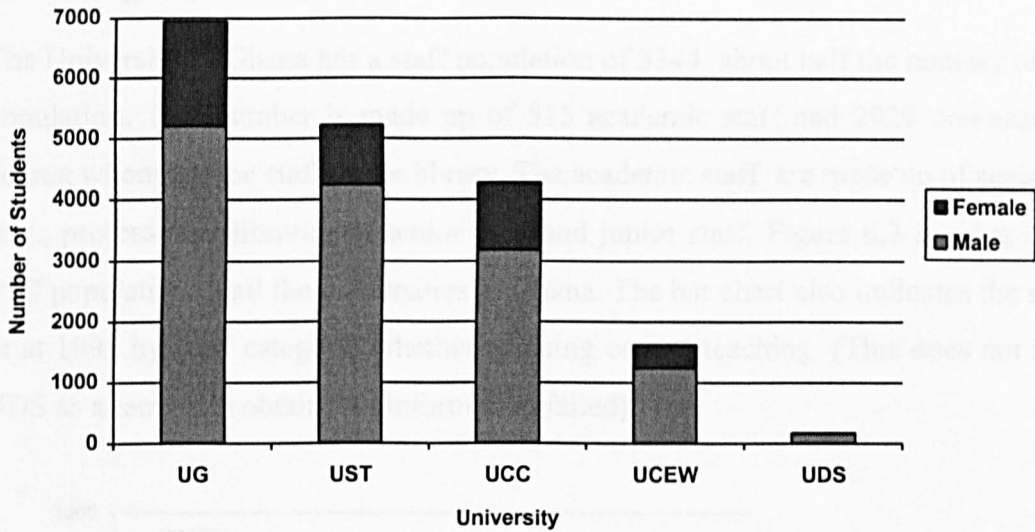


offices, personnel and general administration, academic affairs, university relations/finance office, development office and audit units.

In the University of Ghana, for example, the administration of the university system is conducted through various committees and boards. Academic matters are administered by the Academic Board, the Executive Committee, the Appointments Board, Boards of Faculties, Research and Conferences Committees, Management Committee for Agriculture Research Stations and the Academic Planning Committee. The development and finance administration is made up of the Development Committee, Estimates Committee, Finance Committee, Investment Committee and Tender Board. There are three groups of support services: the Academic Support is made up of Bookshop Board, Library Board, Publications Board, the Data Processing Centre and the Management Board; the second group is the Student Support services made up of Residence Board and the Management Committee for the Central Cafeteria; the third Support service is made up of the Municipal and Welfare which is made up of the Estate Management Committee, Manciples Organisation Management Committee, Housing Committee, Hospital Management Committee, Primary School Management Board and the Security Committee (University of Ghana, 1993).

### **6.2.3. *Student Population***

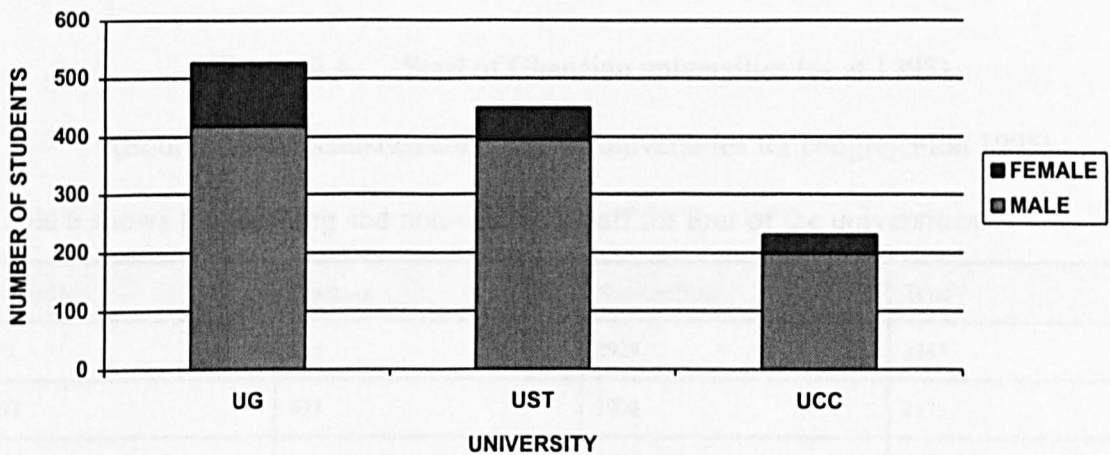
The size of the student population varies from university to university. Their population ranges from 6951 for the University of Ghana to only 174 for the University of Development Studies. Figure 6.2 is a bar chart of the student population of all the universities. The bar chart also indicates the gender ratios. The universities of Ghana and Cape Coast have gender ratios of 1: 3 whilst the University of Development Studies (UDS) has a ratio of 1: 12; out of its total population of 174 there are only 18 female students.



**Figure 6.2** A bar chart of student population of the universities

(Source: Basic statistics compiled by universities for congregation 1995)

The University of Ghana has the largest number of postgraduates. The UCEW and UDS have no postgraduate students. Figure 6.3 is a bar chart of the postgraduate students population for the UG, UST and UCC. The bar chart also shows the proportions of female and male postgraduate students.

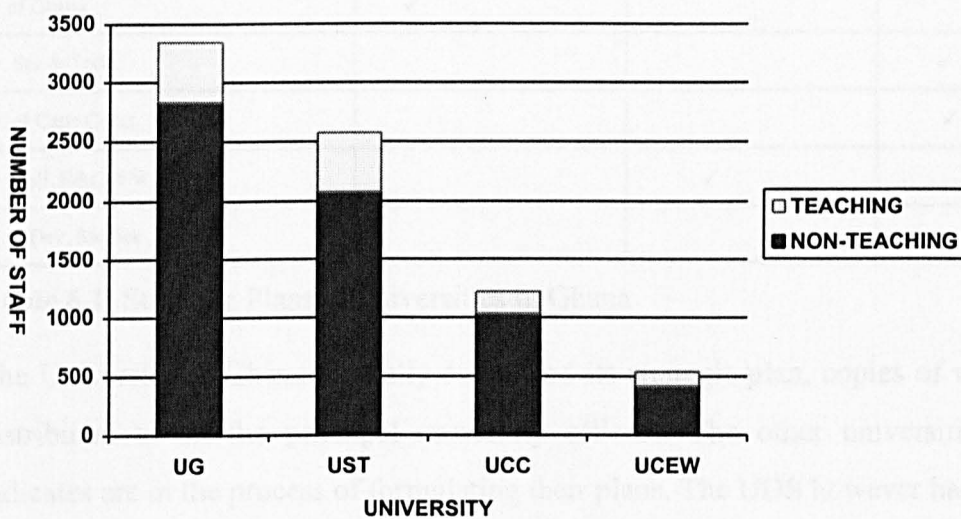


**Figure 6.3** Bar chart of postgraduates student population

(Source: Basic statistics compiled by universities for congregation 1995)

### 6.2.3.1 Staff Population

The University of Ghana has a staff population of 3344 about half the number of its student population. This number is made up of 515 academic staff and 2929 non-academic staff among whom are the staff of the library. The academic staff are made up of senior members (e.g., professional librarians), senior staff and junior staff. Figure 6.3 is a bar chart of the staff population in all the universities in Ghana. The bar chart also indicates the staff at post as at 1995 by staff category, whether teaching or non-teaching. (This does not include the UDS as attempts to obtain this information failed)



**Figure 6.4** Staff of Ghanaian universities (as at 1995).

(Source: Basic statistics compiled by universities for congregation 1995)

Table 6 shows the teaching and non-teaching staff for four of the universities.

University	Teaching	Non-teaching	Total
UG	515	2929	3344
UST	673	1900	2573
UCC	183	1044	1227
UCEW	122	416	538

**Table 6** Teaching and non-teaching staff of four of the universities

#### 6.2.4 Strategic Planning

Universities in Ghana are embarking on strategic planning, having been requested by the Ghanaian educational authorities to do so. It must however be stated that the Higher Education Section of the Ministry of Education, which made the request on March 1996, did not itself have a strategic plan. The state of strategic planning documentation at the corporate level is illustrated in Table 6.1

University	Completed	Partial Completion	In Progress	Not Started
Univ. of Ghana	✓			
Univ. Scs & Tech.			✓	
Univ. of Cape Coast			✓	
Univ. Coll. Edu. of Winneba		✓		
Univ. of Dev. Studies				✓

**Table 6.1** Strategic Plans of universities in Ghana

The University of Ghana has fully completed its strategic plan, copies of which have been distributed to all the principal university officers. The other universities as the table indicates are in the process of formulating their plans. The UDS however has not started yet.

#### 6.2.5 University Funding

Universities in Ghana are financed almost entirely by central government. They receive 11% of the entire education budget and the government does not intend to go beyond this allocation (University of Science and Technology, IDA report, 1995). No fees are charged to Ghanaian students for whom housing in university halls is also free. Students are given loans for maintenance. A small income is generated by some of the universities. Assistance from aid agencies comes in kind, and does not pass through the universities accounts and is not assigned a value. The government grant comprises the funding of an approved establishment of staff posts at public service rates of pay, and a sum for non-pay costs (Association of African Universities, 1995).

The universities present estimates to the government before the subvention is finally allocated to them monthly. On average, actual allocation of funds to the universities by the government has always been just 25% of the total requested. The actual expenditure has

always been above government grants. There has always been a shortfall in funding. Another feature of government grants to the universities is that over 80% goes into personnel emoluments and less than 20% goes into operational costs (University of Ghana, Finance Office, 1996).

The following figure shows some of the estimates and the actual amounts released to the universities by the government. Personal Emoluments form Item 1 and Items 2-5 is the running expenses. It must be stated that these figures have been presented exactly as was obtained from the printed source. The figures should be treated with caution because some them do not add up properly.

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA			
	Item 1	Item 2-5	Total
Estimate	5307193000	1419303000	6726496000
Releases	6021140000	1173120000	7194360000
Variance	-714047000	246183000	-467864000

UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY			
	Item 1	Item 2-5	Total
Estimate	4493219000	1327371000	5820590000
Releases	5187840000	1282000000	6469840000
Variance	-694621000	45371000	-649250000

University Of Cape Coast			
	Item 1	Item 2-5	Total
Estimate	1909955000	510499000	2420454000
Releases	2579440000	456280000	3035720000
Variance	-669485000	54219000	-615266000



Univ. Coll. of Education of Winneba			
	Item 1	Item 2-5	Total
Estimate	1113019000	250000000	1363019000
Releases	784000000	309480000	1093480000
Variance	329019000	-59480000	269539000

University of Development Studies			
	Item 1	Item 2-5	Total
Estimate	168000000	33800000	201800000
Releases	61080000	198000000	259080000
Variance	106920000	-164200000	-57280000

**Figure 6.5** Subvention released for the period January- December 1994 (Amount are in cedis) Source:University of Ghana Finance Office, 1996)

The figures indicate that almost all the universities in 1994 did not get all the estimates submitted to the government. The old universities had estimates for emoluments not fully satisfied by government. As the salaries of workers must be paid, money is usually borrowed from money released by government for operational costs (Item 2-5), leaving very little for the running of the various departments in the universities.

#### **6.2.5.1 The Disbursement Of University Funds**

The government has prescribed norms for the distribution of the subvention to the various sections of the universities in accordance with its Programme Linked Budget (PLB). Table 6.2 shows the norms given to the universities.

It must be stated that none of the universities has strictly used the Programme Linked Budget. The University of Science and Technology, for example, has since 1992 never allocated more than 2% of its total subvention to the library. Table 6.3 shows the disbursement of funds by the UST Finance Office from 1992 to 1995.

Department	Norm Percentage
Direct Academic	45
General Education Expenses	15
Library	10
Central Administration	6
Staff/Student facilities and amenities	5
Municipal Services	15
Miscellaneous	4
Total	100

**Table 6.2** Government norms for the disbursement of University Funds

(Source: UST FINANCE OFFICE, 1996)

	1992	1993	1994	1995
Direct Academic	56.66	48.82	47	54
General. Education. Expenses.	1.65	11.7	11	8
Library	1.52	1.72	2	2
Central Adm.	6.68	8.47	7	7
Staff/Stu. facilities	12.42	9.82	14	15
Municipal Services	12.70	15.39	16	11
Miscellaneous	8.37	4.08	3	3
Total	100	100	100	100

**Table 6.3** Percentage Disbursement of Funds of UST 1992-1995

(Source: UST recent estimates, 1996 p. 15)

### ***Salaries Of University Staff***

The salaries of the University workers in Ghana range from \$3056.7 per annum for a Vice-chancellor to just \$276.09 per annum for a labourer as per 1996 salaries structure. Table 6.4 shows the salaries of University staff for February to December 1996.

Grade	Salary per annum in US	£ conversion (1 £ = 1.5 \$)
Vice- chancellor	3057.7	1910
Professor or Equivalent (Univ. Librarian)	2800	1750
Assoc. Professor (Dep. Univ. Librarian)	2555	1597
Senior Lecturer (Snr. Asst. Librarian)	2183	1364
Lecturer (Asst. Librarian)	1714	1071
Asst. Lecturer (Jnr.Asst. Librarian)	1410	881
Teaching Asst. (Dem.)	830	519
Chief Technician (Chief Lib.Assistant)	1477	923
Technician/Lib. Assistant	826	516
Clerk Grade 1	527	329
Typist Grade 1	366	229
Messenger/Cleaner	297	185
Labourer	276	173

**Table 6.4** Salaries of some university workers as at February 1996

(Source: University of Ghana, Finance Office, 1996 (Original figures were in cedis))

### **6.3 THE INTERNAL LIBRARY ENVIRONMENTS**

This section considers the history, funding, infrastructure, goals, management, staffing, acquisitions, infrastructure, funding and user population of university libraries in Ghana.

#### **6.3.1 *The History Of University Libraries***

The history of university libraries in Ghana , particularly that of the old universities, has been narrated in many books, e.g., Dean (1967), as prefaces to many notes of library executive meetings and as background information to many journal articles on university libraries in Ghana ( e.g. Boadi and Harvard Williams, 1984; Alemna, 1990).

The history of the libraries as presented in this section is an adaptation of notes obtained from the University Librarian of one of the old universities. All the old universities are believed to have had the beginnings of their libraries in the Achimota secondary school. Achimota is about seven kilometres from the University of Ghana main campus at Legon. It was founded in 1924 by the British colonial government to provide second cycle



education, including teacher training facilities and staffing for the emerging secondary schools in British West African colonies. It also had library education. Its library had built up a sizeable collection of books over the years to provide source materials for its courses. By 1948 it had a collection of 24,000 volumes; these were made up of the main collection of over 11,000 volumes, its science school library with over 12,000 volumes, its engineering school library, with 850 volumes and the Art school library with 270 volumes (Kafe, 1977).

When the University College of the Gold Coast, now the University of Ghana, was established in 1948, the library that was set up was put under the direction of Miss Ethel Fegan who was then the librarian of Achimota College library. She arranged a temporary transfer of a number of reference works and textbooks which she considered as advanced from the school to provide the nucleus of essential collections for the new University. The initial stock was 6,400 volumes, including the 3000 transferred from Achimota school.

Else Walter took over from Fegan as the new and 'first librarian' of the university library which was housed in its present accommodation after the completion of the university buildings. The library was named the Balme Library, after the first British Principal of the University College of the Gold Coast. By 1959, when all transfers had been completed the Balme Library had a total initial stock of 115,000 volumes (Dean, 1967).

In 1951, when the University of Science and Technology (UST) was established, the teacher training side of Achimota was moved to UST with its accompanying library to form the nucleus of its present library. The collection that began the library had 4,900 volumes and was predominantly teacher training in character (UCC Library, 1993).

Some years after the establishment of the University at Kumasi, a change in its mission was made making it a completely science and technology institution. The original teacher training inclination was abolished and the bulk of the Achimota stock was transferred to Cape Coast, where a new University of Education had been set up to undertake the training of teachers, so the University of Cape Coast also inherited the Achimota collection to start its library.

The University College of Education of Winneba which had existed previously as a cluster of diploma -awarding institutions also had some of the teacher training materials of the old

Achimota College. The present library stock of the UCEW was built from the existing stock of all the old diploma-awarding institutions which now make up the university.

The second of the new universities, the University of Development Studies has a library that was set up from scratch with the appointment of Ibrahim Antwi, a deputy librarian from the University of Cape Coast in May 1992. By April 1995 the total number of books accessioned was 4,200 (Antwi, 1995).

### ***6.3.2 The Goals And Mission Of The University Libraries***

The libraries of Ghanaian universities, like their parent institutions, were modelled on their British counterparts in terms of organisation and management. They are recognised as part of the universities of which they form an integral part in every respect. According to Kissiedu (1994) the overall goal of the university libraries is:

...building comprehensive collections that reflect and support the teaching, study and research programmes in their parent universities (Kissiedu, 1994: 3).

The university libraries, therefore, collect materials to meet the needs of the various disciplines in their respective universities. The University of Ghana (UG) library, for example, aims to build collections in humanities, arts, agriculture, law, social studies and medicine whilst the UST library accumulates books and other materials to reflect its main discipline of science and technology, architecture, engineering, pharmacy and medicine. The mission of the UST library has been summarised in its strategic plan as:

... building a comprehensive collection of all kinds of recorded communication, particularly those in the fields of science and technology and putting in place an efficient and effective administrative system that will help facilitate and optimise the use of the collection (UST Library, Strategic Plan 1995).

The University of Cape Coast library has the following mission:

...to provide all types of relevant information records and services to support and promote teaching, learning and research. The development of competent staff in all categories to run the library will be its prime concern (UCC Library Report, 1994).

The goal of the University College of Education of Winneba has been summarised in its strategic planning document as : “... to provide facilities for teaching and research to enable its products achieve academic and professional competence (UCEW Library Strategic Plan, 1994).

### **6.3.3 Management Of The Ununiversity Libraries**

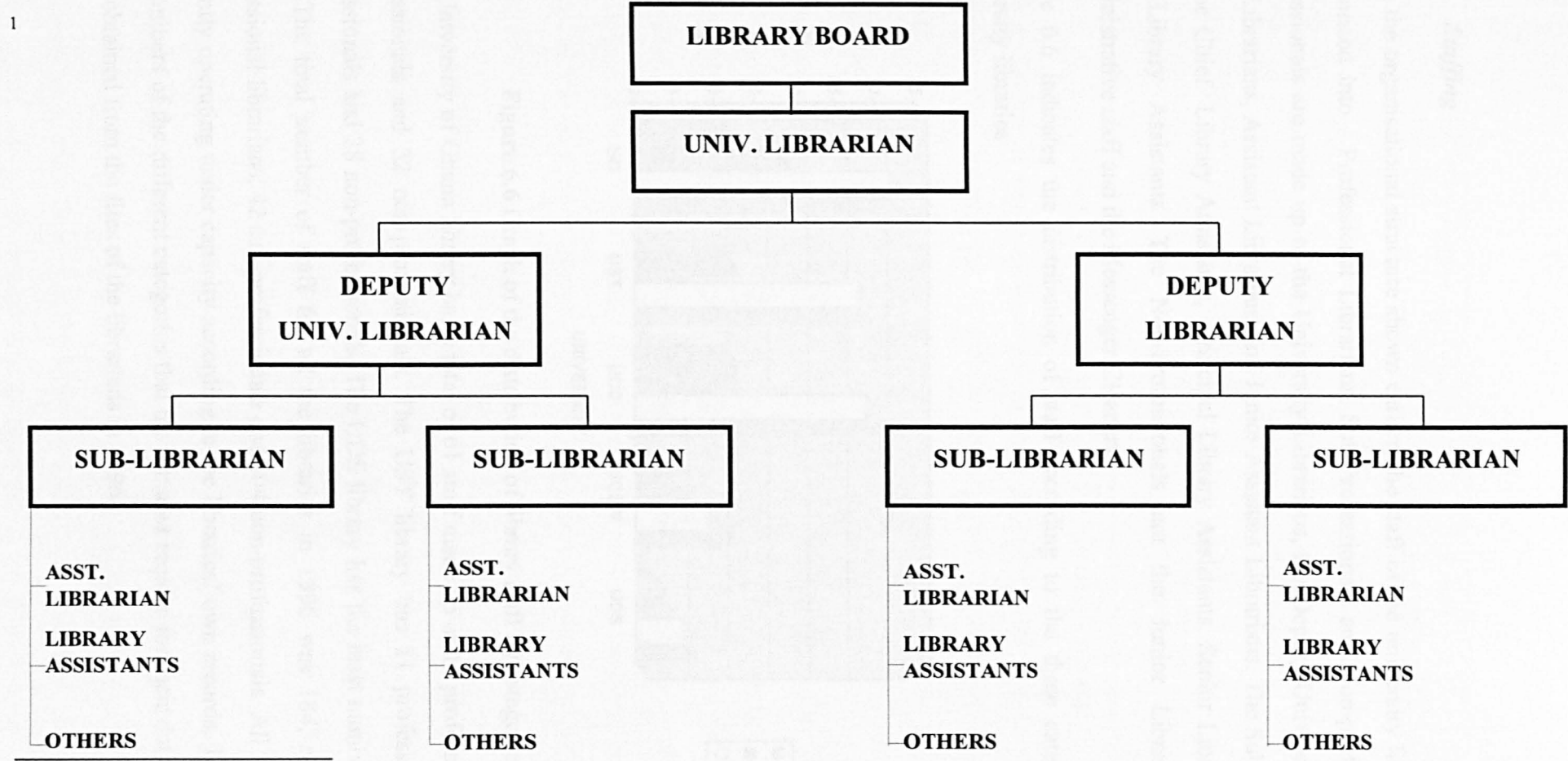
All five university libraries have hierarchical organisational structures and similar management styles. The Academic Boards of their parent organisations are responsible for the development of library policies. The powers in respect of the library are delegated to a library board. The membership of the library board reflects the importance which the university councils attach to their libraries because presiding over the board as chairman is the Vice-chancellor. The composition of the library board differs from one university to the other.

The University of Ghana, for example, has the Vice-chancellor or his appointee as the chairman, a representative from each faculty board, two members from the finance committee, the University librarian, the Deputy University Librarian, the Registrar, the Finance Officer and one student representative. The board meets at least three times a year (University of Ghana Library, 1973).

The administration of the library is done by the University Librarian who reports to the board. University Librarians are assisted by Deputy Librarians. The next level in the hierarchy are the Sub-librarians who are usually heads of the various departments of the libraries. They are also assisted by Assistant Librarians. Next to the Assistant Librarians are the Junior Assistant Librarians. The Library Assistants are next in the hierarchy. They range from Chief Library Assistants to Junior Library Assistants. The messengers and cleaners are the lowest in the hierarchy. There are also technical and administrative staff who support the library services.

Figure 6.5 is a typical organisational chart of the University libraries in Ghana. The number of staff for each level may differ among the institutions but the structures are identical.

**BALME LIBRARY**  
ORGANISATION CHART

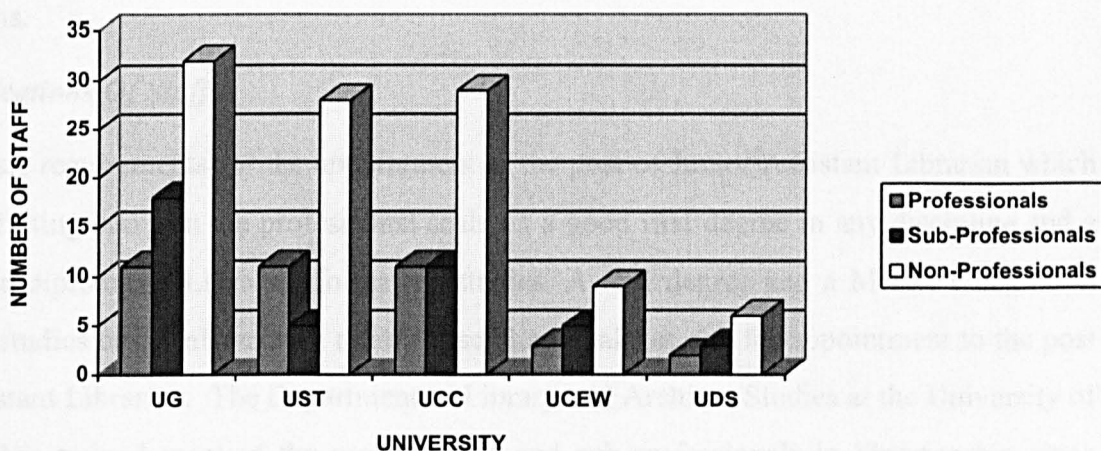


<sup>1</sup> FIGURE 6.5 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES IN GHANA

### 6.3.4 Staffing

From the organisational structure shown earlier, the staff of the university libraries may be categorised into - Professional Librarians, Sub-Professionals and Non-professionals. The Professionals are made up of the University Librarians, the Deputy University Librarians, Sub-Librarians, Assistant Librarians and Junior Assistant Librarians. The Sub-Professionals are the Chief Library Assistants, Principal Library Assistants, Senior Library Assistants and Library Assistants. The Non-Professionals are the Junior Library Assistants, Administrative staff and the Messenger/Cleaners

Figure 6.6 indicates the distribution of staff according to the three categories for the university libraries



**Figure 6.6** Graph of the distribution of library staff by categories

The University of Ghana library has a total of 61 staff made up of 11 professionals, 18 sub-professionals and 32 non-professionals. The UST library has 11 professionals, 5 sub-professionals and 28 non-professionals. The UDS library has the least number of staff, just 11. The total number of staff for all the libraries in 1996 was 184, made up of 38 professional librarians, 42 sub-professionals and 104 non-professionals. All the libraries are presently operating under capacity according to the libraries' own records. Table 6.5 shows the numbers of the different categories that the libraries require for their duties. The figures were obtained from the files of the librarians in 1996.

UNIVERSITY	PROFESSIONALS	SUB-PROFESSIONALS	NON-PROFESSIONALS	TOTAL
Univ. of Ghana	23	Not available	37	Not available
Univ. of Ses & Tech	16	10	33	59
Univ. of Cape Coast	20	Not available	Not available	Not available
Univ. Coll. of Edu. Winneba	6	11	16	33
Univ. of Dev. Studies	10	Not available	Not available	Not available
Total	75	Not available	Not available	Not available

**Table 6.5** Staff Requirements of the University libraries

The total number of staff required by the Librarians is about twice the staff in post. The situation has risen because the universities need approval from government to fill vacant positions.

### ***Qualifications Of Staff***

The basic requirements for the appointment to the post of Junior Assistant Librarian which is the starting point on the professional scale, is a good first degree in any discipline and a graduate diploma in Library/Information studies. A first degree and a Master's degree in library studies or an information related discipline qualifies one for appointment to the post of Assistant Librarian. The Department of Library and Archival Studies at the University of Ghana has trained most of the professionals and sub-professionals in librarianship since 1965 (Alemna, 1994).

The sub-professionals either have a first degree in any field with a working experience in librarianship or a Diploma in Library Studies or an ALA. The non-professionals, made up of the administrative workers, technicians, junior library assistants and messenger/cleaners may possess the City and Guilds certificate, a diploma in secretarial duties or ordinary/advanced levels certificates .

There is a number of technical computer staff. The University of Ghana has two computer science graduates, the UST library has one Information Science- trained professional. The other university libraries do not have qualified computer- trained personnel. The Department of Library Studies at the University of Ghana, the only library school in the country, is not adequately equipped to train people to use new information technologies because of the lack of computers in the school (Kissiedu, 1994).



### 6.3.5 The Library Stock

Most of the present stock of the university libraries was acquired between the late 1950s and early 1970s when development was particularly rapid in terms of staff and stock (Dean, 1967). The present stock sizes of the libraries are shown in Table 6.6

	NUMBER OF VOLUMES		
	MONOGRAPHS	PERIODICAL TITLES AVAILABLE	PERIODICAL TITLES SUBSCRIBED TO NOW
Univ. of Ghana	350,000	5000	350
Univ. of Scs. & Tech.	155,000	1700	600
Univ. of Cape Coast	183,029	2000	411
Univ.Coll.of Edu. Winneba	30,000	Not available	74
Univ.of Dev. Studies	5,200	0	0

**Table 6.6** Stock sizes of the University Libraries in 1996

(Source: UST Vice-chancellor’s Report (1995) and the files of the other university librarians).

The table shows that the university libraries used to subscribe to many journals. The University of Ghana library for example used to subscribe to about 5,000 titles but presently subscribes to fewer than 400. The UDS library was not subscribing to any journal at the time of the investigation.

#### 6.3.5.1 Acquisition Statistics

Collection development was relatively healthy in all the university libraries in the 1950s and 1960’s. There was, for example, a growth rate of 10,000 volumes per annum in the University of Ghana library until 1972 and over 5000 journal subscriptions (Kissiedu, 1994: 7). 1991 saw a much reduced addition of only 1413 volumes over 1000 of which were donations. There was little or no growth in the 1990’s (University of Ghana Library, 1993). Figure 6.7 shows the statistics of recent acquisitions of books for some of the university libraries.

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA					
MODE OF ACQUISITION	1989/90	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94
PURCHASE(LIBRARY'S FUNDS)	743	278	39	92	26
PURCHASE(DONOR FUND)	-	-	-	-	616
EXCHANGE	97	1	2	60	19
DONATION	1427	959	3775	4125	6095
LEGAL DEPOSIT	39	18	14	25	10
WORLD BANK					57
TOTAL	2306	1256	3830	4302	6823

( University of Ghana Library, 1996)

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST					
MODE OF ACQUISITION	1989/90	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94
PURCHASE(LIBRARY'S FUND)	225	250	861	589	528
PURCHASE(DONOR FUND)	1857	1710	-	-	5230
EXCHANGE	11	6	5	3	25
LEGAL DEPOSIT	320	396	336	128	603
DONATION	217	344	3352	3814	2096
TOTAL	2630	2706	4554	4532	8482

**Figure 6.7** Acquisitions of some of the University Libraries 1989-1994

(SOURCE: UCC Library, 1996)

Figure 6.7 shows that for the University of Ghana library the acquisitions by direct purchase for 1994 amounted to only 26 books. Purchases by the library show a constant decline from 1989 to 1994. The main mode of acquisition has been donations which in 1994 accounted for over 89% of the library's acquisitions. A similar pattern occurred in the UCC library; out of the 8482 books added to the stock in 1994, 7326 books making up over 86% of the



additions, were donations. Only 528 books, some 6.2% were bought from the library's own fund.

In 1993/94 the UST library purchased 3311 books from overseas, 202 books were purchased locally, there were 256 legal deposits and 779 donations. The total number of acquisitions was 4548 books. The UDS library, one of the new universities acquired 1327 books in 1993, then added 640 in 1994 and 232 in 1995.

### **6.3.6 *The Organisation Of The Libraries***

University libraries in Ghana are departmentalised into:

- Acquisition
- Cataloguing
- Periodicals
- Reader Services and
- Reference.

Some of the libraries have other departments that are special to their establishments. The Balme Library, for example, has, in addition to the five traditional sections, the Africana, the UN depository, the Volta Basin, Technical Services, Arabic and the Braille libraries (Kissiedu, 1994).

The libraries of the old universities are organised at various sites on the same campuses. Each has a central library and a number of ancillary libraries which are attached to the special schools and institutes. In addition there are libraries in some departments and faculties and in the halls of residences. The library system of the University of Ghana for example, comprises the Balme Library at the centre, and the libraries of the special schools and institutions. The existing residential hall libraries are also autonomous, but some of the faculties and departments such as the Agriculture, Chemistry, Zoology and Botany are all satellites of the Balme Library, in that their library materials are acquired and processed by the Balme Library and the staff who take care of these departmental collections are on secondment from the Balme library (Kissiedu, 1994).

### **6.3.7 *Services***

University libraries in Ghana provide identical traditional library services of; circulation (issues), provision of materials for literature searches (card catalogues and sheaf

catalogues), reader services (answering queries, reference enquiries), periodical control, processing of books and other materials, reprographic services (photocopying and microforms and interlibrary loans. In addition the old university libraries provide electronic mail and CD ROM services whilst the UST library in addition provides telex services.

### 6.3.7.1 *Library Automation*

All the university libraries use some form of computer technology. There are no information technology centres in any of the universities in Ghana for students. Table 6.7 shows the level of automation in University libraries in Ghana.

LIBRARY	ACQUISITION	CATALOGUING	CIRCULATION
Univ. of Ghana	NO	IN PROGRESS	NO
Univ. of Scs & Tech.	NO	IN PROGRESS	NO
Univ. of Cape Coast	NO	IN PROGRESS	NO
Univ.Coll.of Edu. Winneba	NO	NO	NO
Univ.of Dev. Studies	NO	NO	NO

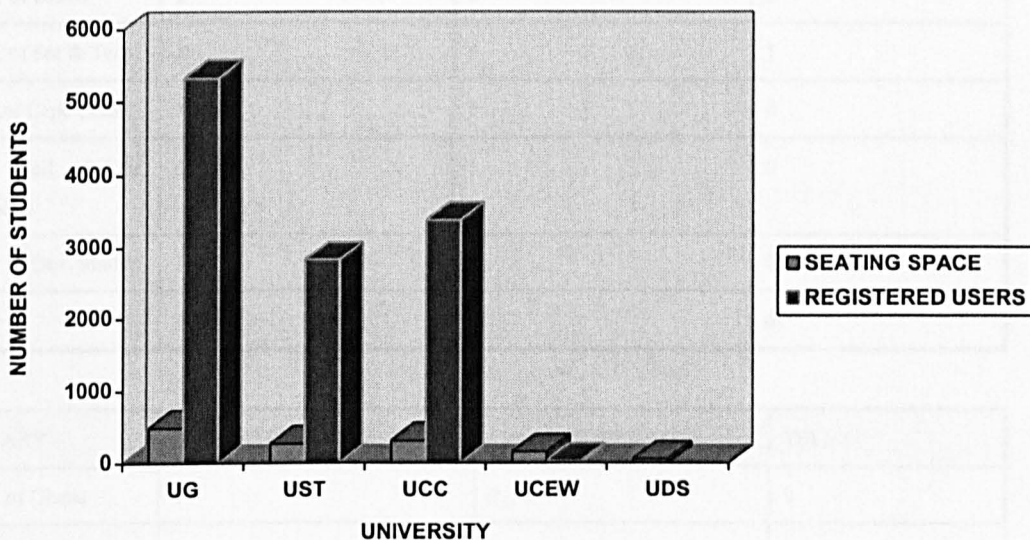
LIBRARY	OPAC	REFERENCE	SERIALS CONTROL
Univ. of Ghana	NO	YES	NO
Univ. of Scs & Tech.	NO	NO	NO
Univ. of Cape Coast	NO	NO	NO
Univ.Coll.of Edu. Winneba	NO	NO	NO
Univ.of Dev. Studies	NO	NO	NO

**Table 6.7** Automation in University libraries in Ghana as at 1996

Table 6.7 reveals a very low level of computer applications in all the University libraries. The old universities, however, have started to record their catalogues in machine readable formats but are nowhere near completion. The card catalogue is still the dominant search tool in the libraries. The University of Ghana library has a computerised catalogue in the reference library which is restricted to about 1000 books which are for short loans in the library only.

### 6.3.8 Library Buildings And Reading Spaces

The present library buildings were all put up when the universities were first established. The Balme Library, for example was initially designed to house 250,000 volumes and to accommodate only 350 readers. More shelf space has been improvised by packing the books rather tightly to accommodate the present 350000 volumes. Additional seating spaces have also been created to seat 496 people. Figure 6.8 shows the reading spaces available in the libraries and the number of registered users for 1994



**Figure 6.8** Reading spaces and the number of users

The chart shows the vast differences between the seats available and the number of registered users of the libraries. As early as 1970 the University of Ghana Library drew up a new library building plan which hopefully would have accommodated 650,000 volumes and provided 1200 reading spaces and 320 study carrels. The plan remains on the drawing-boards (Kafe, 1977). The UST library has started an extension of its present library building. When the four storey building is completed the UST library should be able to accommodate 350,000 volumes and seat 1200 readers (UST, 1994).

The UCC library, like the UST library, is in the process of 'completing' a new library building which should be able to accommodate 2000 students and 600 staff representing 42% of an anticipated student population of 6000 by 1997. The project was started in 1978.

Work on the building which is still in progress was expected to have ended in 1995(UCC library n.d: 11).

### 6.3.9 Library Equipment

The equipment for the performance of the duties of the University libraries in Ghana are mainly computers, photocopying machines, CD-ROM drives, microform readers, telex and cassette players. Table 6.8 shows the quantity of this equipment that the libraries had as of March 1996.

LIBRARY	PCs	PHOTOCOPIERS	CD-ROM DRIVES
Univ. of Ghana	2	2	5
Univ. of Scs & Tech.	5	4	1
Univ. of Cape Coast	3	3	0
Univ. Coll. of Edu. Winneba	0	1	0
Univ. of Dev. Studies	1	1	0
Total	11	11	6

LIBRARY	MICROFORM READERS	CASSETTE PLAYERS	TELEX
Univ. of Ghana	1	0	0
Univ. of Scs & Tech.	1	0	1
Univ. of Cape Coast	0	0	0
Univ. Coll. of Edu. Winneba	0	1	0
Univ. of Dev. Studies	0	0	0
Total	2	1	1

**Table 6.8** Library Equipment

(Source: Annual Reports of the Universities for 1995)

Table 6.8 shows the very poor level of library equipment provision for the operations of the libraries. There are only 11 PCs between the five University libraries and 11 photocopying machines to serve a combined student population of over 18,000.



### 6.3.10 Library Funding

University library funding is indirect, through the parent organisations. The percentage of the total budget of a university that is allocated to the library is a matter of individual university policy or at the Finance Officer's discretion, although the Ministry of Education has recommended 10% of the entire university budget (Kissiedu, 1994). The salaries of workers are paid in full every month but the universities have different schedules for the disbursement of recurrent subventions. For the University of Ghana, when the subvention is received from the government, the Finance Office allocates an amount to the library based on the percentage of the actual allocation made to the university by the Ministry of Finance. For example, if the university presented a 15 billion cedi budget to the government but had only 50% of it approved and released, the library's estimate of 100 million cedis presented is equally halved, ignoring government's recommendations. So, in effect, the library never knows the exact percentage of the university budget it will receive (University of Ghana, Finance office, 1996). The situation is no different from the other universities. For example, Table 6.9 shows the percentage of the University of Science and Technology budget paid to the library from 1992 to 1996

YEAR	PERCENTAGE
1992	1.52
1993	1.72
1994	2.00
1995	2.00
1996	3.00

**Table 6.9** The percentage of University of Science and Technology recurrent budget for the university library for 1992-1996

(Source: UST Library Report for the International Development Agency Report (IDA), 1995)

The low percentage allocated, as explained in the UST Finance Office report to IDA is a result of the fact that the direct expenses for the academic departments have always been more than the 45% recommended by government; therefore, the Finance Office has to reduce the funds of other departments to be able to meet that of the academic section. The staff/student facilities budget has also had to be increased to 8% instead of the government

norm percentage of 5% so as to be able to meet the high cost of running and maintaining the facilities (UST, Library Report 1995).

### 6.3.10.1 Disbursement Of Library Funds

No written criteria for the disbursement of funds within the library was discovered during the analysis of the library documents. Figure 6.9 is the percentage expenditure from library funds for two of the old universities from their past records.

THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA LIBRARY					
PERCENTAGE					
	1989/90	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94
Books	12.05	6.06	2.43	1.97	0.35
Journals	1.34	5.79	0.44	0.75	1.37
Equipment Furniture	2.61	1.31	2.94	8.26	3.00
Staff salaries	74.18	81.09	86.86	80.86	86.07
Materials and Maintenance	9.82	5.75	7.34	8.78	9.34
Total	100	100	100	100	100

THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST					
PERCENTAGE					
	1989/90	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94
Books	3.68	4.51	15.93	9.48	6.23
Journals	1.63	2.04	1.16	0.21	0.22
Equipment and Furniture	1.63	2.23	1.62	1.99	5.30
Staff Salaries	75.07	79.87	69.04	81.63	80.41
Materials and Maintenance	12.06	7.22	6.22	3.51	4.56
Transport Charges	5.93	4.13	6.03	3.18	3.28
Total	100	100	100	100	100

**Figure 6.9** Percentage Expenditure from library funds for 1989-1994

(Source: Analysed from documents titled “University Libraries in Africa, 1989/94 prepared by the University Librarians, 1994).

The figures indicate that for the two libraries, over 80% of the entire library budget goes into staff emoluments. In 1994, for instance, only 0.22% of the budget for UCC went into

the purchasing of journals. Another distinctive feature of these figures is the absence of any specific budget for information technology.

### 6.3.10.2 *Income Generation*

In all the university libraries, photocopying services form the major source of income generation. The libraries that have e-mail services and telex also charge individuals for those services. Table 6.10 represents an income and expenditure account of the UST Library for the year 1994.

ITEM	INCOME	EXPENDITURE	PROFIT OR LOSS
Photographic Services	659,150.00	452,800.00	+206,358.00
Photocopy Service	1471440.00	1,869,500.00	- 398060.00
Telex Service	5900.00	Not available	Not available

**Table 6.10** Income and Expenditure account for the UST Library for 1994

(Source: UST Library 1993/94 Annual Report)

Table 6.10 indicates that income generating activities for the UST for 1994 ended in a deficit. The library's Annual Report explained that the poor performance of the library's enterprise was because of the regular breakdown of the machines owing to over-use by the library's clientele. The machines were therefore idle for a greater part of the year awaiting repairs. Other income generating activities are the collection of fines which are quite insignificant and not represented in the Income/Expenditure account.

### 6.3.11 *User Population*

The users of the university libraries are made up of the teaching staff, undergraduates (FTE) and postgraduates (FTE). There are also some other university workers who sometimes use the libraries and to a much lesser degree some users are also from outside the universities. Figure 6.10 shows statistics of the users of university libraries in Ghana from 1989-1994. Some figures are not available. Despite repeated attempts to solicit this information from the librarians they have been unable to do so.



1989/90				
LIBRARY	Teaching Staff	Undergraduates.	Postgraduates.	Total
BALME	471	3190	294	3955
UST	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
UCC	150	1703	50	1903
UCEW	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
UDS	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available

1990/91				
LIBRARY	Teaching Staff	Undergraduates.	Postgraduates	Total
BALME	528	3202	300	4030
UST	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
UCC	156	1912	92	2160
UCEW	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
UDS	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available

1991/92				
LIBRARY	Teaching Staff	Undergraduates	Postgraduates	Total
BALME	537	3799	294	3630
UST	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
UCC	163	2256	148	2567
UCEW	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
UDS	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available

1992/93				
LIBRARY	Teaching Staff	Undergraduates	Postgraduates.	Total
BALME	524	4302	409	5235
UST	Not available	Not available	Not available	2620
UCC	202	2494	158	2854
UCEW	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
UDS	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available



1993/94				
LIBRARY	Teaching Staff	Undergraduates.	Postgraduates.	Total
BALME	528	4390	411	5329
UST	494	2130	203	2827
UCC	198	2912	278	3388
UCEW	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available
UDS	Not available	Not available	Not available	Not available

**Figure 6.10** User Population of the University libraries 1989-1994 (Source: University Libraries, 1994(Files of Librarians))

The analysis of the documents of the corporate and internal environments of the university libraries in Ghana indicate that the libraries are poorly funded and have a chronic shortage of the basic infrastructure to provide effective services despite the fact that the major stakeholders may have laudable strategic vision of their libraries. The analysis of data and findings on mission and vision statements of the university stakeholders can be found in the next chapter.

### 2.1.1 Mission/Goals

The mission or purpose or business definition of an organization sets it apart from other organizations of its type and identifies the scope of its operations in product and market (Porter, 1985). It is shared and agreed upon by top management that it provides direction for the organization. A mission statement also does duty as a public relations tool and also as a planning tool. The goals and objectives of an organization are derived from its mission statement. Strategic plans are then made by matching corporate objectives and available resources. The goals of an organization must therefore be agreed upon by all the major stakeholders to ensure goal conflict-free internal planning (Waller, 1987).

Waller (1987) has argued that because the Newborn Firm organization typically lacks a single clear and performance criteria (such as profit, dividend yield and objectives are

# CHAPTER SEVEN

## ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS ON MISSION/GOALS AND VISION STATEMENTS OF UNIVERSITY STAKEHOLDERS

### 7.1 MISSION/GOALS, VISION STATEMENTS

The strategic management process involves an analysis of the current circumstances of an organisation. It is only by a careful review of the current performance of an organisation and the decisions which result in that performance, that the strategist can make reasonable choices of activities to improve the performance.

Three fundamental aspects of this analysis are: discovering why the organisation exists, what the organisation is trying to achieve, and how it intends to achieve its desired ends. Discovering why the organisation exists, and who its customers are, constitutes the mission of the organisation. The goals/objectives relate to what the organisation is trying to achieve; and strategy identifies the means that the organisation should use to achieve its objectives (Rue and Holland, 1986)

#### 7.1.1 *Mission/Goals*

The mission or purpose or business definition of an organisation sets it apart from other organisations of its type and identifies the scope of its operations in product and market (Pearce, 1982); if it is shared and agreed upon by top management then it provides direction for the organisation. A mission statement also does duty as a public relations tool and also as a planning tool. The goals and objectives of an organisation are derived from its mission statement. Strategic plans are then made by matching corporate objectives and available resources. The goals of an organisation must therefore be agreed upon by all the major stakeholders because goal conflicts interfere with rational planning (Mullins, 1985).

Nutt (1984:57) has argued that because the Not-for Profit organisation typically lacks a single clear cut performance criterion (such as profits); divergent goals and objectives are

likely. In a university environment however, this divergence has implications for funding and financial management.

The results of an exploration of the conception of university library mission/goals held by the stakeholders who are closely involved in the strategic direction of universities and their libraries in Ghana are presented here. For this purpose, the stakeholders were categorised by work roles i.e., those who are government executives, those who are university staff but not librarians and those university staff who are also librarians. It must be stated, however that because only two government officials took part in the interviews their views are represented in other forms but not as part of the statistical analysis. Issues relating to the development of mission statements and goals were presented to them. The 63 stakeholders were then requested to rank abbreviated versions of the issues as in Question 3 of the main interview schedule (Appendix A).

Figure 7.1 in Appendix H shows how the stakeholders prioritised the individual issues presented to them.

It clearly shows that over 50% of the respondents ranked information provision i.e. the collection of books, journal, manuscripts and making these available to users, as a very high priority. Over twenty-nine percent (29.5%) also ranked it as a high priority. A significantly high proportion of the stakeholders who took part in the survey therefore ranked information provision as a high priority mission issue in their university libraries in Ghana. This finding suggests a general trend towards a belief in traditional library media. Hayes (1993) observed that the traditional mission of academic libraries has been two fold - to preserve the record of knowledge and to provide access to that record and its contents. Some librarians, in his view, are facing a crisis in determining their mission and are being forced to make a choice in the commitment of resources between collection development on the one hand and information access on the other. This result has demonstrated the preference of the overwhelming majority of the respondents. Over 30% of them, however, ranked the access to information resources as a high priority (11.5% prioritised it as a very high and 21.3% as high priority).

The provision of entertainment facilities for users was found to be the least important. Most respondents qualified their answers to the question. They believed that presently their

universities were under-funded and considered the provision of entertainment facilities (social facilities) a luxury, for example, one Dean made this comment:

...we cannot entertain anybody now. The university library is not here to entertain anybody particularly when we are not properly funded. Cuts here cuts there. We cannot provide entertainment for students; its for those who have more money to spare (UnivA7).

The responses on the mission issues, cross- tabulated by work roles yielded significant differences between the responses. The Kruskal-Wallis one-way anova test, a non parametric test that shows the mean rank between independent samples produced the results presented in Table 7.1. (The Kruskal-Wallis test shows the different ways different groups rated the variables. It provides a chi-squared value and indicates if the differences between mean ranks are significant using a significance<.05).

Priority statement	STAKEHOLDER CATEGORY				
	University staff (not librarian.) N=44 Mean rank	Library staff N=17 Mean rank	Chi-squared	Degrees of Freedom	Significance
Promoting campus wide access to information resources	36.3	17.3	14.1079	1	.0002
Document supply (e.g. ILL)	38.5	11.6	28.2638	1	.0000
To assist in education and acquisition of knowledge	37.3	14.7	19.8540	1	.0000
Information provision(books and journals)	35.1	20.3	8.5240	1	.0035
Taking a leading role in national and international library and information services	39.3	9.4	34.8514	1	.0000
Providing the right environment for learning	24.6	47.6	20.6502	1	.0000
Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	37.3	14.7	19.9257	1	.0000
Provision of entertainment facilities	31.5	29.6	.1429	1	.7054

**Table 7.1** Mean ranks of mission statements by stakeholder category

Figure 7.1(Appendix H) indicates that all the library staff among the respondents found document supply to be important while 88.64% of the non-library staff found it either not important or marginal. This finding suggests that the non- librarians amongst the university staff interviewed believed that their libraries should focus their goals more on providing the information they possess. Over eighty-six percent (86.36%) of the university staff but not librarians would like the librarians to concentrate on the provision of books and journals. This implies that they are more inclined to having their institutional needs satisfied from their own collections and perhaps trying to emphasise collection development as a major library mission. Figure 7.1 (Appendix H) further shows that 95.45% of the university staff who are not librarians did not consider the statement 'taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources' as either of very high priority, high priority or important. Over fifty-eight percent (58.82%) of the librarians however ranked it as either of very high priority or of high priority and 41.18% ranked it as important.

This difference between the perceptions of the non-librarians and the librarians is further evidence that the university staff who are not librarians expect their libraries to concentrate more on an institutional mission rather than a national one, while the evidence clearly shows that the librarians in addition to an institutional inclination would also like to see information access and the sharing of the wide range of national and international resources as an important mission issue. The small mean rank value of 14.8 (35.1-20.3) for the responses on information provision in Table 7.1 confirms that both categories of staff are in favour of information provision as an important mission statement. A large mean rank difference of 29.93 further strengthens the argument that one group, the librarians, is more in favour of taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources than the non librarians.

It can also be concluded that the librarians who took part in this exercise would wish to have a mission statement that strikes a balance between collection development and information access. Table 7.1 clearly shows that there are significant differences between the mean ranks of the library staff and that of the non library staff of the universities in Ghana with the exception of the rankings for 'provision of entertainment facilities.' This implies that these two university policy makers have different perceptions of the mission

of their university libraries and obviously would have different goals and objectives for their institutional libraries. The survey has clearly demonstrated that the university management who took part in the study do not share a single agreed mission for their university libraries. This is an issue which has implications for library resourcing as some of the respondents were power brokers and Finance Officers of the universities. Hebron (1989) has observed that a sponsor who disagrees with a particular, narrow definition of the mission of an organisation might take decisions that affect its funding. This finding also has implications for management's commitment towards library projects and intraorganisational politics.

A cross tabulation of the mission statements by university did not reveal any statistically significant relationships (with a significance  $>.05$ ) as can be seen in Table 7.2.

Across the five cases, the analysis indicates that there are no significant differences between the stakeholders' perception of the individual mission statements. It can be concluded that the result of the universities' not having a single agreed mission for their libraries is irrespective of organisation and the findings are replicated in all the institutions.

Because the findings so far on the mission priority statements have political implications at both managerial and operational levels, it was decided to explore the extent to which the large population of library staff agreed or disagreed with the statements. Mitchell and Withus (1991:157-165) have observed that any mission statement must be understood and championed by all the staff and must reflect their own feelings of the value of the organisation.

The analysis of the priority mission statements as perceived by the library management and a section of the library staff is presented in Table 7.3. This displays the percentages of responses to the question on whether respondents agree or disagree with a particular mission statement and their statistical significance.

Priority statement	UnivA N=15 Mean rank	UnivB N=13 Mean rank	UnivC N=12 Mean rank	UnivD N=12 Mean rank	UnivE N=8 Mean rank	Chi-squared	Degree of freedom	Significance
Promoting campus wide access to information resources	26.40	35.23	32.38	38.21	31.56	4.9109	5	.4268
Document supply	32.03	34.58	33.58	24.71	37.00	2.9202	5	.7123
To assist in education and acquisition of knowledge	37.17	32.00	30.65	36.75	16.81	7.5897	5	.1803
Provision of entertainment facilities	27.13	37.23	39.50	32.13	22.06	6.9570	5	.2239
Information provision	24.13	42.35	28.27	39.08	26.06	10.1191	5	.0719
Taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources	38.87	29.54	32.77	35.21	22.81	7.8885	5	.1625
Providing the right environment for learning	32.33	26.85	32.65	39.04	30.13	3.2848	5	.6562
Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	39.63	29.23	33.69	33.46	18.81	7.4579	5	.1532

**Table 7.2** Mean rank of mission statements by university



Mission statement	Agree %	Do not agree %	Total %	Chi- squared	Degre e of freedo m	Significa nce
Information. provision	93.3	6.7	100	66.6180	1	.0000
Providing the right environment for learning	73.0	27.0	100	18.8870	1	.0000
Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	71.9	28.1	100	17.0899	1	.0000
Promoting campus wide access to information resources	69.7	30.3	100	13.7640	1	.0002
To assist in education and acquisition of knowledge	65.2	34.8	100	8.1910	1	.0042
Taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources	49.4	50.6	100	.0112	1	.9156
Document supply (ILL)	48.3	51.7	100	.1011	1	.7505
Provision of entertainment facilities	12.4	87.6	100	50.4382	1	.0000

**Table 7.3** Responses on agreement on mission statements by university library staff

Table 7.3 clearly shows that 87.6% of the respondents did not see the provision of entertainment facilities as important. This clearly supports the contention of the university stakeholders that the provision of entertainment facilities by university libraries in Ghana is not an important mission issue for the universities and hence strategically irrelevant to information provision in Ghanaian universities. There were disagreements between the library staff and library management on two mission issues, namely document supply (significance = .7505 > .05) and taking a leading role in national and international library and information services (significance = .9156 > .05). The data indicates that a significant proportion of the library staff who took part in the study agreed with their management on the remaining issues of: promoting campus wide access to information resources,



information provision, providing the right environment for learning, training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management and disagreeing just like management with the statement of provision of entertainment facilities.

It can be inferred from the responses on the two main issues of disagreement with management that the library staff are not in favour of developing a library mission that takes into account a wider national perspective. Document supply, an essential feature of access to resources was surprisingly rejected by 51.7% of the respondents. Both factors are important to the access of information as against the more traditional concept of information provision (provision of books, journals and other materials) which was given an overwhelming support by 93.35% of the respondents.

A cross tabulation of the agreement with management on the mission statements by staff positions of professional, para-professional and non-professional yielded the results in Table 7.4. The data in Table 7.4 reveals that over 50% of the respondents did not agree with management on the issue of document supply as a mission statement. Over sixty-five percent (65.85%) of the non-professionals were included in this percentage while 60% of para-professionals were also not in favour of document supply as a priority mission statement. This implies that a majority of the library staff who did not agree with management on document supply were non-professionals and para-professionals. The data also reveals a similar trend for the statement- 'taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources'. In row 6 it can be seen that 31.46% of the responses of the non professionals did not agree with management on that issue. This represents 62.22% ( $31.46/50.56*100$ ) of all the responses that did not agree with this issue and all those who responded in that manner were non-professionals. This further suggests that the non-professionals would prefer their libraries to focus their mission on the needs of their local institutions rather than to shift the focus to a national level. This finding may also be interpreted from another angle. The majority of the non-professionals might not have understood the potential the issues they disagreed with had for the development of their institutional libraries. This is because most, if not all, of the non-professionals have not had any formal library training and therefore have not had any exposure to some of these new ways of doing library business.

Mission statement	CATEGORY OF STAFF						Total
	Professional N = 28		Para-professional N = 20		Non-professional N= 41		
	Agree	Do not agree	Agree	Do not agree	Agree	Do not agree	
Promoting campus wide access to information resources	24 (26.97%)	4 (4.49)	16 (17.98%)	4 (4.49%)	22 (24.72%)	19 (21.35%)	89 (100%)
Document supply	21 (23.60%)	7 (7.87%)	8 (8.99%)	12 (13.48%)	14 (15.73%)	27 (30.34%)	89 (100%)
To assist in education and acquisition of knowledge	22 (24.72%)	6 (6.74%)	16 (17.98%)	4 (4.49%)	20 (22.47%)	20 (22.47%)	89 (100%)
Provision of entertainment facilities	2 (2.25%)	26 (29.21%)	1 (1.12%)	19 (21.35%)	8 (8.99%)	32 (35.96%)	89(100%)
Inf. provision	27 (30.34%)	1 (1.12%)	18 (20.22%)	2 (2.25%)	38 (42.70%)	4 (4.49%)	89 (100)
Taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources	19 (21.35%)	9 (10.11%)	12 (13.48%)	8 (8.99%)	13 (14.61%)	28 (31.46%)	89 (100%)
Providing the right environment for learning	26 (29.21%)	2 (2.25%)	17 (19.10%)	3 (3.37%)	22 (24.72%)	19 (21.35%)	89 (100%)
Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	24 (26.97%)	4 (4.49%)	14 (15.73%)	6 (6.74%)	26 (29.21%)	15 (16.85%)	89 (100%)

**Table 7.4** Responses on agreement with management on mission statements by staff category

Though university libraries in Ghana do not practise document supply on any appreciable scale, the professionals, and to a lesser extent the para-professionals who have had some formal training, are probably more aware of the potential these controversial issues have, not only for the preservation of records in libraries but also for the provision of access to those records and their contents.

A general conclusion that can be drawn from Tables 7.3 and 7.4 is that the large population of library staff who took part in the investigation into the priority mission statements did agree with their management on most of the issues investigated (6/8 of the issues) with the exception of two issues which were mostly disagreed with by the non-professionals.

A cross tabulation of the mission statements by university library indicates that most of the disagreements came from UnivD, UnivE and UnivC as shown in Figure 7.2. in Appendix H In UnivD and UnivE it was observed that there were had very few professional staff and a larger population of non-professional staff who therefore account for most of the disagreements with the overall results.

In the business world, an important aspect of a mission statement is setting out as clearly as possible the essence of a firm's competitive strategy in terms of its targets (Bowman and Asch, 1996). Similarly, in the academic set up, a knowledge of who the users are helps to define the boundaries for its mission. In Ghana where some major cities do not have public libraries (Alemna, 1994), the tendency for the general public to use the university libraries in their localities is great. It was therefore necessary to investigate who the users of the university libraries in Ghana were from the perspective of the sample of library staff of all the university libraries.

Table 7.5 shows the percentages of responses for the different groups of users of the university libraries in Ghana.

Table 7.5 shows that from the point of view of the library staff surveyed, the users of their libraries should be mainly undergraduates, postgraduates and university workers. The responses favouring the general public were not statistically significant. Even those who were in favour of the general public using the university libraries qualified their responses.

Category of users	Percentage in favour	Percentage not in favour	Total
General public	50.6	49.4	100
Postgraduates	92.1	7.9	100
Undergraduates	100.0	0.0	100
University workers	95.5	4.5	100

**Table 7.5** The users of university libraries-library staff perspective

Some of which were:

- not all
- only research workers
- selected members of the general public
- registered members only

### **7.1.2 Vision For Universities And Libraries**

In addition to having a library mission, stakeholders must have a vision for the universities and also for their libraries. A university vision statement is a determinant in the strategic management of information resources of the university library and the other departments. Naisbett (1982) has observed that strategic planning is worthless unless there is also a strategic vision. According to Corral (1994) a vision can provide an organisation and its staff with a shared sense of opportunity, pride and significance and can provide the context and confidence for aspiration and achievement.

The interviewees were requested to state their visions for the universities and libraries.

#### **7.1.2.1 Vision Of Interviewees For The Universities.**

Among the interviewees who were university workers in Ghana two broad vision statements were identified. At UnivA, UnivB and UnivC, the vision of the stakeholders was to see their universities grow and develop:

Well I would like to see us expanding to the extent that we will be able to admit more students. (UnivB7)

The university should not remain static. It should grow. Not only in size but in expansion of existing structures and objectives such as teaching, studying and research. (UnivA1)

A significant proportion of them across all the cases would also like to see their universities as centres of excellence where information technology is at the core of their activities:

I wish to see this university as a centre of excellence for teaching and research especially with regard to education, that it would be a 'Mecca' for people in Ghana and in West Africa or even those from abroad. This involves introducing computers in our libraries and expanding computer facilities. (UnivC1)

If the university should be seen as a centre for people who are competent intellectually and professionally for the nurturing and teaching of administrative competence in education, then we should be able to inspire in the conduct of research, develop materials, organisations of workshops, seminars to the needs of Ghana. We shall have to make our staff computer literate.(UnivD1)

At UnivD and UnivE the establishment of links with other international universities as a way of learning from them was expressed by quite a number of the interviewees:

My vision is to see more external linkages with other universities for us to know about what goes on there." (UnivE5)

In UnivD in particular a number of the interviewees would like to see their university have an external service for the dissemination of their research findings:

The university should undertake dissemination of its research. I mean dissemination of information. (UnivD2)

In two of the old universities, quite a substantial number of the interviewees saw income generation as a strategic vision issue in order to become self sufficient and to avoid government control:

At the moment this university is struggling. It would like to do more research but it can't. In the next five years I would like to see this university raise funds to get on its feet and achieve more autonomy from government. (UnivA5)

The interviewees who were not university workers expressed their vision statements in line with Ghana government educational policy. They would like to see a full implementation of government educational reforms, particularly the government's wish to spend more on vocational and professional education at lower levels than on university education:

Well in the Ghanaian context I would like to frame my vision on the basis of the educational reforms. Before the educational reforms institutions from the basic level to tertiary levels were more or less patterned on typical Oxbridge type. Now the reforms seek to put more emphasis, focus on technical, vocational and professional education. Now for this reason at the lower levels, now there have been some programmes on technical, professional and vocational education. The emphasis we would like to see shifts from university to the lower levels. (Min11)

They would like the universities to concentrate on courses that are critical and essential to the immediate manpower needs of the country as prescribed by government authorities:

My vision for the university is that it should primarily be geared toward national development and manpower production. The government must identify when it comes to the Ministry of say Manpower should identify areas which are crucial for national development and I think there should always be a worker - management relationship between the Ministry of Education, Ministry Of Employment and Ministry of Science and Technology so that we are able to identify the manpower that the university should be prevailed upon to adjust their programmes to suit the national development requirements but then they should not compromise on scholarship (Min21)

The responses from government officials on the one hand, and the university management on the other, clearly show a conflict in their strategic visions. The evidence shows that while the stakeholders who are university workers have a vision of growth and development as their vision for their universities in the next five years, government executives on the other hand, in pursuit of implementing Ghana government tertiary education reforms would like to see a cut in current university programmes in order to be able to adequately fund non-tertiary programmes.

This finding prompted further investigation into the vision statements from the perspectives of the large population of library staff. Using the main categories that emerged from the interviews with the major university stakeholders, the library staff were asked to agree or disagree with each statement. The analysed result is shown in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7 shows that a majority of the library staff disagreed with the university management on five issues, namely: progress in education, improvement in curriculum, achieving self sufficiency, cutting down on some university programmes to save money and providing of employment opportunities for students. The greatest disagreement was with cutting down on some university programmes to save money: an overwhelming 96.6% of the respondents disagreed. This issue was the dominant one of the government officials who were who were interviewed. It therefore implies that the majority of the library staff in the survey were in disagreement with the strategic vision of the government which is a further indication of a conflict between the visions that the two groups of stakeholders have for the universities.



Vision statement	Agree %	Do not agree %	Total N=89 %
Expanded facilities	95.5.	4.5	100
Promotion of external linkages	69.7	30.3	100
Dissemination of information	50.6	49.4	100
Progress in education	43.8	56.2	100
Achieve self sufficiency	41.6	58.4	100
Improvement in curriculum	40.4	59.6	100
Providing employment opportunities	40.4	59.6	100
Cut down some university courses to save money	3.4	96.6	100

**Table 7.7** Vision statements for universities-Responses by library staff

### ***7.1.2.2 Vision Of Stake Holders For University Libraries***

Three different perspectives of the strategic vision of the interviewees were unveiled. Across the five cases in Ghana, differences between views were minor. The majority of those interviewed would like the libraries to emphasise the excellence and breadth of the their collection and to improve existing services:

You see, I've said this university should be a place of excellence so must the library . The library should have more variety in scope of subjects and improve its present services. (UnivC3)

The vision of most of the university staff who were not librarians was that the libraries should continue in their supportive roles to the academic institutions of which they are part:

I think that basically, the university should take its cue from what the library stands for. The library being the main source of information for people it should be able to provide support that will enable people to get the relevant material. (Univ11)

This group of stakeholders held the view that the university library's traditional role should be expanded to cope with increases in student numbers.

The third perspective was that of the university library staff interviewed. They indicated that their vision for the libraries in the next five years was to see a shift from their traditional role of providing books and other materials to providing access to information:

At present it seems what the library is doing is keeping the books and providing it to the university community. We need somebody who understands. We have to retrieve information in the form of diskettes and photocopy document. We have to have facilities to satisfy request not in our libraries. (UnivB5)

Staff development in information technology was also expressed by some of the library staff as a factor in achieving access to information by the librarians:

I think my vision is we need the right level of personnel and equipment to handle the use of information technology. (UnivB4)

There was also a minority, 'no vision' group who were all the government officials and a handful of university staff who were not library staff:

Vision for the library? I think we will leave that for the librarians."  
(Min11)

Well I don't think I have actually thought of a vision of the university library as such but I do feel that the university library should have facilities that will serve everybody. (UnivA10)

In the study of the UK universities all the subjects of the five cases considered IT issues as highly significant if they were to be able to meet the demands placed on the libraries in the light of recent developments in the organisation of teaching and learning in Higher Education:

My vision is as per our strategic plan. Work more closely with academic staff, more closely with the teaching and learning process and then improve library and computing services facilities. (UK21)

One of the UK librarians, however, wished to strike a balance between access and collection development in the next five years in the midst of economic stringency.

The vision that I have is something like this, as IT continues to gain strength in libraries we will continue the process of accepting IT and using but also continuing to acquire printed materials but we will continue to juggle the two within limited resources.  
(UK32)

In a similar quantitative investigation to that on university strategic vision, the large population of library staff was asked to agree or to disagree to the major categories that emerged from the interviews with the library stakeholders. Table 7.8 is the analysis of the responses of the library staff.



Vision statements	Agree %	Do not agree %	Total N=89 %
Improving services	87.6	12.4	100
Staff development	78.7	21.3	100
Expansion of entire library facilities	76.4	23.6	100
Full technology application	70.8	29.2	100
Ease of use of library	39.3	60.7	100
Strategic management of library	32.6	67.4	100

**Table 7.8** Vision statements for libraries - Responses by library staff

The data in Table 7.8 shows that with the exception of ‘ease of use of library’ and ‘strategic management of library’, an overwhelming majority do share the vision statements expressed by their superiors. There are no serious disagreements between the visions the stakeholders have for the libraries and the large library population view. This result is very good for the university planners as a shared vision with the rest of the library staff will more likely help to promote co-operation in the implementation process. What is a worrying development is the ‘no vision’ group among whom were all the government officials who were interviewed. This has implications for the resource capabilities of the libraries. The analysis of data and findings on resource capabilities of the university libraries are presented in Chapter eight.

# **CHAPTER EIGHT**

## **ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS ON RESOURCE CAPABILITIES OF THE LIBRARIES**

### **8.1 INTRODUCTION**

The implementation of strategies for the vision statements, missions and goals of the universities and their libraries as outlined in Chapter Seven will involve an investment in people (expertise), physical assets and most importantly, financial resources.

The classical approach to strategy formation, therefore, includes an appraisal of organisational competencies and resources (Andrews, 1971). Those which are distinctive or superior relative to those of rivals may become the basis for competitive advantage if they are matched appropriately to environmental opportunities (Andrews, 1971). The classical theorists represent these investments quantitatively in the form of financial figures. This reduction to the common denominator of finance is a critical step, allowing the rigorous comparison of strategic options and the unambiguous resolution of dilemmas. A firm's liquidity, leverage, working capital, profitability, asset utilisation, cash flow, and equity position can eliminate some strategies as feasible alternatives. Financial factors often result in existing strategies being altered and implementation plans being changed.

These ideas form the basic principles upon which the 'resource-based view' in modern strategic management has been developed. The model deals with how resources are applied and combined to give an organisation a competitive advantage. An organisation's competitive advantage therefore is determined primarily by its resource endowments. An organisation's resources are the inputs to a successful business endeavour. Grant (1991) defines capability as the capacity of a set of resources to perform a task or activity. Resources, then, are the source of an organisation's capabilities and capabilities are the main source of competitive advantage. Prahalad and Hamel (1990) define these central strategic capabilities as core competencies of an organisation. They state further that core competencies also involve the organisation of work, delivery of value, communication, involvement and deep commitment to working across organisation boundaries. Grant (1991)

has observed that the relationship between resources and capabilities, while not predetermined, does have an impact on what an organisation can do.

This chapter therefore discusses the results and findings of the assessment of the resource capabilities of the universities and their libraries from the point of view of the major stakeholders and library staff in Ghana and some university library staff in the United Kingdom. The data has been presented under funding and financing, human resources and physical facilities.

## **8.2 FUNDING AND FINANCING**

University librarians have to consider the strategic capability of their library services when planning for the future and of course an essential aspect of the capability of the library service is its financial standing, that is, the financial resources that can be brought to bear on service development.

University libraries, like many not-for-profit organisations, are often influenced by a fragmented external coalition when it comes to funding and financing. This is made up of a variety of individuals and organisations, each with a different axe to grind. In the case of Ghana, resource contributors notably government, World Bank and other donors may intrude into internal management. The result of such interests are conflicting goals that interfere with rational planning.

### ***8.2.1 University Funding And Financing***

Universities in Ghana are financed almost entirely by government subvention. No fees are charged to Ghanaian students for whom housing in university halls is also free. Government allocates 40% of its national budget to the education sector of the economy. Tertiary institutions are allocated between 12% and 18% of this total. The universities are allocated about 90% of the budget for tertiary institutions. This mode of funding universities is to be changed when the government's policy of upgrading polytechnics to universities in Ghana is implemented as one interviewee, a civil servant of the Ministry of Finance, said:

You see the argument is government currently provides 40% of the national budget for education and of course this is shared amongst basic, secondary and tertiary. As at now tertiary takes about between 12% and 18%. The polytechnics are being upgraded so when these institutions come into existence you will see that that 18% or 14% which formerly was spent on the universities will now

be spread over all these so the percentage portion that would go to the universities will even go down (Min11)

Funds for the universities are allocated through the mechanism of budgets presented by the individual universities to the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Education then presents its budget to the Ministry of Finance which in turn provides the funds to the university administration. Budgets for universities are cut at each stage before they are finally released to them. The funds that are finally approved by the Ministry of Finance for universities depend on government revenue generated for the period in question:

Government allocates resources based on the revenue it has been able to generate, from income tax, duties at ports and so forth. In the course of the year the revenue got is not sufficient so there is a cut across board, mind you not only education but all sectors. (Min21)

Government funding cuts are not peculiar to Ghana. Even in a relatively wealthy country like the United Kingdom, governments have attempted to cut public expenditure and because higher education accounts for a significant proportion of this, universities have received reduced government funding over the past years:

The university is not well funded. Government policy over the years has been a reduced government funding of public funded bodies and that includes the universities. We have seen the budgets decline over the years. (UK21)

The Ghanaian national budgeting is also influenced by international agencies involved in Ghana's Structural Adjustment Programme:

The World Bank constantly advises us to spend more money on maintenance and would also like to see reduced expenditure in certain sectors. Education is one. (Min21)

These macroenvironmental influences on national expenditure put the universities at a disadvantage. Planning for future resourcing has been particularly problematical as the universities' Finance Officers usually do not know the exact percentage of their estimates that will be allocated to them. Worse still, approved estimates are also subjected to cuts during the fiscal year when government revenue targets are not met:

The government subvention is definitely not adequate. What they give on paper is not enough and worse still the subvention is cut in mid year. National budgets are based on revenue that government collects. If the government realises that there are shortfalls in revenue it then cuts on what government has already approved for institutions. (UnivD12)

Funds given to the universities are presented under two separate heads. Government treats university staff as a separate budget head from university operational expenses. Staff emoluments are paid for in full and what is left of the overall university allocation barely meets the running costs of the universities:

Government pays salaries perfectly but to give money to run the universities is a problem. (UnivC12)

This manner of funding universities eliminates any resource reallocation potential as the linkage of planning goals to resource allocation decisions by the management of the libraries is non-existent.

The extent of government control of university funds is further shown in its prescription of a Programme Linked Budget with the aim of reducing the running costs of the universities. Most of the Finance Officers appreciate the idea of using rational financial decision support techniques but fail to work with the Programme Linked Budget because the scheme is not backed by the requisite funding:

If you fund the university according to the PLB then it is okay. But if money is not enough then the programmes become meaningless. We rather use survival tactics (UnivC12)

This however was not the view of all the Finance Officers. Though the Programme Linked Budget presents difficulties it has been seen in one of the universities as a tool to improve university financial management:

I don't see any problem with PLB. The way Ghanaian financial management has gone on for a long time. The norm is to improve a bad situation. Changes are difficult that is why so many people are not comfortable with it... (UnivB13)

Another feature of the funding of universities in Ghana that affects rational planning is the quarterly or sometimes the monthly payment of subvention to the universities:

I think that in my opinion you can only do this strategic plan when you know that you have funds available. We don't have the money. We don't even know how much, whether even the money that we have budgeted for we are going to be given everything so in this case it becomes very difficult to sit down and plan. You don't know whether the subvention is coming in three months or even one month. (UnivA3)

In the kind of financial climate that has been described so far, it is difficult to see how the universities can implement the kind of rational resource planning that the various models of financial management prescribe. Annual budgeting rather than strategic plans has formed

the basis of financial planning. The Programme Linked Budget, the only financial model prescribed by government, is hardly used by Ghanaian universities' Finance Officers. The general perception of the interviewees across all the case study institutions in Ghana is that the attainment of the vision they have for the university libraries is very difficult because the universities are not adequately funded and the financial standing of the universities does not match their corporate objectives:

The government subvention has been irregular and inadequate to support the programmes the university is running. (UnivD4)

I don't have figures of government funds to the university about the actual amounts that is given to this university. All I know is that they are late in coming and its very hard for the university to plan ahead even for a year because the subventions now are quarterly, hopefully, even sometimes we are even reduced to monthly subventions so that there can be very little planning ahead at any given time. The subvention when it finally comes cannot even meet our set objectives for any period. (UnivA9)

These views of the stakeholders, that government funding of universities in Ghana has been inadequate, were borne out by the responses to the questionnaire. The large population of library staff from all the case study institutions were asked to comment on the government's funding of university education. Ninety-eight library staff responded and 61.2% reported that the funding was inadequate. Over thirty percent (30.6%) said it was extremely inadequate. Over four percent (4.1%) were uncertain about the question while 1.0% and 3.1% of the respondents reported that the subvention was very adequate and adequate respectively.

### ***8.2.2 Disbursement Of University Funds By University Administrators***

The Ghana government requires universities to disburse university funds according to its prescribed norms. Forty-five percent of the budget is allocated for direct academic services general education expenditure is 15%, library 10%, central administration 6%, staff/student facilities 5%, manciple services 15%, with 4% for miscellaneous. The overall opinion of the respondents is that these norms are not used to disburse the university funds.

In UnivE and UnivD the majority of the interviewees believed that there were no specific criteria for the disbursement of government funds within the universities but that the whole process of allocation of university funds is characterised by political manoeuvring by individual heads of departments:

Honestly, here, I don't think we have any criteria. Even though each department has a budget you see because the government doesn't release all the money we ask for. The money comes in piecemeal so each head of department should be able to convince the VC that he wants so much. So here I don't think there is any criteria that is used to share the money. (UnivE9)

I would say they do not use any criteria but actually they give us headings. We have various headings and you will write how much you want for this or that and so on. It goes to finance section. They usually will put it down. Then it goes to the finance committee where the dean will have to use his influence to get what is due him. (UnivD10)

At UnivC, there were mixed responses. About a third did not have any knowledge of how the funds were distributed:

Well I don't know what criteria they use. I think they use some norms. Ask the registrar when you meet him. (UnivC11)

Others still believed the university funds were distributed according to the Ghana government norms:

Formerly we were using the line budget i.e. the normal budgeting the Ministry of Finance was using and then for about four years we have started using what we term programme linked budget. We use government norms. In other words all units and departments bring their needs for the yearly review and all costs, it is more of a down to top form of budgeting. (UnivC6)

In UnivA and UnivB the interviewees appeared to hold different views of how university funds are distributed in their universities. Responses indicated various methods, such as:

- the number of lecturers
- according to Ministry norms
- student size
- the influence of heads and deans
- the size of departments
- the number of programmes run by departments.

These responses by the stakeholders suggest that there are no clear criteria for distributing funds within universities in Ghana. The Finance Officers frequently find that the demand for money is greater than the total resources made available:

Government approved figures is not what we really get. We tamper with government norms. The actuals we get do not reflect on what the needs of the departments are. Government approved figures are always cut down and all the departments have to be satisfied one way or the other. (UnivC12)

The reality is that the final decisions on the distribution of university fund rest with a few power brokers in the university hierarchy with the Finance Officers having the final authority. Their decisions are very often influenced by other powerful heads of departments. Sometimes the size of a department becomes a determining factor:

I don't know whether there are any criteria. A lot of it is subjective and depends on the individual heads of department. If you were forceful then you got considerable amount. There is not enough to share among the departments so it is a kind of free for all or the survival of the fittest so if you were a forceful head and you would go and bully your way around then you got something. I must tell you there is no scientific criteria for disbursement, sometimes they talk about size. (UnivA2)

The disbursement of funds in Ghanaian universities is in sharp contrast to what prevails amongst the universities studied in the United Kingdom. The general trend among the institutions in the UK is that university funds are allocated based on the successful bidding by all the departments irrespective of any political considerations. Proposals of the required resources are submitted to a central university funding committee with the costing and justifications for services outlined in the proposals for which funding is being sought:

Our main source of funding is the grant the university gets. We bid for that. The university has an annual planning and resourcing cycle so every year the university library like any other department will bid to that planning cycle. We justify our requests and lots of other things. (UK11)

### ***8.2.3 Income Generation In Universities In Ghana***

There was overwhelming support among interviewees for the view that universities in Ghana should seek new sources of funding. This was evident in the responses to the question on how the tasks involved in their visions were going to be accomplished in the long term. The impetus for income generation comes from the insufficiency of resources:

My vision and the other things I have talked about are in the strategic plan and in the plan we are thinking not only of government support which is not enough but also support from other sources. (UnivA8)

Most of the interviewees believed that the universities did not have the means to generate their own income on a large scale. They believed that government had to provide investment capital before any meaningful income generating activities could take off:



You see this is the question. You see past governments have been asking the university to turn its agricultural farms into commercial farms and what not. But you cannot generate income without initial funds. As the Akans say , 'you use fish to catch fish'. If you don't have the money how do you generate income? So before any meaningful income can be generated you need a working capital. (UnivA14)

At UnivC the university's income generating activities were sometimes undermined by financial malpractices on the part of administrators and the lack of accountability had also affected its effectiveness as an alternate source of funding for the university:

I have been associated with the library and bookshop in the university. So I can say a little something so far as income generation is concerned. The bookshop for example we have been told has been losing money every year believe me or not. I was the chairman of the bookshop board for two years. I never saw any accounts. The accounts had only been in the knowledge of only the powers that be so we go and make recommendation on how to stop pilfering and so on but the engine room is closed to us. So fund raising cannot solve our financial problems. (UnivC5)

In all five universities the interviewees were also of the opinion that income generation in the past had been characterised by self- interest and that there was conflict between the personal goals of staff directly involved in income generation and the object of income generation:

Those generating income find it difficult to abide by the rules of income generation. Those generating income think they should be given a lump sum of the income themselves but not the university. The university has to benefit from it but the workers want the money for themselves. (UnivC12)

Another dimension to the concept of income generation by the universities in Ghana was its surprise rejection by government executives interviewed. They expressed the fear that a deliberate campaign or commercial acts by the universities to generate their own income would be done at the expense of scholarship.

I personally I'm not in favour of university engaged in commerce and other activities to raise funds because if you are not careful then all your attention is going to focus on generating income at the expense of scholarship (Min11).

#### **8.2.4 Library Funding And Financing**

A dominant concern of librarians in Ghana is the economics of improving on existing services. At the same time the libraries' management have a vision of a full technology application of their libraries. Over seventy percent (70.8%) of the respondents in the survey of library staff also have the same vision for their libraries.

Library automation and telecommunications equipment represent not just a one off capital expenditure but an on-going commitment to maintenance and replacement. Wiring the campus, installing mainframe computers and 'legions' of micro-computers and dealing with external communications involve huge sums of money.

Special problems arise with respect to capital needs as library building projects in some Ghanaian universities remain uncompleted. Money is also needed to replace ageing and obsolescent library equipment. Bookstock has to be kept at a steady level so as to improve the image of the libraries from their present status of being looked upon by faculty as storing archaic and unused materials.

To accomplish all the aforementioned, university libraries in Ghana must have a lavish allocation of funding. Unfortunately, this has not been the case as the past two decades have seen a steady erosion in the basis of financial support for university libraries:

We need plenty of money to carry out a lot of things but for 20 years now our libraries have not been funded as we would have liked. Funding has declined steadily over the years. (UnivB1)

In fact the trend has now reached crisis proportions as university library budgets throughout the country have been decimated for a number of reasons. The years from 1957 to 1966 have always been referred to as 'the good old days.' During this period library development and education in general enjoyed the best moments of funding, with the universities enjoying greater autonomy and control over their own funds:

Immediately after independence, Nkrumah did very much particularly with public libraries, libraries generally and education in particular. So many reforms took place and University of Ghana which was already in existence had no money problems. We were solvent. That era was very good for all libraries, the good old days. Now things started getting difficult and mid sixties... (UnivA2)

The period after 1966 saw some decline in university library funding though libraries had enough to keep up with their bookstock and to develop their services further. The results of

such good financial standing of the libraries was a book stock growth rate of 10,000 volumes per annum in one of the libraries. After 1972, after a succession of violent changes of government, university library funding began to decline though university libraries were somehow able to do some overseas ordering:

Fifteen years ago we were still doing our own ordering from abroad though not as before. (UnivA2)

During the period from 1979 to 1988, Ghana underwent turbulent changes in governance, nationally and in higher education. University management participation in financial decision making was eliminated. These changes affected the funding of universities and their libraries drastically:

When I joined the university there was a very good system of funding. The university had a very good system of funding. The country had the Higher National Council for Higher Education which was looking after the universities and the research organisations. University budgets were submitted to the National Council for Higher Education, the membership included the VCs of the universities. Budgets were not looked at from government's perspectives but from the point of view of what was adequate and best for the universities and will make them achieve their objectives. In 1979 things began to go down. Things became really difficult... The National Council for Higher Education was abolished. It became part of the Ministry of Education and the Deputy Minister was looking after it. The budget now is under the control of the Minister. The funding mechanism has been affected rather badly. You go to budget meeting they agree on a figure with you you come back to the university then they go to the Ministry of Finance and agree on a different figure. So now the universities are not represented at the funding meeting as against when the National Council for Higher Education was in operation... So the government is bringing upon the institutions the problems facing higher education and the present changes to low funding. (UnivA14)

The effect of reduced university funding of libraries has been a drastic reduction in the additions to stock in all the university libraries:

Ten years ago it was 1986. Those were bad years. Twenty years ago was okay the beginning of the eighties were very bad. We didn't order any books. Additions have since then fallen. (UnivA2)

Since 1992, there has been some improvement in library acquisitions, However the government has tightened its control over universities after introducing educational reform backed by loans from the World Bank. Library acquisitions from these loans are done by

government officials (who in most cases are not related to the library profession) without any direct or indirect participation of the university library staff.

We have not been satisfied with the way the World Bank loan has been managed. Some books have been coming in. The Ministry of Education has been asked to do the work that librarians should do, ordering books. I mean it is neither here nor there and therefore we lost a lot through that kind of thing, wrong books, wrong equipment, sending our books to Cape Coast or Kumasi or vice versa. (UnivA2)

In addition to causing difficulties in the long term planning of the libraries, this mode of acquisition of library materials is not usually directed towards the implementation of corporate strategies. The result of this is the acquisition of irrelevant library books and equipment that have been found not to match library strategy.

#### 8.2.4.1 Current Perceptions

The questionnaire survey asked the library staff to consider their level of budget in real terms now compared with the funding position in the years before the reign of the present government, i.e. 20 years ago. The pattern of responses for the different periods from the perspectives of the three groups of library staff for the combined cases is presented in Table 8.1

Staff Category	Budget (in real terms) today higher than 20 years ago		Budget (in real terms) today about the same		Budget (in real terms) today less than 20 years ago		Do not know		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Professionals	2	2.23	2	2.23	7	7.87	17	19.10	28	31.46
Para-professionals	2	2.23	0	0	8	8.89	10	11.24	20	22.47
Non-professionals	9	10.11	7	7.87	10	11.25	15	16.85	41	46.07
Total	14	15.73	9	10.11	25	28.09	42	47.19	89	100

**Table 8.1** Responses for library budget levels over 20 years

Nearly half the total number of respondents, 42 out of 89 (47.19%), reported that they did not know the level of budget in real terms now compared with the funding position of their libraries some 20 years ago. Twenty-five (28.09%) said the budget today was less than 20 years ago; 14 (15.73%) said it was higher today than 20 years ago: and 9 (10.11%) reported it at about the same.

This result suggests that the majority of the respondents do not have any knowledge of their libraries' budgets. This appears to be simplistic as the tendency to think that most of the subjects might not have been employed some 20 years ago is likely and if by some coincidence or by duty have not come across the financial records of the library, then they would not know the funding position in those days. A cross tabulation of the 'Don't know' responses by the number of years of service produced the result in Table 8.2

Number of years of service	Frequency
1-10	26
11-20	8
21-30	6
31-40	2
Total	42

**Table 8.2** Responses of Don't Know of funding positions of libraries now as compared to 20 years ago by the number of years of service of employees.

The data in Table 8.2 shows that only 8 out of 42 respondents had served in the library for more than 20 years. This number is made up of mostly professional librarians in library management positions who with their experience must be knowledgeable about their library's funding position. This is not surprising since there is further evidence to show that even members of the strategic planning committees of the university libraries had no knowledge whatsoever of how the funds for their libraries were distributed.

However, when the subjects were asked to comment generally on the present state of funding of their libraries, 98 library staff responded, of whom 28.6% described the funding of their university libraries as highly unstable, 61.2% described it as unstable and only 9.2% described it as stable.

As noted earlier, interdepartmental politics in the universities affect the allocation of funds to the various departments. Because many of the departments are competing fiercely for the limited university funds, government- approved budgets for libraries are ignored by the various Finance Officers, and the librarians appear to be powerless to obtain what is due them.

The library is supposed to take 10% but unfortunately if we give 10% the many others who are also fighting very hard for a slice of the cake cannot work. What we give to the library is in the region of 2% of the budget. I know the library is not aware even if they are there is nothing they can do about it. (UnivC12)

This appeared throughout the five cases to be the reason for the rather poor allocation of funds to the libraries by all the Finance Officers though other stakeholders who were not Finance Officers believed the problem lay within the Ghanaian macroenvironment:

The disbursement of funds in the university is characterised by many factors. You see the university does not know how much it is going to get and many times it is inadequate... (UnivA1)

In the light of these responses from the stakeholders the library staff were asked about their views on why their libraries had a poor allocation of funds within their own institutions. Table 8.3 shows the ‘yes’ responses for a particular category for the combined cases.

Factor	Response	
	no.	%
Funds from government inadequate	68	74.4
Faculty has low regard for libraries	49	55.1
Library management not influential	20	22.5
Library not represented on Finance Committee	17	19.1
Bad leadership	6	6.7

**Table 8.3** Responses on factors that account for poor allocation of funds to university libraries in Ghana.

Table 8.3 shows that 74.4% of the respondents felt that the current poor allocation of funds by university authorities to the libraries in Ghana was due to the fact that the entire funding of university education was not enough. It can be stated that the present poor allocation of funds was not a result of bad leadership in the libraries, according to the responses in Table 8.3. About 55% of the respondents also attributed this to faculty’s low perception of libraries. Responses for the factors that account for the poor allocation of funds to the libraries by establishment is shown in Table 8.4.



Factor	UnivA		UnivB		UnivC		UnivD		UnivE	
	N=35		N=22		N=14		N=11		N=7	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Funds from government inadequate	27	77.14	19	86.36	11	78.57	5	45.45	6	85.71
Faculty has low regard for libraries	21	60.00	14	63.00	5	35.71	4	36.36	5	71.43
Library not represented on Finance Committee	6	17.14		31.82	1	7.14	2	18.18	1	14.29
Library management not influential	6	17.14	9	40.91	5	35.71	0	0.00	0	0.00
Bad leadership	2	5.71	1	4.55	1	7.14	0	0.00	2	28.57

**Table 8.4** Responses on factors that account for the poor allocation of library funds by establishment (library).

The results for the individual cases do not differ markedly from the combined cases, as displayed in Table 8.3. Table 8.4, however, shows that the majority of the respondents at UnivC and UnivD did not report that the poor allocation of funds to the libraries by the universities' authorities was because of faculty's low regard for libraries though the majority of the respondents in UnivA, UnivB and UnivE strongly believed so. Table 8.4 also shows that despite the fact that 74.4% of the total number of respondents felt that the funding from government was inadequate and therefore affected the library's allocation, the majority of the respondents in UnivD did not believe so. For the rest of the factors; library not represented on financial committee, library management not influential and bad leadership, the results were replicated throughout the five cases. In a similar manner to Table 8.3, the majority of the respondents felt that these three factors did not account for the poor internal allocation of funds to university libraries in Ghana. What appears to be conclusive is that a substantial proportion of the library staff interviewed in all the five cases believed that the present poor allocation of funds to the libraries by the university authorities was because the government subvention to the universities was inadequate. The majority of the respondents from UnivA, UnivB and UnivE further believed that another important

aspect of the poor allocation of funds to libraries by their own authorities is the low regard some faculty members have for their university libraries.

Answers to interview questions about the status of librarians and the position of university librarians in the university hierarchy threw some light on how faculty regarded the library staff and their profession. Across the five cases there were no significant differences between responses. However, across the stakeholder category of library staff, university staff but not library staff and government executives, differences were quite significant.

The librarians amongst the stakeholders were equally divided on the subject when asked if the university librarian should be next to a Pro-Vice Chancellor in the university hierarchy. One group of librarians believed that a University Librarian should be next to a Pro-Vice Chancellor by virtue of the relative importance of a university library in higher education:

I strongly agree that a University Librarian should be next in rank to a Pro-VC. You see, the fact is that university library comes next to the classroom. You go to the classroom for instructions. The actual work is done in the library and the laboratory. Librarians should act for the Pro-VC even the VC. (UnivD2)

I strongly agree because without the library the university cannot function and there is evidence to prove that if the library is not there the university will not be able to function properly. (UnivA1)

Another group disagreed, doubting the competence of their own University Librarians:

I disagree that the University Librarian should be next in line to a Pro-VC. Given what I see around me here I will say no he should not be. (UnivC4)

Out of the 44 stakeholders who were not librarians, only 2 (4.65%) agreed that a University Librarian should be next in rank to a Pro-VC, 11 (25%) of them were uncertain and the remainder, 31(70.45%) strongly disagreed that a University Librarian should be next in rank to a Pro-VC. Some of the qualifying comments were:

Most of them do not have the requisite qualifications. If they are qualified then they can act I do not agree. (UnivB5)

You mean the librarian of the university? That one man? I don't agree. UnivC5)

I disagree because Pro-VC is an administrative post. A librarian is not an administrator, he is a professional in his own field. He cannot act for him because there are so many issues the librarian cannot handle. (UnivD5)

In our hierarchy after the VC then the Pro-VC, the Registrar, then you have the deans and so far as our university is concerned the



librarian is equivalent to the dean. I think one of the deans will act after the Pro-VC but not the librarian. (UnivA11)

It can be inferred from these comments that the respondents who disagreed that a University Librarian should be next in rank to a Pro-VC believed a University Librarian needed very high academic qualifications to fit well into the top echelon of the university staff structure. However, the current crop of University Librarians were perceived not have these 'outstanding' academic qualifications to run the universities and that they had been trained only for administering their libraries. Though this is not entirely right, an examination of documents on university staff qualifications revealed that while all deans had a Master's degree or/and above, with the exception of one University Librarian at UnivA, all the University Librarians in Ghana had a first degree and a post graduate diploma in library studies.

Responses for the same question were different from the United Kingdom university librarians interviewed. The majority of the respondents believed that the University Librarian must be a member of the governing body of the university and therefore agreed that he or she could be next in rank to a Pro-VC:

Yes I believe the University Librarian must be regarded as a senior member of the university hierarchy. He should be regarded as an academic head of department or dean and a very high member of the governing body. (UK11)

Yes that is how it is done here. There is the VC, Deputy VC, 1, 2, 3 Pro-VCs one of whom looks after all the students services and that includes the library and computing services. That makes us the same level as a university dean. We have 9 academic schools, each is headed by a Dean who is of the same level as a University Librarian. (UK42)

One librarian in the UK, however disagreed with the practice. While accepting that most universities in the UK considered the University Librarians as part of the top university management, he regarded the whole concept as a status symbol. He believed emphasis should be on the link between the University Librarian and the various academic units that will help the library to achieve its objectives:

This is the practice in certain universities but I do not think that these things are important. It is good to be called a Pro-VC or a VC but I must admit to you that I do think it is important to say that the librarian be a member of the academic board or the senate because it helps you to do your job properly so that you can interrelate with the Deans and Heads of departments because the courses of study and the research cannot prosper unless the linkage between those

programmes and the library is present therefore the librarian needs to be in that form. If your colleagues in Ghana want to be Pro-VCs they have got to use compelling arguments. (UK32)

#### **8.2.4.1 Disbursement Of Funds In The Libraries**

A library's strategic planning process requires the allocation of resources among the different library programmes in order for it to attain its goals and objectives. According to Riggs (1987) a library's strategic profile therefore must be directly associated with all resource allocation. Achieving the right balance in fund allocation is significant for library strategy.

In four of the case libraries in Ghana, it appears there was no clear fund allocation policy because the amount of money meant for the library operations was too small for any meaningful planning. Funds made available to the libraries are, therefore, used to satisfy immediate and pressing needs. There is an emphasis on short-term financial planning:

Well it comes to us quarterly sometimes monthly subvention, this, it doesn't include salaries. It's just for maintenance, its about six million cedis about five thousand and a bit more dollars per quarter and so you can imagine, its just for maintaining. It doesn't go into buying any capital equipment for planning. In fact even if any planning is done at all it is just for the moment, what we need. (UnivA2)

You know that the funds that are given are so small that you can't do anything with it, so if it is the beginning of the year I make sure we have to pay for our debts and buy some stationery and other office materials. That is all that the money is enough for. T and T (transportation costs) and all those small things. We don't have enough to allocate to specific tasks. (UnivD1)

At UnivC, however, the University Librarian tries to disburse the library fund in accordance with a budget drawn up annually:

I disburse according to various headings. For consumables, some for travel and transport, some for library equipment and books. We do our budget then estimate those headings say for consumables how much stationery we need for the coming year, so as you buy it is deducted from the amount allocated to you. (UnivC1)

Another significant finding which ran across all the five cases was that several of the subjects who were members of the strategic planning committees and library boards appeared to have very vague knowledge about the disbursement of funds in their own libraries:

I was a member of the strategic planning committee alright but I don't know the criterion used to disburse library funds. (UnivC4)

I think anything that comes along like may be they realised that they have to buy some books from the bookshop then they go and buy or some spare parts for computers or something like that. I'm not sure may be the University Librarian will be in a better position to talk to you exactly what happens. (UnivA4)

Reduction in funding for libraries has been found not to be unique to the Ghanaian universities. The university libraries studied in the United Kingdom were found to be having similar problems:

For sometime now the money allocated to this institution has been going down. It is going down per student. (UK31)

The university authorities in the UK, unlike their counterparts, in Ghana, treat the funding of their libraries reasonably well. Each library was found to receive about 3-5% of the university's budget:

Our university is not a well funded institution but with the funding that it has it treats the library generously. We get about 4.5% of the university budget. (UK42)

My university is not properly funded but within its funding I think it has a reasonable sense of priority so I'm not complaining. (UK22)

The problem of funding in the UK libraries is further compounded by the fact that journal prices have soared in the last few years and their library budgets have not kept pace. The librarians interviewed have, therefore, been trying to have virement between staff, acquisition and equipment:

Over the last 10 years all university libraries in the UK have had problems of inflation of prices, academic journals, book inflation has also been a problem but not on the magnitude of the journals. What we do is to make our procedures more efficient. We can't afford librarians at every point. We employ part time staff or even one eighth staff. By so doing we move things around save money that way. We use the money to buy journals and so on. We move things around a bit to get other things done. We are doing more with limited resources than previously. (UK51)

There is redeployment of resources from one library activity to the other in order to promote innovation and vitality:

We move resources about because we want to implement our new ideas and inject more life into our services. (UK42)

Service costing was also found to be essential for effective allocation of resources among the librarians interviewed in the UK:

We do eliminate some services that are not cost effective. We cost our services and if we see that an item is not up to it we either transfer or eliminate completely, we do move things about as I have already told you. (UK51)

In almost all the UK libraries studied, the librarians appeared to have flexible resource allocation whereby they are free to diversify some of their operations in order to be able to make specific resource allocation decisions. There was no overprotection of the funds by the university authorities as was the case with their Ghanaian counterparts. There is, however, an effective accountability by all those responsible for the allocation of resources:

I operate as a library manager. I change things when I have to, then allocate resources accordingly. We have a little flexibility to shift things while keeping to our institution's strict accounting guidelines and regulations. (UK22)

The librarians in the UK studied have also tried to cope with university/library funding by adopting forward financial planning. This has meant an increase in cost consciousness and forward planning. They have been able to predict future developments in the UK Higher Education environment and their impact on their libraries, with the aid of government funded research bodies:

We have tried to get on by planning in the long term. Of course, the Follett report and other similar government funded projects have helped us to make headway. We cost some services as I explained earlier and looking at our resources and other developments in Higher Education and in this institution we make projections as to what their effect will be. I mean effect of budget on our operations and so forth... (UK51)

#### ***8.2.4.2 Income Generation In Libraries***

The financial strategies adopted by the university librarians in the UK have also been matched by a search for new sources of income and large scale income generation:

In addition to these methods that I have described which seem to be helping us to utilise the library funds in an effective way we have other forms of income, quite substantial that the library has earned. (UK31)

In fact the libraries studied in the UK appeared to be under some pressure from their parent institutions to generate some income:

We take earning income quite seriously because apart from the need it is now political in this institution. It makes us good boys.  
(UK31)

The overall goals of the libraries in the UK include an entrepreneurial objective. Income generated by the libraries is quite substantial and is mainly used to supplement the income for the acquisition of materials;

We generate all sorts of income, photocopying, fines, selling acetate paper to users but the most important thing is net profit. After paying for paper for photocopies, pay technicians at the end of the year the actual liquid money we get I can put into buying books and journals as a fraction of our total I guess it is about 5%. It is a guess. It is quite substantial and we are dependent on it now to support our acquisitions. (UK32)

In UK22, income generation was also viewed as an important aspect of the library's enterprise. Income targets are set by the library management and certain services are managed like a business venture to help realise the target figures:

We are set an income target by the university every year and that is built in my budget. Nearly all that money comes from photocopying, fines and the likes. Some of our activities are therefore conducted in such manner to help us meet this objective.  
(UK22)

Income generation is not new in Ghanaian university libraries. In contrast to their UK counterparts, however, it is not done with a profit making motive:

You see in this country we want free things. The photocopying has been bringing in some money but then I suppose even in those universities like Sheffield the photocopying charge is not subsidised so you can make profit. Here it is subsidised and we don't charge like outside. (UnivA2)

In UnivC, where the librarian claimed some profit had been made in the past this has not gone into solving the book and journal acquisition problem but has either gone into repairing the photocopying machines or to support the maintenance of other service equipment:

The photocopying services started in 1988 and since then we have been able to buy another photocopier and have also maintained the existing ones up to date. We are trying to make some profit with the e-mail subscription though I must say we have not made enough to divert into other library development such as book

funds. In fact we have depended on profits from photocopies to support our e-mail facility. (UnivC1)

The pattern of responses on library income generation in all the cases in Ghana indicates that presently the libraries have not come under any form of pressure from their parent organisations to raise funds and have not, therefore, adopted an entrepreneurial attitude to doing library business:

Apart from the photocopies which we sometimes do at a loss we do not have any deliberate campaigns for raising funds. You see the university seeks funds for all of us and doesn't urge us to do so. The VC is the biggest beggar..." (UnivA2)

I would say we do not have any fund raising activities. No. It has never come up as an objective. I wouldn't say collection of fines is raising funds. These fines were fixed some 20 years ago. The amount is insignificant. (UnivC4)

Despite the present attitude towards fund raising in university libraries in Ghana, there was a general consensus among the interviewees across all the cases that fund raising activities must be deliberate and incorporated into the overall library planning. The questionnaire survey found out from the library staff whether their libraries should become entrepreneurial by raising funds to supplement Ghana government efforts. Ninety two (93.9%) out of the 98 respondents replied in the affirmative. The general opinion of the minority (6.1%) who were not in favour was that income generation should be the responsibility of the university administration but not the library:

I think fund- raising should be done by the university and the library should benefit from it but should not be the responsibility of the library. (UnivA)

The library staff were also asked to indicate which income generating activities they would like their libraries to engage in. The percentage responses are shown in Table 8.5.

Activity	Response (N=98)	
	no.	%
Foreign donor assistance	78	79.6
Assistance from alumni	64	64.3
Charge fees for some services	62	63.3
Appeals to general public	39	39.8
External library commercial ventures	22	22.4

**Table 8.5** Library income generation -Responses by library staff

Table 8.5 shows that the income generating activity that the majority of staff preferred was receiving foreign assistance. The activity that was least supported was the libraries engaging in external commercial ventures. This result does not appear to be favourable to the libraries as resistance to the management's choice of income generating activity may occur. Past experiences of some of the University Librarians (Kissiedu, 1994) indicate that the reliance on foreign donors has not yielded any significant dividends for the libraries. Some of the gifts received in the past have been found to be irrelevant to academic library development.

With regard to the Ghanaian environment, external income- generation by the libraries through commercial ventures, which has been done successfully in some Nigerian universities might generate higher levels of income but this did not get the approval of the majority. Only 22.4% of the library staff were in favour. Charging fees for some services does not appear to be the way forward either, though 63.3% of the respondents indicated so. Ghanaian students who have been used to free education since the inception of the universities have resisted any form of payment of fees on their campuses. Military governments who tried in the past to introduce some form of fees were not successful as they were met with very fierce riots and demonstrations resulting in severe casualties on the part of students, the police and the army alike.

### **8.3 HUMAN RESOURCES**

Another crucial element for a successful strategy is the quality of the people upon whom the future development of the organisation depends. Human resource management is therefore an activity that the classicists such as Porter (1980) see very essential in the strategy implementation process and is often called the action phase of the strategic management process (David, 1986). The implementation of new strategies and policies often calls for new human resource management priorities and a different utilisation of personnel.

#### ***8.3.1 Required Skills For The Strategic Vision Of The Interviewees***

The tasks required to realise the vision of the stakeholders of the Ghanaian universities require significantly new skills. When the interviewees were asked if the tasks involved in their vision for the universities would require new skills, 64.9% perceived the need to have new skills to deal with any new strategies in the universities and their libraries. Only 3.5% of them did not see the need for new skills while 31.6% non responses were obtained.

To achieve the academic excellence the stakeholders aspire for, information technology was seen as very important. This, they believed, would require expertise in computer and information science:

Yes the tasks involved will require new skills if people have access to the use of computers. They will have to learn how to use them. People will have to teach them so we will need new skills. (UnivA10)

Yes, the task will require new skills, even here the e-mail and other computer systems we have to have trained people. People have to understand the use of equipment, people will have to understand the PC, so we need new skills. (UnivE3)

There were mixed responses when the interviewees were requested to state if their institutions had the skills to implement an IT strategy. Over 29% (29.8%) of the respondents believed their universities had the skills. Over 31% percent (31.6%) non-responses were obtained 36.8% stated that their institutions lacked the required skills to implement an IT strategy which they believed was crucial to library service development:

The library will have to use computers in all respects to improve services. When you go to a library overseas and you are almost independent, for instance if there is a particular manual or book you want to read you go to the library and is not available in that particular library but you go to the computer it will show you where the book is. This is how to achieve excellence in services. Computer in the library. You see the



trouble is the personnel, the computers etc., are not there.  
(UnivC7)

The study of the UK libraries revealed that expertise in information technology was part of their strategic resource management. In all five cases the libraries have put in place the required skills in information technology. The emphasis on access has called for staff changes. The roles of some of the staff have been altered, with some professional librarians playing a greater role in learner support and academic liaison while other staff provided the technical support and enquiry services:

We have altered our staff structure a great deal. We have in place our technical staff for information technology. There is emphasis on learner support that has changed our existing structure. The idea is to support the emphasis on learning in universities. So there is the link between teaching, learning and the way we provide our services. (UK52)

### ***8.3.2 Staff Training And Development***

In service training and staff development in a more technologically developed country was perceived by the majority of the Ghanaian library management in four of the universities as the way to solving the human resource limitation the university libraries may face as they try to implement their strategies:

We shall have to train people in our own universities and send some abroad for training in computers too. (UnivD3)

To get the staff for the tasks involved we may have to do in-service training and just in the case of our printing press some one was sent outside to learn to operate the machines. (UnivB5)

However, in UnivC there was a wide range of views expressed. The dominant one was that it was time that Ghanaian universities developed their own indigenous technologies to solve their own peculiar problems instead of relying on modern technology which always came with a price:

The technology coming from outside is difficult to sustain. You bring the thing, use it and a few years it will not be there and you can't use it again because some parts may be missing. There is no foreign exchange to order them so if we cannot sustain some of these technologies we wouldn't bother with them we have to develop our own technology. There are so many ways of imparting skills of learning. (UnivC10)

The means of training computer staff internally at the different sites were perceived by many to have their problems. University libraries in Ghana depend largely on the educational programmes of Ghana's only Department of Library Studies for the education of their professional and para-professional staff. These programmes serve a much broader set of constituencies and the quality of the programmes are also affected by the lack of facilities and computer equipment:

Local training facilities in the area of automation and modern technology are limited. The Department of Library and Archival Studies, the only library school in the country is still not well equipped to handle the problem. It teaches a rather broader aspect of librarianship. (UnivA2)

Overseas training appeared to be the most attractive option but prohibitive costs make funding from local resources out of the question, while donor funding has become much more difficult for employers to come by:

The best option left is sending our employees abroad but the costs involved are too much for our meagre resources. In fact it is just not there and funds and international aid have not been forthcoming. (UnivA2)

The present situation as far as staff development is concerned in order for the university libraries in Ghana to implement their strategies from the perspective of librarians and non-librarians is that there is no planning for staff training in the direction of their vision and there is also no quantified funding available to the libraries to develop their staff. They admit that presently there is among all the libraries a relatively underinvestment in computer- training and education to help implement their strategies.

In the UK investigation however, staff development in line with the strategic vision of the interviewees was found to be much better than their counterparts in Ghana. The strategic vision of most of the librarians interviewed is backed by concrete investments in human and physical resources:

For our new resource centre we are developing a small team of people who are a bit like library assistants that sort of level who are not grounded in librarianship but in information technology so our first line of support is being developed alongside our project. They are not high grade staff. They are actually doing things like NVQs and we are getting them ready for the big take off. (UK22)

We are receiving a substantial contribution from the Funding Council just as Sheffield Hallam did in relation to the Follett report. The Follett report has recommended special grants for

buildings and development of library infrastructure separate from our yearly funding and we bid for that and we were able to get one third of the entire cost of the building. So that is how the funding is being done. (UK22)

In one of the libraries in the UK another means of improving the skills of library personnel in tune with new strategies was a cost sharing scheme between employer and employee:

Well we are aware of the resource implications of the training we have to give our personnel. If you train them they acquire new skills first for themselves and then for our institution so if they should go for training or formal education the cost probably is shared maybe fifty fifty combination. (UK11)

### **8.3.3 Present Staffing Patterns And Competencies**

With the present problems inherent in staff development in Ghanaian university libraries, there is an urgent need to utilise the existing staff resources judiciously. Some in-service training in PC skills has been given to professional librarians and to a lesser extent some para-professionals in only one of the university libraries (UnivA).

It is, however, the practice in all the libraries to give all staff a basic level of training before starting work. This training has been in the traditional library practices. It has been found that this induction training for new staff members has enabled staff in the past to adapt to the libraries and the services they provide. During the induction service the main functions of the libraries are demonstrated to enable staff to provide a basic level of service: how to shelf books and how to accomplish assigned duties, for example.

In UnivA, UnivC and UnivD job rotation has been used successfully to encourage staff to learn the libraries' operations and to prevent them from getting bored and dissatisfied.

Large numbers of library staff of all roles were found without up-to-date job descriptions across all the five libraries. The reason for this, from the perspective of the professional librarians, was that they had adequate knowledge of what was expected of them as they had been introduced to their jobs when they first joined the profession:

Job description? Well when I was employed I was introduced to the job. I can still remember and I do all that my job entails. (UnivC4)

The majority of the staff in the Ghanaian libraries were also found to work according to fixed times without any flexibility of working arrangements and appeared to have jobs for life without any contractual length of service. Contractual flexibility does not exist among

the workers to ensure full professional service outside the normal working periods. Library opening hours remain the same despite new demands as a result of student increases.

In the UK libraries studied, flexibility of contractual positions exists to ensure effective working. The use of subject librarians outside the normal working hours has proved effective as they are able to work with relevant academic departments:

We have some subject specialists who are librarians who work extra hours with students in their subject areas. A sort of learner support system. (UK52)

Another finding in the UK study was the use of staff appraisal schemes. Staff appraisal schemes exist among all the staff irrespective of position. It is used as a means of determining job performance though the link between appraisal and promotion varies considerably between the institutions studied:

We use staff appraisal all round, that is for all staff. To some extent it helps with promotion. (UK41)

We have a rather confidential appraisal process. The outcome is confidential between the head and the employee concerned basically to help improve situations. (UK31)

We use staff appraisal to see which staff are failing to meet the standards we have set. (UK51)

Staff appraisal schemes were also in use in the Ghanaian university libraries though it appeared a formal staff appraisal scheme was for only the para-professional and non-professionals:

I know staff appraisal goes on, the university librarian does it through the various heads of departments. As far as we are concerned our appraisal is done maybe when we apply for promotion but ours is not yearly like the juniors. (UnivC4)

An important aspect of staffing competencies studied was the quality of supervision in the libraries. In UnivA, UnivB and UnivD it was observed that the quality of supervision at the apex of the library hierarchy was poor. No definitions of the profiles of the supervisors in relation to the appropriate strategic objectives and the values of the libraries were stated in any written policies of the libraries. This lack of proper supervision at the very top of the libraries' management has affected the level of supervision throughout the libraries. The general views of most of the interviewees, with the exception of one or two university librarians, was that the libraries lacked leaders capable of permitting the efficient attainment

of strategic objectives and these leaders have always blamed their behaviour on current difficulties in the Ghanaian macro-environment:

People first of all are lackadaisical in their attitudes towards work. They want to do the least and get their pay. Even the heads of sections in the library. They have gone along with the situation unconcerned excusing these generally bad attitudes on the general economic situation in the country. My view is that there has to be change. (UnivA2)

In UnivC and UnivE the situation was no different though the university librarians failed to admit that the problem was chronic. The rest of the interviewees in these libraries, however, believed that one of the weaknesses of the administration of the libraries was poor supervision, which in similar circumstances to those prevailing in UnvA, UnivB and UnivD was a consequence of lack of morale and of poor working conditions:

I know supervisors are equally unproductive. People don't take their work seriously. This is because of the disparity in conditions of service. Then also I think government is to blame. Sometime ago our pay was good, job security was there but this is no longer there, so nobody cares again. (UnivC7)

When the quality of supervision was put to the test in a quantitative study involving 89 library staff from all the cases, a majority of 51.7% of the respondents reported that there was lax supervision in the libraries. Over 48% (48.3%) of the respondents did not think so. The respondents included professional staff in supervisory roles. An element of bias could have influenced the results from the professionals who took part in the survey. An exploration of the quality of supervision by staff category produced the results in Table 8.5.

	Yes No.	No No.	Total No.
Professional	12	16	28
Para-professional	10	10	20
Non-professional	24	17	41
Total	46	43	89

**Table 8.5** Responses on lax supervision, by staff category

The data in Table 8.5 indicates that the majority of the non-professionals believe there is lax supervision in their libraries. The views of the para-professionals were split. Though the majority of the professionals reported that there was no lax supervision 42.86% ( 12 out of

28 respondents) reported that there was lax supervision. The overall finding is that based on simple majority alone the library staff believe that the quality of supervision in the libraries does not meet organisational objectives and described the current supervision as lax. The feeling was strongest among the non-professionals in the libraries.

Responses to the question whether supervision in the libraries was lax or not as a measure of the quality of supervision by establishment (library) yielded the result in Table 8.6.

Library	Yes	No	Total
	No. %s	No. %	No. %
UnivA	21	14	35
UnivB	16	6	22
UnivC	7	7	14
UnivD	1	10	11
UnivE	1	6	7
Total	46	43	89

**Table 8.6** Responses on lax supervision, by establishment

Table 8.6 shows that the majority of respondents who did not think there was lax supervision are at UnivD and UnivE. These two libraries have a common characteristic which may account for the staff perceiving differently. It was observed that they had rather few management staff as their libraries are developing at a rather slow pace. At UnivC, a fifty fifty response was recorded but in UnivA and UnivB a significant number of the respondents reported that there was lax supervision in the libraries This result corroborates the interview responses by the stakeholders.

#### **8.3.4 Current Position On Staffing, Recruitment And Conditions Of Service**

The existing situation concerning employment structures and conditions of service in university libraries in Ghana is the same throughout the universities. The university libraries operate a system which distinguishes between professionals who are considered academics, para-professionals and non-professionals. The professional librarians have at least a first degree and a post graduate qualification in librarianship. The para-professionals have no post- graduate qualifications but may have a first degree, a diploma or a university certificate in librarianship while the non-professionals have no formal library qualifications.

The para-professionals and the non-professionals, no matter what their library experiences are, are never promoted to the professional grade until they complete a formal postgraduate course in librarianship. Usually, the professionals have benefits and opportunities identical to those of the academic staff. Similarly, only the professional librarians can belong to any academic decision making bodies such as academic boards, hall-tutoring and so on. Significant disillusionment with some of these variations among paraprofessionals were observed in some of the universities visited.

In order to enhance their promotion prospects a significant number of para-professionals have over the years left their posts to further their education in order to become professionals. Because the pay structure in the university libraries is qualification-related, the new professionals bring new salary demands which in turn affect the already overstretched staff budgets.

It was, however, found in the institutions studied in the UK that the pattern was different. Promotion was not qualification related and there was no guarantee of promotion as a result of employee self skill upgrading:

We do sponsor a number of people in certain areas to upgrade their qualifications. When they finish they still find themselves in their old jobs which may be non professional jobs. At the moment we offer no guarantee that when they complete professional courses they will immediately be upgraded at a professional grade. (UK11)

We do not advise people to study for higher degrees for that reason. There is no guarantee that we will have an appropriate job for them. (UK21)

The present conditions of service of all the staff working in Ghanaian universities have been laid down by the universities' governing bodies for some decades now without any significant review in the last ten years:

Well I don't remember that the conditions of service have changed. No new things. What was given to me when I first joined is what is still given now some 10 or so years after (UnivB1)

The determination of the pay of staff in the universities is by government- appointed bodies responsible for similar exercises in other parts of the public sectors. The outcome of this is that because university librarians do not provide any inputs into pay negotiations they have very little control over human resource remuneration as it affects libraries. This limits their

powers to allocate financial resources to other service areas. Their freedom to explore the feasibility of alternative working patterns is also limited:

We could develop new ways of working but then we do not control the purse. We do not have much say in our salary structures so it is difficult to do other things as far as staff structures are concerned. (UnivB1)

For university libraries in Ghana the anticipated changes in work and organisation as a result of the introduction of information technology requires the recruitment of a new set of skills which the librarians believe will be extremely difficult to accomplish because they perceive salaries and conditions of service in the universities as poor:

The condition of service is not attractive. You see if the salary is good you can get people from overseas to come and when they come you give them all the necessary benefits and help, then we can solve our IT problems which at the moment is very serious indeed. (UnivC7)

## **8.4 PHYSICAL FACILITIES**

The physical resources needed to achieve the desired goals of the libraries in Ghana were identified as buildings, library equipment, furniture and telecommunications infrastructure:

As I said earlier about expansion we need accommodation, library resources such as photocopiers and for our computing services we shall have to build our telecommunications infrastructure. (UnivA2)

The lack of space was seen by most of the respondents from all the libraries in Ghana as a problem which had resulted in the poor access to library resources by students:

Accommodation for the entire users is a big problem. We have this in our strategic plan, but if the money is not there what do we do? Some students cannot use the library. (UnivA1)

However, two of the university libraries, UnivC and UnivB, have started to expand their buildings, which they hope will solve the accommodation problem:

We have started our expansion already. Our building project has gone on for some time now. I think since 1978, that will be the first step in solving our space problems. (UnivC2)

The interviewees in these two universities admitted that the projects would take some time to be completed and had doubts if their libraries would be able to provide the new buildings with the necessary facilities that would meet the needs of the students in the 21st century;

No, the university doesn't have money. When you look at our building project even if we are able to finish we cannot furnish it



and make available the necessary library equipment for the students in the coming century. (UnivC4)

In the United Kingdom, accommodation for the libraries in the study was also seen by the respondents as running out and some of the libraries have tried to remedy the situation by creating more user spaces and have limited the staff occupation of certain areas.

I think the problem is with us too. We have limited some of the spaces occupied by staff to make room for our users. (UK51)

Two of the libraries in the UK have also embarked on new building projects. Unlike their Ghanaian counterparts, the new buildings have been designed to accommodate modern technology and are being equipped with the necessary physical facilities as outlined in the libraries' strategic plans:

Our electronic project is to help students to scan materials, record them on disks, view them on screens and print them out when they want. That is the strategy and that is the reason why we are putting up a new building. It is not for storage of books but networking for electronic accessing. All these match our organisational planning...(UK22)

It was also observed in the UK university libraries visited that the libraries were relatively well endowed with facilities while their counterparts in Ghana showed a rather very poor library infrastructure. In the Ghanaian university libraries, the lack of a telecommunications infrastructure was seen by the respondents as an impediment to easy access to people and resources by users of the libraries, especially those libraries situated on multi-site campuses:

We need to link up because this university is multi-site. I had to invite the Assistant Registrar to our site but where he is now there is no telephone on the campus and this is difficult indeed. The libraries are also like that you cannot get the books from other sites. (UnivE3)

At the five universities in Ghana quick communication between departments appeared to be difficult because of the lack of telecommunication facilities. Intra-departmental communication via telephones in most cases was non-existent and this affected the exchange of ideas among scholars:

In a situation where even ordinary telephone is not there, you know a scholar cannot even call his neighbour next door, call his neighbour 400 yards away to discuss academic work or a scholar cannot call his counterpart in another university. It is a big country but we've found ourselves virtually isolated from our peers just because there are no telephones. Even within the library offices there should be phones. (UnivA9)

The universities and their libraries in Ghana rely on messengers to deliver intra library messages and interdepartmental messages. This mode of exchange of information has been found to waste staff time and encourage staff to loiter about and to pursue personal non-library activities:

The provision of telephones must be done. The telephone in other countries are basic things even in people's houses. If you go to my study now there is a telephone box but I haven't used it for 20 years. Here if you want to pass on message to a department you have to send somebody or go there personally. It all waste of time. You see the subordinates roam about and they lie to you they are going to another department to deliver message. They do their own thing. (UnivA14)

When the library staff were asked in the survey why they thought most staff did not stay at their desks for their entire working hours the majority , 64 (65.3%) out of 98 respondents reported that they left their desks to attend to other businesses for their libraries; 1 (1.0%) said it was for other reasons; and 33 (33.7%) did not provide any answers to the question. What this result implies is that much staff time is wasted in the process of staff communicating with colleagues next door or in other departments. Other staff would also continue to use this as an excuse to stay away from their desks unless the telecommunications system in the universities is improved.

In addition to the problem of inadequate physical resources in all the university libraries the interviewees at UnivA, UnivC and UnivD reported the difficulties involved in using some existing library equipment that they found obsolete. Respondents at UnivD and UnivB and quite a number of the interviewees in UnivA and UnivC further reported the frequent breakdown of existing equipment which required high cost in maintenance:

One problem with these equipment is that because we don't have the basic inputs the equipment experience frequent breakdown. No parts so we have to wait for somebody to order the parts and the equipment is idle for some time. (UnivD8)

Some of the equipment brought in here are sometimes obsolete in other countries. Some are already out of use, archaic as I must say so breakdown after every use. These are the problems. (UnivA13)

The shortage of financial, human and physical resources are evident in the analysis presented in this chapter. The next chapter also presents the analysis of data and findings on some aspects of the libraries' internal environments

# **CHAPTER NINE**

## **THE ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS ON SOME ASPECTS OF THE LIBRARIES' INTERNAL ENVIRONMENTS**

### **9.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents the analysis of data and the findings on some of the elements in the task environments (internal) of university libraries in Ghana and the United Kingdom.

### **9.2 STAFFING STRUCTURE AND MANAGEMENT STYLE OF THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES**

The link between strategy and organisational structure from the point of view of the classical theorists of strategy has been one of getting the organisational structure right for a particular strategy in order to achieve practical success.

Chandler's (1962) maxim 'structure follows strategy' dominates the theoretical field. This prescriptive approach to strategy advocates that structure must follow strategy, a sequence typical of the linear approach to classical strategy. A variety of failures, however, has made it clear that organisations differ, that, for example, long range planning systems or organisational development programmes are good for some but not others so management theory has moved away from this 'one best way' approach towards an 'it all depends approach' formerly called the contingency theory (Mintzberg, 1979). Mintzberg (1979) argues that the appropriate organisational form is contingent upon the state of certain variables: size, environmental dynamism and complexity, external power relationships and the technical system employed by the organisation.

A third approach, called the 'configuration approach', has emerged (Mintzberg, Quinn and Ghoshal, 1995). This argument is that the structures should not be chosen independently, the way a shopper picks vegetables at the market, rather these and other elements of organisational design should logically configure into internally consistent groupings with an

emphasis on sensitivity to context and concern for cultural specificity of form as of organisation.

The strategy-structure relationship addresses the issues of specialisation and co-ordination, each determining the type of organisational structure of a firm. The link between organisational structure and organisational performance, according to Porter (1980, 1985) is that an organisation that has a good structure performs better. He argues that a firm's competitive advantage stems from its ability to outperform competitors by its mode of specialisation to perform the basic tasks. This equates to either performing the tasks at lower cost or providing better quality than the competitors or both. To have some chance of winning the firm must perform the tasks in an extraordinary way - it must transcend the average levels of performance in its industry by embedding new routines into existing structure or change the structure completely.

Environmental stability and dynamism also dictate the type of structure that suits a particular strategy. Studies by Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) showed that successful firms in a reasonably stable environment co-ordinate activities primarily through fairly centralised corporate hierarchies. Successful firms in a more dynamic environment co-ordinate activities through integrative departments and permanent cross-functional teams. Burns and Stalker (1961) had also identified two types of structures, the mechanistic (functional) structure and the organic, and concluded that a mechanistic structure, with its emphasis on a centralisation of decision - making and bureaucratic rules and procedures, appears to be well-suited to organisations operating in a reasonably stable environment. In contrast, however, they found that successful firms operating in a constantly changing environment used a more organic structure with decentralised decision making and flexible procedures.

The relevance of this concept of organisational structure-strategy to university libraries is that the staffing structure of a library must fit the strategy of that library; as Waterman (1980:71) has argued, it is the 'fittedness' between these two that turns a good strategic idea into a 'lean, mean' programme for corporate success.

The determination of the efficiency and effectiveness of the staffing structures of the university libraries under study was necessary if that kind of structure-strategy fit was to be achieved. The results of the assessment of the kinds of library management structures and

organisational processes in Ghanaian university libraries and the UK university libraries studied are presented here.

### ***9.2.1 Types Of Structure***

In the interviews with the key stakeholders in universities in Ghana three main questions were concerned with the assessment of the kinds of university library management structures currently being used.

One question asked whether the organisational structure was 'hierarchical' (i.e., with the University Librarian at the apex of the library service and a Deputy, Heads of Departments and several levels of professional and paraprofessional librarians forming a clear hierarchy below) or 'organic' (i.e., with fewer levels, the use of team management and project groups that run across rather than down the organisation) or neither of these. Out of the 61 stakeholders who responded, 54 (88.52%) reported that the libraries worked with hierarchical structures. Six (9.83%) of them did not provide any answers and only one respondent reported that he worked with elements of both hierarchical and organic structures in the library.

With the exception of the University Librarian of UnivC, the single respondent who placed his library in both hierarchical and organic structures, it can be concluded from this evidence that the university libraries' staffing structure in Ghana is of an overwhelmingly centrally directed hierarchical nature.

A second question asked about any recent changes to the existing internal organisational structure and how long the current structure had actually been in existence. The pattern of responses was identical to that for the first question. Most of the respondents (54 out of 61, 88.52%) across all the five cases indicated that there had been no significant changes to the structures since the inception of the libraries. The one respondent who claimed his library had both structures commented on some recent changes:

As I said earlier the structure is both. Two years ago we had to use a group of senior Assistant Librarians to work on some projects. So that was some changes we did. (UnivC1)

This finding also shows that no significant changes in the staffing structures in the university libraries have occurred since the libraries were established. The structures of the

libraries have existed despite significant changes in the contingency variables such as size of student population over the last few decades, a situation which requires a considerable shift in structure to achieve a better strategy-structure alignment.

The same questions were asked the University Librarians in the UK study. Out of the five case institutions, two of the libraries maintained hierarchical structures. Three still had hierarchical structures but were moving towards a project based organic approach. The following are some of the comments from the librarians:

Yes, it is hierarchical but is going through a period of change. It is moving towards a consultative structure of teams and groups. For example, we have cataloguing teams... (UK31)

Elements of both. The structure is basically hierarchical, but as the service is very small extensive use is made of project groups. (UK52)

It is basically hierarchical structure. It is a line management structure. Having said that we do have project working groups and standing groups who bring people together from different levels to discuss issues. So, in addition to the line we have project management for specific pieces of work. (UK11)

As the comments of the UK Librarians show, though hierarchical structures exist, use is also made of organic models and team management to influence the ways in which services are developed and delivered when the need arises.

The third question which was fully qualitative tried to find out the effects the major stakeholders thought their strategic visions might have on their staffing structures. There was detailed probing into other issues as they emerged. The results have been grouped under: factors making change necessary in present staffing structure, type of structural change required; and problems affecting the possibility of changes in the present staffing structures.

### ***9.2.2 Factors Making Change Necessary In Present Staffing Structure***

The need for changes in the present staffing structure in the university libraries in Ghana were mentioned in only one particular context in all the universities with the exception of one where all the interviewees believed their present staffing structure did not need any change despite imminent strategic decisions:

We have our own framework here. Our faculties have their own requirements so we will have to work with our existing structures. The tasks will not affect our structures. (UnivE7)

There were some interviewees from UnivC and UnivD who also did not see the need for change despite their new strategic ambitions. The majority of the respondents from UnivA, UnivB, UnivC and UnivD reported that the recent introduction of computers in the libraries and the vision they have for their libraries of complete automation were the only compelling factors for changes in their staffing structures:

I think the only way that the structure will be affected is the computer side of things. The computer science will have to be strengthened. That is the only need I see anyway. (UnivA9)

In contrast, among the UK librarians interviewed, the need for changes in their staffing structure, which three out of five institutions had already effected, were expressed in many more contexts than their Ghanaian counterparts. The respondents cited the age of the structures as a factor for change. They also identified changes in the internal environments of their universities in the recent past, most particularly the increase in student numbers and the diverse needs of the students which have placed new demands on their libraries' administrative and operational structures:

The staffing structure had been in existence for too long. It was old, the university had changed in terms of population, course structure and so forth. This had affected the work of the librarians and I believe we had to make some changes. (UK52)

Similar to the pattern of responses in the universities in Ghana, automation in the libraries was a contributing factor for effecting changes in their organisational structures. All the interviewees expressed the view that the introduction of computers changed some of the operations of their libraries. Machines, not people, had to be regulated, so some staff in supervisory roles lost some of their control over library operatives as machines did not need to be watched over as frequently as humans. Automation, in their view, had reduced certain strata of staff with traditional library knowledge in favour of computer experts; thus, the reliance on standardisation in certain areas in the libraries had reduced:

Library automation presented new groups of experts, some of the old librarians had to give way, transferred, services of some were no more required so their contracts were not renewed. We did not

need many supervisors because as I have explained already we were dealing with new technology and did not have to use many supervisors (UK42).

Internal reorganisation had occurred at some point in all the libraries as a result of staff shortages, a consequence of expenditure cuts. According to the interviewees, insufficient staffing in some areas required changes in job responsibilities of some of the existing staff. There were economies in the use of staff in response to dwindling resources:

We had to use our staff economically. Certain staff had to take on more work, a sort of sharing the extra responsibilities. (UK51)

In three of the UK university libraries, the low staffing levels had also encouraged a team atmosphere in which positions were not set or stagnant, such a dynamic atmosphere permitted flexibility and innovation. The following is a comment by one of the respondents about how the library had changed its organisational structure in accordance with changing internal and external pressures:

We have had to make changes for the same reasons. We have expanded our clerical duties and have released some of our professional staff to further reader services duties. (UK32)

### ***9.2.3 Type Of Structural Changes Required***

As to the type of changes in structures that would be required by the interviewees in the Ghanaian university libraries, two opposing views were expressed by the majority of them. Nearly half the respondents in UnivA, UnivB and UnivD and about three quarters from UnivC felt that more staff would be required to strengthen the existing structure especially in computing and the relating fields:

The new skills in computing will obviously call for an expanded organisational structure. The universities must make room for this. I mean our system cannot continue to be static and run on the same old structures. There must be expansion to cater for these if the vision is to be realised. As at now I don't see that happening. (UnivC6)

The remainder, with the exception of the respondents at UnivC, also pointed to a reduction in staff because they hoped the reliance on computers would make certain positions redundant:



The tasks involved with my vision will affect the structure. If every one was to become computer literate we may not need the present secretarial system we have now. If people can access for themselves in the library some personnel will have nothing to do. (UnivB11)

In a similar manner the respondents from the other two libraries expressed the need for more commitment from staff in the face of staff reductions. In their view, this problem required the libraries to reorganise in an effort to meet new job demands. The decrease in or already inadequate staffing levels has led to changes in services and every one has had to work harder to make up for lost positions:

Well, I must say a lot has gone on in that area too. We had to reorganise our staffing structure and then make changes in services. For example, in user instruction A lot more effort was put in by the small number of staff at hand . (UK41)

They further reported that their libraries were organised on a subject basis. Within each of the subject divisions a team of staff was created whose duty it was to interact with users. This structural change in their opinion had increased the sensitivity and responsiveness to user's needs among the staff:

We have organised our staff into subject divisions, humanities, social sciences, physical sciences and so on. We have a team of staff: though small they are not locked away in offices but are out there listening, being confronted and consulted by the public. In a way users have been satisfied and their needs are easily picked up by our staff. (UK51)

All the interviewees in the UK also reported that because library automation cut swathes through traditional library methods and staffing structures, the number of qualified librarians at some stages in their restructuring had to be reduced in favour of technical and support staff:

Staff structuring after our automation was inevitable. The changes had to come. Let me give you an example. Cataloguing: before our automation, cataloguing individual titles was separately done by individual cataloguers. A staggering waste of time and human effort. If you think about it in retrospect. The new system has depleted professional numbers in cataloguing. Where once we had 6 professionals we now find ourselves having only 2 or even just one. What has increased is the ancillary staff, the technical team and clerks. (UK52)

These findings from the point of view of the UK respondents suggest that the libraries in the UK now have a much smaller number of professional staff than of other categories of staff. The few professional staff are presently engaged in true library work such as book selection, reference work, supervision, management and innovation. These senior staff working in reference like their junior staff are not cut off from the users of the library, as was observed in Ghana. There is, therefore, a lot of contact between professional staff and users of the libraries. It also appears that the old system of rigid arrangement by function which meant that users had little sight or contact with the very senior library staff is loosening up in the libraries studied in the UK.

#### **9.2.4 *Problems Affecting Possibility Of Changes In Present Staffing Structures***

A number of problems that may affect changes in current staffing structures in Ghanaian university libraries emerged.

In UnivA, UnivC and UnivD several of the respondents reported that any changes to current library structures might be blocked by university authorities because of the great external control of the libraries at corporate levels and sometimes at the macro level:

We are under the Ministry of Education and controlled by the registry too. The University Librarian has to report everything to the authorities. Look at the situation where the Ministry did our book selection and acquisition. The University Librarian's hands are tied in so many ways. Even to employ new people we have to seek permission. We can't change structures without approval or somebody up there initiating it. (UnivA8)

This sort of control in the university systems is somewhat consistent with the organisational processes typical of centralised structures because the greater the external control of an organisation the more centralised and formalised its structure (Mintzberg, Quinn and Ghoshal, 1995). Much power is usually centralised at the strategic apex and other staff routines are formalised.

Another problem that was expressed by most interviewees at all sites but particularly strongly expressed by respondents from UnivA, UnivB, UnivC and UnivD was the effect current resourcing constraints might have on any proposed new structural changes:

As I said earlier, we need to set up a separate unit to handle information technology but there is no money for this. Any

development in that direction will seriously be hampered by this problem. (UnivC8)

Consistent with all the responses in all the libraries some respondents who were not librarians but were closely linked with the libraries' activities blamed the libraries for difficulties in changing the present structures. In their view, the librarians had not come up with any analysis of their existing staff tasks and duties with costing for Library Board discussions but continued to maintain structures with tasks that might be no longer relevant in modern librarianship:

The librarians themselves have not raised the issue at any Board meetings. They have not presented to the Board any new tasks or necessary tasks. What do you expect us to do? They still continue to do what they have been doing before though I don't think their methods are still relevant . (UnivA5)

Several subjects in UnivD and more than a third from UnivA, UnivB and UnivD perceived that any structural changes in the libraries should be made by university policy makers but not the librarians.

There was a general lack of understanding of organisational processes and evidence of gross ignorance of staffing structural issues among the majority of the respondents, particularly staff at UnivE This was evident from some of the answers they provided to questions on staffing issues. The following are some of the answers:

What decision will affect who? It will not affect our structure. The organisational structure and processes are part of our objectives they will not have to change. (UnivE5)

These structures have no problems. They work perfectly well. We have no problems with them. What we need is money to buy more computers and more computer staff. (UnivD8)

Our organisational structure is very clear; it does not require changes. (UnivE4)

### ***9.2.5 Current Organisational Processes And Management Style***

The results of an exploration of the organisational processes and their implication for strategy which was accomplished by using a questionnaire survey is presented here. The major stakeholders at the Ghanaian universities were asked to indicate to what extent they

agreed with particular statements presented to them on some aspects of the libraries' organisational processes. This process was then repeated using the larger population of library staff.

The statements sought responses to specific views on decision- making processes, communication among staff, supervision and description of duties as a way of determining the co-ordinating mechanism in the libraries' organisational structures. The statements to which the major stakeholders were asked to respond were:

- 1 Decisions in the library are taken by staff at all levels.
2. In the library, library assistants have to go through the proper channel if they have suggestions pertaining to work.
3. Supervision in the library entails setting guidelines for subordinates who take responsibility for their actions.
- 4 Jobs in the library are properly described and logically structured.

The results of the survey for all the four statements from the major stakeholder perspectives are presented in Table 9.1A. This shows the overall responses for the combined establishments but not the individual establishments because there were no major differences between the responses across the case studies.

Statements	Strongly agree		Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Total N=61	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Statement 1	1	1.6	8	13.1	1	1.6	30	49.2	21	34.4	61	100.0
Statement 2	4	6.6	51	83.6	6	6.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	61	100.0
Statement 3	6	9.8	41	67.2	7	11.5	4	6.6	1	1.6	61	100.0
Statement 4	14	23.0	29	47.5	12	19.7	6	9.8	0	0.0	61	100.0

**Table 9.1.A** Responses to statements on organisational processes-major stakeholder perspective

The table indicates that for the first statement - 'Decisions in the library are taken by staff at all levels', a significant percentage of the major stakeholders disagreed with the statement (49.2% disagreed and 34.4% strongly disagreed). This result shows that in the view of the major stakeholders decisions in libraries are not taken by staff at all levels.

For the second statement - 'In the library, library assistants have to go through the proper channel if they have suggestions pertaining to work', the responses indicate overwhelming

support for this statement as 83.6% of the respondents agree and 6.6% of them strongly agree. There were no disagreements, with just 9.9% not sure. This result suggests a vertical mode of communication in the libraries.

Predictably, for the third statement, the majority of the respondents agree to the assertion that supervision in the libraries is setting guidelines for subordinates who take responsibility for their actions. Over 60% (67.2%) agreed and 9.8% strongly agreed with only 6.6% and 1.6% disagreeing or strongly disagreeing respectively.

The results of the fourth statement which also probed the co-ordination mechanism in staffing structures, were consistent with those for the first statement. Over 70% (70.5%) of the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that jobs in the libraries are properly described and logically structured, with 5.1% disagreeing and 13.3% not sure.

Table 9.1B also shows the results of the library staff reactions to the statements.

Statements	Strongly agree		Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Statement 1	6	6.3	7	7.3	4	4.2	57	59.4	22	22.9	96	100.0
Statement 2	11	11.2	64	65.3	14	14.3	9	9.2	0	0.0	98	100.0
Statement 3	25	25.5	55	55.1	14	14.3	4	4.41	0	0.0	98	100.0
Statement 4	17	17.3	63	64.3	13	13.3	5	5.1	0	0.0	98	100.0

**Table 9.1B** Responses to statements on organisational processes-library staff perspective

Table 9.1B shows that for all four statements, the responses of the library staff substantiate the findings in Table 9.1A. In a similar vein, Table 9.1B shows that as far as the library staff are concerned, decisions in the library are not taken by all staff at all levels and that library assistants have to go through the proper channel if they have suggestions pertaining to work. For the third and fourth statements which investigated co-ordinating mechanisms, the results also confirm that supervision in the libraries is setting guidelines for subordinates who take responsibility for their actions. An overwhelming number of respondents also agreed or strongly agreed that jobs in the libraries are properly described and logically structured which suggests that the work processes in the university libraries in Ghana are standardised, fitting that of a bureaucratic organisation with a programmed set of activities (Riggs, 1987).

The results in Tables 9.1A and 9.1B speak volumes about the organisational processes in vogue in university libraries in Ghana. These results from the two perspectives (stakeholders and library staff) point to the existence of the mechanistic type of organisational processes whereby only a few people at the apex of the organisational structure, mostly the professional librarians make, decisions for the rest of the staff to carry out without any major participation at lower levels. The decision making process is centralised. The structures, as the results also indicate, rely on standardisation for co-ordination and the library staff have to perform library duties in accordance with properly described sets of instructions. Jobs are highly specialised with limited amount of horizontal decentralisation. The library assistants lack control of tasks they perform as they are expected to follow a set of guidelines for which they are held accountable. The results also point to the fact that direct supervision is used to achieve co-ordination as the majority of interviewees indicated (Statement 3)

These results are not surprising as they corroborate evidence from the literature on the Ghanaian macro environment in Chapter 4 where it was also found that the Ghanaian social system is hierarchical based on an acceptance of inequality. An organisation's central power is vested in the hands of the heads of organisations and a few other top officials and the other staff are supposed to do what they have been told (Blunt, 1983).

#### ***9.2.6 Staff Awareness And Participation In The Strategic Planning Process***

The management style prevalent in Ghanaian university libraries does not permit participation in decision making processes by all staff. However, in strategic planning, the implementation process involves a more diverse group of people. In certain cases the implementors will be everyone in the organisation. A participative approach to strategy formulation and implementation brings a greater variety of perspectives and the stronger and more realistic the resulting plan is likely to be. Secondly, staff members who participated in planning activities would be more likely to support the plan (Ferriero and Wilding, 1989; Hunger and Wheelan, 1995). Participatory planning, its advocates warned, would be labour intensive and threatening to the status quo (Palmour et al, 1980) but the rewards would outweigh the costs.

The results of an investigation into the awareness of and participation in strategic planning processes in the university libraries in Ghana is presented here.

### 9.2.6.1 Awareness Of The Planning Process

In the questionnaire survey involving the library population, subjects were first asked if their libraries had been involved in a strategic planning process. Respondents who answered that there was a strategic planning document were asked what use, if any they had actually made of the it. Table 9.2A presents a cross-tabulation of the responses to the questions on the awareness of the planning process by institution.

	UnivA no. %	UnivB no. %	UnivC no. %	UnivD no. %	All no. %
Has your library got a strategic plan?					
YES	13 14.4	20 22.2	13 14.4	11 12.2	57 63.2
NO	5 5.6	0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0	7 7.8
DON'T KNOW	8 8.9	4 4.4	8 8.9	6 6.7	26 28.9
TOTAL	26 28.9	24 26.7	23 25.5	17 18.9	90 100.0
Chi squared 56.64.694                      Degree of Freedom 8                      Significance .00000					

**Table 9.2A** The awareness of the planning process by institution

	UnivA no. %	UnivB no. %	UnivC no. %	UnivD no. %	All no. %
If you answered 'yes' to the previous question which of the following best describes your use of the document?					
Have read the entire document	6 10.5	5 8.8	5 8.8	7 12.3	23 40.4
Have read parts	2 3.5	0 0.0	1 1.8	0 0.0	3 5.3
Have looked through briefly	3 5.3	1 1.8	1 1.8	2 3.5	7 12.3
Have not seen the document.	1 1.8	14 24.6	7 12.3	1 1.8	23 40.4
None of the above	1 1.8	0 0.0	0 0.0	0 0.0	1 1.8
Total	13 22.8	20 35.1	14 24.6	10 17.5	57 100.0

**Table 9.2B** Use of planning document by institution

The responses to the question about knowledge of the planning document showed that knowledge about the existence of strategic plan was not universal though 63.2% of all the respondents from UnivA, UnivB, UnivC and UnivD knew that their libraries had produced a written plan (UnivE had no plan so subjects were excluded from this investigation). This result corroborated what the investigator learned during interviews, namely, that staff members, particularly those without planning and management responsibilities, did not generally encounter the document as part of their regular duties. The data concerning the use made of the planning document as displayed in Table 9.2B also indicates that 40.4% had not seen the document at all.

At UnivB, most subjects knew that their libraries had strategic plans but Table 9.2B also indicates that only 5 out of the 20 respondents who knew that their library had a strategic plan had actually read the entire document, which confirms that most of the staff never encountered the document as one they had to work with.

The data for the question about the knowledge of the document was cross-tabulated by staff categories, number of years service and educational level (Tables 9.3A-9.3C)

	Professionals		Para-professionals		Non-professionals		Administrators	
Has your library got a strategic plan?	N=27		N=25		N=33		N=5	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
YES	24	88.9	15	60.0	10	30.30	5	100.0
NO	3	11.1	3	12.0	4	12.12	0	0.0
DON'T KNOW	0	0.0	7	28.0	19	57.58	0	0.0
Chi squared	28.56169	Degree of freedom	6	Significance	.00007			

**Table 9.3A** Awareness of the planning process by staff category



	YEARS OF SERVICE			
	0 - 10	11 - 20	21 - 30	30+
Has your library got a strategic plan?	N=57	N=23	N=8	N=2
	no. %	no. %	no. %	no. %
YES	33 57.9	14 60.9	7 87.5	5 100
NO	6 10.5	2 8.7	0 0.0	0 0.0
DON'T KNOW	18 31.6	7 30.4	1 12.5	0 0.0
N=90	Chi squared 28.56169	Degree of freedom 6	Significance .00007	

**Table 9.3B** Awareness of the planning process by years of service

Has your library got a strategic plan?	MSLC	O'level	A'level	Diploma	BA/ALA	BA+DIP/FLA	MA
	N=1	N=9	N=24	N=5	N=15	N=30	N=5
	no. %	no. %	no. %	no. %	no. %	no. %	no. %
YES	0 0.0	5 55.6	9 37.5	1 20.0	10 66.7	20 66.6	4 80.0
NO	0 0.0	2 22.2	1 4.2	2 40.0	3 20.0	5 16.7	1 20.0
DON'T KNOW	1 100.0	2 22.2	14 58.3	2 40.0	2 40.0	5 16.7	0 0.0

**Table 9.3C** Awareness of the planning process by Educational level

Tables 9.3A-9.3C indicate that the longer the experience of employees at the library the more likely employees were to be knowledgeable about the planning process, and professional librarians (those most often called upon to participate in the planning process and form the libraries' strategic planning committees) were more knowledgeable than the other two library staff categories of para- and non- professionals, as were those with higher levels of education. However, the data also reveals that all administrators were knowledgeable of the planning document. This is not surprising as they are often the custodians of these documents, as was observed in all the institutions.

#### **9.2.6.2 Participation In The Strategic Planning Process**

When information on the subjects' own participation in planning activities was sought, out of the 90 library staff, 26 (28.9%) reported taking part in some planning activity, 37 (41.1%) did not take part in any activity and 27 (30%) did not provide any answer. A cross-tabulation of responses by establishment is presented in Table 9.4

Did you take part in drawing up the library strategic plan?	UnivA		UnivB		UnivC		UnivD		All	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
YES	6	9.5	4	6.3	7	11.2	8	12.7	25	39.7
NO	8	12.7	16	25.4	11	17.4	3	4.8	38	60.3
TOTAL	14	22.2	20	31.7	18	28.6	11	17.5	63	100

**Table 9.4** Participation in drawing up strategic plan by establishment

Although statistically the data in Table 9.4 is not significant the overall responses across UnivA, UnivB and UnivC show that the percentage of respondents who did not take part in drawing the strategic plan was higher than those who took part. Surprisingly, for UnivD, the opposite was the case, though this result for UnivD contradicts interview results as the University Librarian claimed sole responsibility for drawing the plan.

Table 9.5 shows the groups (staff categories) who participated in drawing up the plans.

Group	Responses	
	N=26	
	no.	%
Senior Members	22	84.6
Chief Library Assistant- Senior Library Assistant	2	7.7
Library Administrators	2	7.7
Library Assistants- Junior Library Assistant	0	0.0
Some Members of University Community but not librarians	0	0.0
Government Officials	0	0.0
Other	0	0.0

**Table 9.5** Group Participation in Strategic planning

Table 9.5 shows that the senior members (professional staff, 84.6%) of the libraries, participated most in drawing up the strategic plans. It also shows the very low percentage (7.7%) participation by the lower ranks, particularly the non-participation of the library assistant-junior library assistant group i.e., those who are the principal implementors of strategies in the library.

These findings (Table 9.2-9.5) show without doubt that the approach to strategy formulation in university libraries in Ghana is the top-down approach.

A comparative investigation involving the United Kingdom libraries studied showed some similarities and differences to the approach of strategy formulation. As with Ghanaian libraries, the plans were initially drawn-up by a section of the professional staff only and in one of the case study institutions it was drawn-up by the University Librarian alone. The difference however is that there was an indication of complete awareness amongst all staff of the planning documents. The following are some of the comments from two of the University Librarians:

There is a drafting group which is chaired by the Deputy Librarian with two Sub Librarians and one Assistant Librarian. They produce a draft which is then discussed by a library management group. The final document is passed on to all the entire staff (UK11)

I drew the strategic plan. The library is required by the university to draw a strategic plan. The way it gets written is that I draft it and it goes to a management team then to other staff and user groups. It gets discussed there and amendments are made. It is then sent round to the entire staff and the university community as the library's strategic plan. It isn't just me (UK22)

#### 9.2.6.2.1 *Participation in planning activities*

A further investigation into the Ghanaian respondents' own participation in particular planning activities was carried out. The results are presented in Table 9.6

Planning Activity	UnivA		UnivB		UnivC		UnivD		All N=90	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Informal discussions	2	2.2	3	3.3	1	1.1	0	0.0	6	6.7
Planning conferences and training sessions	1	1.1	2	2.2	2	2.2	0	0.0	5	5.6
staff survey	0	0.0	3	3.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	3.3
Writing of goals and objectives	3	3.3	3	3.3	4	4.4	1	1.1	11	12.2
Library Group Discussions	3	3.3	2	2.2	5	5.6	4	4.4	14	15.6
Writing memos to strategic planning committee	1	1.1	2	2.2	1	1.1	0	0.0	4	4.4
Production of document	3	3.3	3	3.3	1	1.1	2	2.2	9	10.0

**Table 9.6** Participation in planning activities, by institution

Table 9.6 clearly shows the very low levels of participation in the individual planning activities. Several interesting points emerge when the data is matched with that in Table 9.2A (knowledge about strategic planning). First, although 63.3% of the respondents reported knowledge of the planning process participation in specific planning activities was found to be much lower ( the highest was 15.6% for library group discussion). Many respondents knew of the planning process but never really participated in the formulation of plans. Secondly, the responses for the various planning activities listed in Table 9.6 were similar, but not the same across the four sites, owing to differences in the mode of practice of strategic planning. One of the largest discrepancies is the number of staff at UnivD (Table 9.5) who participated in drawing the strategic plan (8 out of 11) compared to UnivB (4 out of 20). In Table 9.9 UnivB has an even distribution of responses for the various planning activities which implies that the staff who took part in drawing-up the plan were involved more in all the planning activities than UnivD which has the highest number of participants in planning activities. Table 9.6 shows that UnivB is the only institution that used a staff survey in the formulation of its plan.

A cross-tabulation of participation in a specific planning activity by staff category yielded the results in Table 9.7

Planning Activity	Professionals		Para-professional		Non-Professional		TOTAL N=90	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Informal discussions	5	5.6	1	1.1	0	0.0	6	6.7
Planning conferences and training sessions	3	3.3	1	1.1	1	1.1	5	5.6
staff survey	3	3.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	3.3
Writing of goals and objectives	10	11.1	1	1.1	0	0.0	11	12.2
Library Group Discussions	11	12.2	3	3.3	0	0.0	14	15.6
Writing memos to strategic planning committee	4	4.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	4.4
Production of document	7	7.8	2	2.2	0	0.0	9	10.0

**Table 9.7** Participation in planning activities by staff category

Table 9.7 clearly shows that a higher percentage of professionals took part in specific planning activities than the other categories. Consistent with other results (Tables 9.3A, 9.3B and 9.5) the non professionals took little or no part at all in specific planning activities which confirms the top-down approach to planning in all the university libraries in Ghana.

### **9.3 ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE/CULTURE**

The concept of culture has been derived both from anthropology (Benedict, 1934) and organisation theory (Meadows, 1967). In anthropology, culture is the foundational term through which the orderliness and patterning of much of our life experience is explained (Benedict, 1934). Meadows (1967:82) has also argued that organisation theory is always rooted in the imagery of order and asserts that 'the development of theories of organisation is the history of the metaphor of orderliness.'

Different concepts of organisation and culture abound in the literature and variation in the ways the concept of culture is used by researchers also exist as does the lack of consensus on the definition of the term 'culture'. For this study, however culture, is viewed as 'the way things are done in an organisation'. It is composed of three elements - shared values, decision making patterns and overt behaviour patterns (Kono, 1990).

Previous studies (for example Kono, 1990 and Davies, Kirkpatrick and Oliver, 1992) have suggested a fit between strategy and culture. They have asserted that the more organisational strategy and corporate culture are in true harmony, the higher the level of strategic management competence. Other authors (such as Rue and Holland, 1989 and Bowman and Asch, 1996) have also shown a link between the role of culture in strategy and the environment and have concluded that the internal and external environments of an organisation affect the way individuals think.

To determine whether corporate culture is or not in conflict with corporate strategy, some general philosophy statements were used to characterise the culture of the university libraries in Ghana. The first three statements sought to ascertain how certain processes within the libraries might affect individual perceptions and cognition, particularly power relationships. The concept of large power-distance in the workplace implies that superiors and subordinates consider each other as existentially unequal. The hierarchical system is felt

to be based on this existential inequality. Organisations centralise power as much as possible in a few hands. Subordinates are expected to do what they are told. There is a lot of supervisory personnel, structured into tall hierarchies of people reporting to each other. Contact between superiors and subordinates are supposed to be initiated by the superiors only. Using some aspects of Power-Distance concept (Hofstede, 1991) the stakeholders and the library staff were asked to indicate the to extent to which they agreed with the following statements:

- 1 In the library all workers can speak their minds even if it means disagreeing with their superiors.
- 2 Subordinate staff are afraid to express disagreement with superior officers.
- 3 Subordinate staff fear the authority of senior members.

Tables 9.8A and 9.8B show the overall responses from the perspectives of the major stakeholders and the library staff respectively. Cross tabulation of responses by establishment did not yield any significant relationships.

	Strongly agree		Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Statement 1	7	11.5	26	42.6	7	11.5	21	31.4	0	0.0	61	100.0
Statement 2	3	4.9	37	60.7	2	3.33	17	27.9	2	3.3	61	100.0
Statement 3	1	1.6	12	19.7	7	11.5	41	67.2	0	0.0	61	100.0

**Table 9.8A** Power relationships - major stakeholder perspective

The data in Table 9.8A indicates a mixed set of responses from the major stakeholders. Whilst the overall responses for statement number 1 indicate that more respondents agree (11.5% strongly agree and 42.6% agree) with the statement that all workers can speak their minds even if it means disagreeing with their superiors than those who disagree (34.4% disagree) which is not consistent with the power distance concept, for statement number 2 the majority of respondents (4.9% strongly agree and 60.72% agree) agree with it. For the third statement, the table indicates that more respondents disagree (67.2% disagree) with the statement that subordinates fear the authority of senior members than those who agree (1.6% strongly agree and 19.71% agree), which like the responses for the first statement is

not in line with the concept of long power distance characteristic of organisational climate of many developing countries (Hofstede, 1991).

Table 9.8B however shows a different set of results as more respondents disagree with statement number 1 (6.1 % strongly disagree and 51.0% disagree) than those who agree, with more respondents agreeing (12.2% strongly agree and 36.7% agree) to statement number 2 than those disagreeing (10.2% strongly disagree and 28.6% disagree) and still consistent with the concept more respondents agreeing to statement 3 (12.2% strongly agree and 39.8% agree) than those who disagree (13.3% strongly disagree and 19.4% disagree).

Statements	Strongly agree		Agree		Uncertain		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Statement 1	6	6.1	24	24.5	12	12.2	50	51.0	6	6.1	98	100.0
Statement 2	12	12.2	36	36.7	12	12.2	28	28.6	10	10.2	98	100.0
Statement 3	12	12.2	39	39.8	15	15.3	19	19.4	13	13.3	98	100.0

**Table 9.8B** Power relationships - library staff perspective

It is quite clear from the comparison of the two different results that the library staff view their daily working environments differently from the major stakeholders as they disagreed that all workers can speak their minds even if it means disagreeing with their superiors. From the library staff perspective respondents are often afraid of their superiors and hardly disagree with them. According to Hofstede (1991), these bosses, in such situations usually turn out to be autocratic or paternalistic. The result from the library staff perspective is quite conclusive and supports Hofstede's (1991) assertion that organisations in developing countries such as Ghana tend to show a high power distance and that there is a high degree of inequality in most of the organisations.

The implication of this result for strategy in the Ghanaian libraries is that the interdependence between superior and subordinate does not exist. There is more dependence of subordinates on bosses than the other way round. The emotional distance between them is large and subordinates will not normally approach and contradict bosses directly. For strategy to be successful the power distance must be small and dependence of subordinates must be limited so as to encourage more participation and interaction between bosses and subordinates.

• **Organisational Values And Beliefs**

Edgar Schein (Handy, 1985) described two contrasting cultures and stated that information strategy would flourish better in an organisation that operates under the following assumptions:

1. Truth and ideas come from individuals but not from those in higher status only
2. People milling about in conversation and discussion and there is no deference and obedience to rank.
3. Relationships are not basically vertical and subordinates can approach bosses to contradict them.
4. Open office landscapes and an air of informality exist.

Three more statements modelled on Schein’s assumptions were presented to the major stakeholders and the library staff in order to assess the effects of some of these values and beliefs on strategy in the Ghanaian university libraries.

The statements are:

- 1 With regard to operational matters in the library, every individual’s ideas are considered and truth does not come only from senior members.
- 2 Subordinates can approach senior members and contradict them.
- 3 There is deference and obedience to rank.

Tables 9.9A and 9.9B show the responses of the major stakeholders and the library staff respectively for the combined case studies as cross tabulation of responses by establishments were not statistically significant.

Statements	Strongly agree		Agree		Not sure		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Statement 1	8	13.1	20	32.8	10	16.4	9	14.8	14	23.0	61	100.0
Statement 2	3	4.9	23	37.7	14	23.0	10	16.4	11	18.0	61	100.0
Statement 3	7	11.5	42	68.9	12	19.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	61	100.0

**Table 9.9A** Responses to statements on beliefs and values-major stakeholders perspective

Table 9.9A indicates that more respondents agreed with the first statement (13.1% strongly agree and 32.8% agree) than those who disagreed (14.8% disagree and 23.0% strongly disagree). Similarly, more people agreed (4.9% strongly agreed and 37.7% agreed) with statement number 2 than those who disagreed (18.0% strongly disagreed and 16.4%



disagreed). Responses to these two statements are quite consistent with Schein's model. However, for the third statement i.e., 'there is deference and obedience to rank', the result is out of step with the model as the majority of respondents agreed that there is deference and obedience to rank (11.5% strongly agreed and 68.9% agreed). These mixed views reported by the major stakeholders do not conform with Schein's ideal organisation for strategic success. However, these results were not substantiated by the library staff. Table 9.9B shows the responses of the library staff.

Statement	Strongly agree		Agree		Uncertain		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Statement 1	11	11.2	13	13.3	13	13.2	42	42.9	6	6.1	98	100.0
Statement 2	9	9.3	15	15.5	17	17.5	40	41.2	16	16.5	97	100.0
Statement 3	24	24.5	59	60.2	5	5.1	8	8.2	2	2.0	98	100.0

**Table 9.9B** Responses to statements on beliefs and values-library staff perspective

They indicate that for the first two statements the library staff who disagree outnumbered those who agree. For statement number 1, 6.1% strongly disagree and 42.9% disagree with 11.2% strongly agreeing and 26.5% agreeing. For statement number 2, 16.5% strongly disagree and 41.2% disagree. The majority of respondents, 24.5% strongly agreed and 60.2% agreed with the third statement that there is deference and obedience to rank.

The results from the library staff perspective point to a culture opposite to the ideal one suggested by Schein. This one, as indicated by the library staff, affects the success of strategy. It is a culture in which truth and ideas come ultimately from those in higher positions and in which subordinates cannot usually approach senior members to contradict them. There is obedience and deference to rank. Clearly these responses from those who implement library strategies indicate that the university libraries embody many of the values of a strict discipline culture lacking the benefits of flatter organisation and the empowerment now sought in the 1990's and beyond as a more effective stance or structure on which to base competitive survival. Handy (1985) advises that such values and beliefs belong either to the past or to a very stable environment.

- **Tribalism**

In his study of ethnic diversity, Legun (1979) found that African countries have a greater degree of ethnic, cultural and linguistic pluralism than any other countries in the world. Price (1975) found that in Ghana, Chief Executive Officers are often subjected to role pressures from kinsmen and fellow tribesmen and in these circumstances tend to favour fellow tribesmen when it comes to recruitment and selection.

In strategy formulation, the universalistic principle of selection according to quality is what prevails. With this in mind the survey investigated the effect of tribalism on strategic planning in the Ghanaian university libraries.

Firstly, the major stakeholders were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with the statement - 'A particular tribe dominates the workforce in your library' The investigation was then repeated for the library staff. Table 9.10 shows the overall responses for the combined case study institutions.

	Major stakeholders		Library staff	
	no.	%	no.	%
Strongly agree	0	0.0	3	3.1
Agree	21	34.4	9	9.3
Uncertain/Not sure	9	14.8	17	17.5
Disagree	24	39.3	43	44.3
Strongly disagree	7	11.5	25	25.0
Total	61	100.0	97	100.0

**Table 9.10** Responses to tribal domination in libraries

Over 50% of the major stakeholders who responded felt that a particular tribe did not dominate the libraries' work force while a little over 30 % agreed with the statement. Those who agreed were mostly from UnivA where 11 out of the 15 respondents (73.3%) felt there was tribalism in their library. For the other four establishments the numbers of those who agreed were relatively low.

However, a significant number of the library staff, 68 out of 97 (25.8% strongly disagreed and 44.3% disagreed) that a particular tribe dominated the workforce in their libraries. At UnivA where it was found earlier that the major stakeholders were in agreement with the

statement, the views of the library staff, were contrary, as 13 out the 26 respondents (50%) disagreed with the statement, with only 4 agreeing and the rest uncertain.

Generally, the results from both perspectives indicate that a particular tribe does not dominate the workforce in the libraries. This finding is not consistent with Price's (1975) finding that Chief Executive Officers' selection and recruitment policies in Ghana are influenced by familial and tribal sentiments. However, it is an important finding for the success of strategy implementation as selection of quality staff for library positions is not likely to be threatened by tribal sentiments in the university libraries.

- ***Organisational Behaviour***

Certain aspects of behaviour in the working environment which were thought likely to impinge on the success of strategic planning were investigated. The immediate goal was to unveil any mismatches between work habits and management preferences.

In all the five case study institutions in Ghana the most commented-on behaviour was bad time-keeping at all levels, which respondents felt affected the delivery of services and quality of work. At UnivC, however, respondents remarked that bad time keeping was more apparent among the junior staff than the other senior staff. Typical responses are as follows:

Lateness is the number one problem for all of us, everybody. People come to work late and this affects our work especially the quality of service. (UnivA4)

Well lateness, some people especially if you look at those in the lower ranks but those who are sub-professionals are a bit conscientious, most of them are quite punctual. The senior members are much better and are usually not too late. (UnivC1).

The level of staff commitment to work was also found to be very low as remarked by the majority of staff in all the libraries. This, they believed, affected the involvement in and commitment to the strategic planning process and they feared that its long-term effectiveness was in doubt. Examples of some of the comments are as follows:

I will say they are not committed. Very few are in the library system. You give them work and they do not do it satisfactorily which is not good for planning and the achievement of goals.(UnivA13)

Well there are often times when people especially the junior staff, do not really put in the maximum effort you expect of them. This affects our plans because they do not put in their maximum. UnivC1)

In UnivA, UnivB, UnivC and UnivE another aspect of employees' behaviour that was seen as counter-productive was attitudes to working periods. Very many workers were described as not spending their entire time at their desks, leaving assigned jobs uncompleted or haphazardly done. Typical responses from two major stakeholders are as follows:

Sometimes workers have outside engagements and because the work is not satisfying they wouldn't stay from 8 to 5 p.m. Some of the staff are also involved in community activities. So almost every day they have to find time to attend to these things. When it is not time for them to go they sneak away and stop whatever they are doing (UnivE2)

Yes, work habit, well moving around without purpose. Not staying by their desks to finish assigned work (UnivC1).

There were indications from most of the respondents that these negative aspects of organisational behaviour by some of the library staff had strong links with the Ghanaian macro-environment. Though some respondents recognised that this trait of behaviour ran counter to the attainment of library objectives, they expressed the view that some aspects of the behaviour were the direct consequence of the poor reward-system of work in Ghana. Other interviewees also tried to link the unsatisfactory behaviour to the poor economic climate and inadequate public transport. The following responses, given by some of the library management, illustrate their beliefs about the link between the organisational behaviour and the external environment:

I do agree that punctuality is a problem but I believe it is the economy. Certain issues affect you personally. You must move to solve your economic problems. It is an individual issue. Many problems and people must survive. I know it affects work but as I said it depends on the individual. (UnivC3)

Well, the main problem with us is that a lot of workers are off campus and the problem of getting to the work place early to start work is difficult therefore lateness is bound to occur. It is due to lack of adequate public transport. (UnivC2)

Other respondents, mainly the university librarians, also conceded that some of the behaviour stemmed from traditions they had inherited from their predecessors which they found very difficult to change:

Lateness is one of the bad habits. The former librarian had not been firm with discipline and this is what has affected us. I must say that the problem is now chronic and will be difficult to change (UnivB4)

The problem now is endemic. Previous heads have gone along with the situation without checking and have even allowed people to get

away with it and the practice has gone on for so long. I believe there has to be a change. They always attribute their behaviour to economic problems. If this continues, then the economic problems will always stay with us. (UnivA2)

Several respondents also explained that some aspects of this behaviour were accepted social norms which could be traced to the Ghanaian social structures and remarked that it would be difficult if not impossible to change as supervisors, middle and top managers were equally guilty:

There is too much familiarity between management and other staff. Some management staff also come in late, they loiter about so how do they correct these things. These things are traditional. If someone leaves his job to attend a funeral there is not much management can do because funeral is regarded as a social function you cannot stop any one from going to a funeral. I believe these things are part of us and will be very difficult to change and I wonder if we can. (UnivC4)

When the same question on the effects of organisational behaviour on strategy was put to the librarians in the UK study, responses contrasted with those obtained from the Ghanaian respondents. Responses of the interviewees indicate a certain degree of homogeneity in values and beliefs across all the case study institutions. The general consensus was that there were no apparent mismatches between management preferences and the way staff carried out their duties:

I don't think we have any serious mismatches. We don't have things like lateness, loitering. No we don't. (UK11)

However, to a lesser degree but not impinging directly on the success of their strategies some respondents across all the case study institutions reported that some work-related pressures have been put on library management over the last few years to increase staff numbers at service points:

I don't think there are any such habits. Perhaps the only difficulty has been the staff still only a few of them who face a lot of pressure at public service points. They would like more money put into more staff for public service points but that is where it ends. (UK51)

In two of the UK university libraries most of the respondents also mentioned resistance to change as a result of staff anxieties about the increase in computer-related functions. This, they argued, had come about because of the lack of understanding of management's initial policies on staff restructuring. This situation had not developed into any negative

organisational behaviour because management had been quick to make available accurate information on the changes. The following statement made by one of the university librarians illustrates a rare organisational problem and management's reaction to it:

There was resistance to change with new building, the new resource centre. That created some anxious moments for some of the old staff. There were quite a number of staff who were not very certain of their involvement. We had to explain matters as they really were immediately to them because there was little understanding of what was going to happen. We have now restored the right climate and there has been no harm done. (UK22)

In the Ghanaian university libraries there have not been any large scale attempts to manage these aspects of behaviour in order to promote the success of strategy implementation. Explicit attention has not been given to matching strategy and culture. However, attempts that have been made so far to curtail the problem have proved to be ineffective as these aspects of behaviour are as rampant now as they were a decade ago

What was found to be encouraging was the willingness of some of the respondents, particularly those at UnivA, UnivC and UnivD, to effect cultural changes so as to boost the chances for the success of strategic planning. One of the respondents suggested education and motivation as some of the methods to help the change:

To discourage these negative behaviours we need to give the workers incentives They need to be trained and then promoted and there is the need to let them know that their work is valued that is what I am willing to do. (UnivA13)

However, a significant number of the respondents, particularly at UnivA, UnivD and UnivE also expressed the view that there were no immediate solutions to the problems as they had become chronic and continued to defy solution. They also explained that the problems had deep roots in their corporate as well as the Ghanaian social order:

You see the attitude of not coming to work on time, the attitude of doing the least possible, the attitude of knocking off early, the attitude of getting up and going to all kinds of places for long periods. People don't sit on their buttocks to do the work. It is a national disease and the registry is the worst place so the library staff always refer you to the registry if you try to control these habits. Well, we try to lead by example but you see, people have done this for far too long so if you try to work hard they tend to believe you are doing the wrong thing. (UnivA2)

The effect of organisational behaviour on strategy from the library staff perspective was subsequently investigated. Using some of the major issues that emerged from the interviews subjects were asked to agree or disagree that a particular behaviour affected library services by indicating 'yes' for agree and 'no' for disagree. Table 9.11 shows the responses of the library staff.

Behaviour	Yes responses		No responses		Total	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Lateness to work	58	65.2	31	34.8	89	100
Lax supervision	46	51.7	43	48.3	89	100
Loitering about	43	48.3	46	51.7	89	100
Laziness on part of workers	31	34.8	58	65.2	89	100
Others	7	7.9	82	92.1	89	100

**TABLE 9.11** Responses on the effects of specific behaviours on library services

Using simple majority views, it can be said that lax supervision and lateness to work were considered by 51.7% and 65.2% of respondents respectively as affecting library services. 7.9% of the respondents also reported other factors that they felt affected their libraries. Analysis of some of these factors showed that they were more causes of particular behaviour than behavioural practices themselves. Some of them are as follows:

Lack of motivation

Low salaries and no incentives lead to low productivity etc.

The causes of some aspects of organisational behaviour, particularly bad time keeping were explored further. Subjects were asked to choose from a number of reasons why they are sometimes late for work. Table 9.12 shows the result of the causes of bad time keeping which has been cross-tabulated by institution.

Cause	UnivA		UnivB		UnivC		UnivD		UnivE		All	
	N=26		N=24		N=23		N=17		N=8		N=98	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Lateness is a national culture	6	20	10	14	4	19	4	13	3	5	27	71
Senior officers cannot check because they are equally guilty	14	12	5	19	8	15	5	12	0	8	32	66
Family problems	12	14	6	18	7	16	9	8	3	5	37	61
Transportation problems	23	3	23	1	19	4	14	3	7	1	86	12
Lack of motivation	9	17	16	8	3	20	1	16	2	6	31	67
Other reasons	3	23	0	24	0	23	0	17	1	7	4	94

**Table 9.12** Responses on causes for bad time keeping in the Ghanaian university libraries, by institution-library staff perspective

Table 9.12 shows that for the combined case studies 86 out of 98 respondents (87.8%) reported that transportation problems were the major cause of bad time-keeping in the libraries. This is not surprising because very few of the library staff in all the libraries were found to have their own means of transport while the rest of them have to use public transport which in Ghana, as in most developing countries, is very unreliable.

For the rest of the factors the overall responses indicate that fewer than 40% of the respondents indicated that any of the factors listed were responsible for the bad time keeping in the libraries. However some minor differences exist between some of the responses by institution. For the second cause i.e., senior officers cannot check because they are equally guilty, 14 out of the 26 respondents (53.8%) reported that this was a cause for bad time keeping in UnivA. This indicates that probably if the senior officers could lead by example as reported by one interviewee, this behaviour could be curtailed or even be eliminated.

Nine out of 17 respondents (52.9%) at UnivD also reported that family problems accounted for bad time keeping in their library whilst the lack of job satisfaction as a cause of bad time keeping was reported by 16 out of 24 respondents (66.7%) at UnivB. These differences between the libraries do call for separate actions if the management of these specific behaviours are to be effective .



The overall finding as far as the factors for bad time keeping is concerned is that transportation problems were seen by over 80% of the population as the major causes for bad time keeping in the libraries. This finding is important to the strategy implementation process. Firstly, strategists will have to find a way of solving the problem so as to cut down the effect it has on staff time keeping. Secondly it reinforces Bowman and Asch (1996) suggestion that there is a strong link between organisational culture and the external environment and that proper management of the external environment is necessary to achieve a fit between culture and strategy.

#### **9.4 INTERNAL LIBRARY POLITICS**

The origins of the political perspective on strategic decision making lie in the political science literature of the 1950's. Various authors of that era saw politics as disruptive and in some sense saw organisational politics as divergent from and antithetical to formal organisational goals (Droy and Romon, 1990). These perspectives have traditionally drawn upon Durkheimian social theory (Durkheim, 1947). Social organisation, for Durkheim, is a delicate moral order that may easily break down into anomic disorder and disintegration should 'egoistic' self-interest fuel behaviour in violation of the 'scientific' understanding of society as an interdependent objective reality ( Durkheim, 1947).

One implication of the traditional beliefs on strategy is that political activity is seen as interfering with planning, that planning is an apolitical, objective exercise that is undermined by the pursuit of self-interest through confrontation and conflict (Mintzberg, 1994).

In the 1970's and early 1980's the political model emerged as a reaction to the prevailing economic assumptions that organisations possess a single, superordinate goal. The basic assumptions are that: organisations are comprised of people with partially conflicting preferences (Allison, 1971; Pettigrew, 1973) ; strategic decision making is ultimately political in the sense that powerful people get what they want (March, 1962 ; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1974) ; people engage in political tactics such as co-optation, coalition formation, and use of information to enhance their power (Pettigrew, 1973; Pfeffer, 1981, 1992).

The recent view of the 1990's is also based on the assumptions that politics are triggered by power imbalances. Frustrated executives turn to politics as a last resort in autocratic and

power vacuum situations. Subordinates also regard politics as a last resort to get their views considered by management (Eisenhardt and Zbaracki, 1992).

#### ***9.4.1 Internal Library Politicisation In Universities In Ghana***

The implications of all the models as described above for politics in organisations are all relevant to modern strategic management. While accepting the classicist view that politics has a negative effect on planning it is also argued that political processes are spontaneous, natural and necessary phenomena in an organisation.

Mintzberg, Quinn and Ghoshal (1995) argue that politics has functional as well as dysfunctional roles in an organisation. Based on the theories described an exploration of the internal political activities in the university libraries was conducted.

Political relationships were found to exist in all the libraries studied. In UnivC, UnivD and UnivE the majority of the respondents reported interpersonal conflicts. In these universities most respondents and quite a number at UnivA and UnivB attributed interpersonal conflicts to a clash between staff's personal ambitions and the existing values in the libraries as institutions charged with delivering a service to the university community. Respondents remarked on conflicts that resulted from of correction or reprimand of those who side-stepped the established procedures for work in favour of their individual value systems and interests:

For individual conflicts it often starts with the few conformists trying to check or correct those who do not do the right things but choose to pursue their own plans and ambitions neglecting what goes on here. People hold their anger in such circumstances for days. It's a problem. (UnivC4)

The majority of respondents at UnivA and UnivB and some at UnivC and UnivE, however, regarded interpersonal politics in their libraries as a natural phenomenon which reflects personal ambitions, personal animosities and personal characteristics:

I would add that individual conflicts which you will agree is natural resulting from the ambitions of people and their personality clashes. We have situations where people's values are against those of others or you can say different perceptions to things or even to life. (UnivA4)

Interdepartmental conflicts among library staff emerged strongly among a considerable number of interviewees at UnivA, UnivB and UnivC. Respondents expressed the view that

because of the functional structures in the libraries, and the strict specialisation of library duties, quite often, duties that overlap are difficult to assign to a particular department and this causes conflicts between the departments involved. The following is an example to illustrate the existence of interdepartmental conflicts:

Departmental conflicts feature prominently because those of us in the cataloguing department we feel that we do not have to catalogue periodicals, but they also say we should catalogue them. I feel they have to catalogue their own periodicals, sometimes we refuse to catalogue them so there is a problem between us. That is only one example; also, when some people in reader services are asked to shelf books in other sections. (UnivA4)

Coalitions among some staff were not found to be regular habits of the internal politicisation process but respondents remarked that, in the past, staff, particularly the junior ones, had used coalitions to play the 'insurgency game', whereby they came together to resist certain decisions of library management and, in extreme cases, some corporate (university) decisions. Their actions were usually in the form of prolonged protests against formal authorities. The use of coalitions to fight management decisions was referred to by several interviewees at UnivA, UnivB, UnivC and UnivE but not at UnivD. A typical statement that was expressed is as follows:

Coalition among some staff is not very regular: the only situations in the past when junior staff especially form groups to fight issues out with library administration and sometimes they go so far as even to involve the registry. These are informal not TUC or TEWU even when they have disagreements with librarian they come together. (UnivA3)

In UnivA, UnivB and UnivC, the activities of certain individuals were reported by many of the respondents as influencing other staff. In UnivA and UnivB several respondents cited situations where informal leaders had been able to influence other staff to act contrary to management preferences. In UnivC, in particular, with the exception of the University Librarian, the activities of informal leaders were viewed by all the respondents to have had some positive effects on library service and development. One respondent cited an instance when an informal leader exhibited true leadership qualities and was relied upon by many of the junior staff to explain management policies and how to respond to certain operational demands and issues which otherwise they would never have understood:

I don't blame the informal leaders in the sense that they have helped the library. This one person I have in mind showed good leadership qualities and I think our leaders need to learn from him.

The person I know shows qualities to lead, though informal he explains problems about work and what is expected of some of the workers and in fact many other organisational matters. You see the formal leaders are not easily approachable. (UnivC4)

In the survey, the awareness of the political features identified in the interviews was investigated using the library staff sample. Table 9.13 shows the 'yes' and 'no' responses to the question as to whether staff had knowledge of the existence of a specific political feature in their libraries.

	UnivA		UnivB		UnivC		UnivD		UnivE		All	
	N=26		N=24		N=23		N=17		N=8		N=98	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Influential groups	5	21	2	22	1	22	2	15	1	7	11	87
Informal leaders	6	20	8	16	4	19	1	16	0	8	19	79
Departmental conflicts	0	26	2	22	3	20	3	14	0	8	8	90
Interpersonal conflicts	10	16	14	10	5	18	3	14	0	8	32	66
Others	1	25	1	23	0	23	1	16	0	8	3	95

**Table 9.13** Awareness of political features in the libraries by institution

The results indicate that for the combined libraries, the majority of the respondents did not bear out the findings from the interviews. For all the political features presented to the subjects, with the exception of interpersonal conflicts, over 70% of the respondents were not aware of the existence of any of the remaining political features. Across the establishments differences in opinions were not significant. However, responses for the existence of interpersonal conflicts indicate that 14 out of 24 respondents (58.3%) at UnivB reported awareness of this feature in their library. The conclusion that can be drawn from this data is that the awareness of political processes and their effects on library development of the library staff perspective does not corroborate the evidence from the interviews. Though the number of respondents indicating the existence of these features is small this does not rule out the fact that some features do exist; what is probably happening is that the effects of these activities have been minimal which negates the traditional thinking that politics thwarts the achievement of organisational goals. If this is the case, then the exploitation by management of some of these political features, for example by co-opting influential staff into the decision-making process, in line with the other models of politics in organisations, might enhance the success of strategy implementation process.

An exploration of how the major stakeholders have managed these political features shows that across all the case study establishments library management have not exploited these political relationships as they are underlined in the political model (Pettigrew, 1973; Pfeffer, 1981). They rather showed very little understanding of these political relationships that are found in their working environments and thus have not used them to facilitate the process of strategy implementation. What they have done in the past was to co-exist with these features and in certain instances tried to eliminate the political processes when they felt threatened by them, which is consistent with the classical concept of organisational politics. Some of the responses from two University Librarians on how they have managed the identified political relationships are presented to illustrate this point:

You see a lot of all this depends on leadership. In my own case there is nothing that I am afraid of as far as these relationships are concerned. Because I joined the library from the teaching field, I am regarded as an outsider. It doesn't worry me at all when I hear of anything that is likely to affect any procedures, I confront those concerned and deal with them straightaway. I break these so called influential groups down I mean their activities. (UnivA2)

I try to live with it. I ignore it. It doesn't really bother me. If it becomes unbearable I'll call a meeting to talk to those concerned but I must say I have lived with it. (UnivE1)

## **9.5 SERVICE DEVELOPMENT AND STRATEGIC ALLIANCES**

### ***9.5.1 Current Service Development***

The policies establishing the current services provided by the university libraries in Ghana were enacted with the acts that established the university libraries and the universities. The thinking that underlay the development of services during the 1960's for UnivA, UnivB and UnivC was to build a comprehensive collection of all kinds of recorded materials to meet the needs of teachers, students, researchers and other staff of the university community. These were mainly the traditional services of acquiring, processing and disseminating books and journals.

The acquisitions policy at the beginning of the libraries' development was to purchase one or more copies of everything that was published in the disciplines taught at the universities and was affordable by acquisition librarians but not what the users were particularly asking for. As a result, before 1970 there was a huge boost of building up that stock that gave a

good base on which the current stock is developed; since their establishment, the libraries have had well-formulated selection and acquisition policies, which have been passed on from one acquisition librarian to the next, regardless of changes in institutional environments. One acquisitions librarian commented as follows:

Well, I have an acquisitions policy which was given to me when I assumed office. It is the policy of the library. I go strictly according to what it entails when I have to order books. (UnivA5)

There have not been any significant reviews of the acquisitions policies of the libraries which reflect the services delivered over the years. The policies themselves do not include specific standards for providing a minimum library service. Little mention is made of specific library service objectives; therefore, the essential prerequisite of defining service needs is lacking in these documents, as was observed.

At the corporate levels, too, only the overall goals of the libraries have been expressed in university documents without any set of standards/guidelines for university library service. As a result, the performance of libraries is not measured at the corporate level. The libraries have not, therefore, had any standards to live up to. This has drastically affected the pattern of use. In UnivA, UnivB and UnivC, in particular, the pattern of use has changed as services are now more concentrated on students because a considerable number of faculty members does not use the library services. One university librarian remarked:

Our services are for students and lecturers, in fact the entire university community. As you yourself know most of the lecturers do not come here to read. I will rather say that for some time now, let me say since mid 1980's, I would say the majority of our users have been the students and our services have been tailored to them. (UnivA2)

The reliance on donations as the only mode of acquisition for some of the university libraries especially in the early part of the 1980's, had a negative effect on their service development, a situation that also contributed to the decline in faculty use of library facilities. Collection management was at some stages rendered impossible as donors, though sensitive to the libraries' problems, hardly applied any yardstick to measure the relevance of materials to the needs of the university community. Many acquisitions were unusable and irrelevant. The needs of users were hardly met, as one University Librarian explained:

Donations assumed inordinate importance as our only method of acquisition in those circumstances. Donors like Ranfurly library services and the British Council were okay but the others gave materials that were not relevant. In fact, in the 1980s, we experienced no growth at all. We had no book - fund. We were unable to meet the needs of any of the sections of the university community. (UnivA2)

The current services in all five university libraries in Ghana still remain the traditional ones of acquisition and cataloguing of printed media, circulation, reference and periodical control, in stark contrast to what was discovered in the United Kingdom institutions studied where electronic forms of records and the means of access to them were found to have made the libraries adopt a number of new services. There are an array of new products that have revolutionised the way library services are performed. All the libraries investigated have local automated systems operating in support of their internal operations in cataloguing, technical processing and so on. The traditional functions of the libraries - acquisition, storage and preservation were found to have changed or to be changing.

The methods employed in collection management were found to be different from the Ghanaian situation as methods of publication and distribution relating to research needs and programmes, instructional needs and public services needs had all been automated. A range of other information media and technologies were observed, notable ones were microfilms, video-audio tapes, computer hardware and databases and optical disks and their means of communication.

In three of the UK university libraries, respondents mentioned the decline in print media which, they explained, was a deliberate attempt to focus on access. One University Librarian explained the need for access instead of collection management as a means of saving space and economising on resources:

Here we talk about collection development access versus holdings. I think you see this in practice; there are different approaches between different groups of universities here in the UK. With the new universities, whatever their preferences, they haven't the resources to go and buy all this print or paper journals and bookstock. We haven't the history of building those collection up so the short cut is to get access to it as much as we possibly can electronically so the library becomes filled with information technology and is called a learning centre. (UK22)

All the respondents in the UK study demonstrated a shift from the more traditional concept of acquisition to a demand-led book acquisition where book acquisitions policy is based on

use by readers but not on any academic preconception of what the make-up of a library's collections actually ought to be. One University Librarian remarked as follows:

Our ultimate goal is to provide service to the readers' desks. Over the years we have moved to targeting which means we provide for our users, specific information to meet their particular needs. Our library's overall collections have shown not too much growth as before, the number of books reserved for students reached a new record level last year. Our inter library loans service has also shut up so what is happening is we are gradually moving more to controlled access policy where books are targeted with great care and effort to students' needs. (UK51)

In three of the UK case study institutions in particular, the interviewees also commented on current developments in periodical acquisitions policies which were changing the service in that direction too. The most common view that was expressed was that the libraries were abandoning the generalist approach to periodical acquisitions policy, whereby cuts have been made against titles apparently valued by nobody. Single general periodical funds are becoming a thing of the past; instead there has been a move to assigning funds subject area by subject area, as remarked by one interviewee:

Across the board cuts have not been done in our situation. We are departing from that historical baseline. We are allocating periodical funds subject by subject. You see different universities have adopted different approaches. We are not maintaining a single periodicals funds anymore. (UK42)

### ***9.5.2 Future developments in services***

In commenting on the likely pattern of future development in Ghanaian university libraries, the interviewees at UnvA, UnivB and UnivC showed considerable knowledge of the products that would change the current services to match any present day academic library in any part of the world. They expressed the need for technical change and their will to learn was a vital asset though they felt strongly that resource constraints would not make their desire a reality in the short term:

We need to change the ways we provide our services now. New technology will make the discharge of services faster and we will be able to cope with the increase in student population. We have staff who have done self tutoring in computer programming and have even written some library programmes. You know the problem still remains money and I don't see how we are going to solve it now. (UnivB4)



At UnivD and UnivE, it was difficult to generalise from the varied perspectives presented on specific aspects of service development for the future. Some examples of the comments are as follows:

I would like to be positive, but there is a particular service we would have wanted to provide that is the area where students can sit and not read but discuss issues. (UnivD1)

I would suggest that we should be providing indexing and outreach programmes. (UnivD2)

I will suggest SDI service and exhibitions. (UnivD4)

I think in the next five years we should expand our services to include consultancy and other services. (UnivE1)

The more positive approach showed by respondents at UnivA, UnivB and UnivC to a future in which technology would change current services and enhance efficiency underlies their awareness of trends in current information services and products in modern academic librarianship, though they do acknowledge the difficulties and challenges in pursuing such strategic issues in the short-term. For the respondents at UnivD and UnivE, it appears that survival of current traditional services of their libraries were their major concern. Electronic forms of records and the means for accessing them still remains a dream to many of the respondents who have resigned themselves to providing services that simply preserve their printed records and provide access to them.

In four of the university libraries in the UK, the respondents, in commenting on the pattern of future development in services, were generally positive despite the changes in the resourcing of the universities. They expressed the hope that user education and related study skills would be broadened to facilitate more autonomous self-directed patterns of learning. Information and reference services would be improved for the same reason with a much increased emphasis on a technical approach with its strong IT focus. In addition, interviewees explained that there would be a corresponding change of emphasis in collection management, with greatly increased provision of networked access to full text and bibliographic databases, electronic journals and datasets. They commented that the libraries would follow an increasingly multiple media and multimedia approach in relation to issues such as the provision of resources packs and tutor-authored materials. They also

mentioned the implementation of strategies for access and distribution with full regard to copyright and licensing restrictions:

With full regard to copyright regulations we hope as part of our resources learning programme a develop multiple media and multimedia approach in providing resource packs and self-tutoring materials and improve the ways by which students can access . As I said earlier this is consistent with our objective for our resource learning centre to support student learning. (UK41)

### ***9.5.3 Strategic Alliances (Co-operation and resource sharing)***

In business strategy partnerships have been viewed as purposive strategic relationships between independent firms who share compatible goals, strive for mutual benefit, and acknowledge a high level of mutual interdependence. They join efforts to achieve goals that each firm, acting alone, could not attain easily. The formation of these alliances and partnerships is motivated primarily by the desire to gain competitive advantage in the market place (Powell, 1990; Bleeke and Ernst, 1991). Partnership can afford a firm access to new technologies or markets; the ability to provide a wider range of products/services; access to knowledge beyond the firm's boundaries; sharing of risks; and access to complementary skills (Powell, 1987).

Research on strategic alliances has posited theories addressing the reasons why firms enter into closer business relationships. Some of these are, for example, transactions cost analysis (Williamson, 1975), resource dependence (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978) and social exchange theory (Anderson and Narus, 1984). Each makes predictions about when partnerships will be successful. However, the formulation of such partnerships has sometimes had its drawbacks and in many cases they have not succeeded (Harrigan, 1985, 1988).

Similarly, libraries have had a long tradition of co-operation with one another for the same reasons. There are many examples of local co-ordinating and networking arrangements between libraries, some involving both academic and public libraries, some simply academic ones.

According to Genus (1995) the strategic nature of this co-operation is what is essential to the success of the partnerships and hence to the success of strategic planning. The results of an evaluation of the strategic nature of co-operation among Ghanaian university libraries

have been compared under similar circumstances with the UK university libraries studied and are presented below.

#### ***9.5.3.1 Reasons For Co-operation***

University libraries in Ghana have traditionally co-operated with one another in order to benefit from each other's resources, as a result of the rising costs of publications in a severely depressed economy and in order to help maintain their collections and services. However, this collaborative effort on the part of the libraries has been informal, as noted by one of the respondents:

We have had co-operation for along time, may be for over 20 years. It has not been formal. It has been gentlemen's agreement.  
(UnivA2)

In the university libraries in the UK, the reasons for co-operation were expressed in a much wider context than in the Ghanaian study. Sharing some of the reasons expressed by the interviewees in Ghana, the respondents also expressed the pursuit of scale as a reason for partnerships. They accepted the fact that no one library has the capability to stand alone. All of them remarked that collaboration with other information centres had reduced the pressures on space and stock and had helped to reduce acquisitions costs because of the coordinated purchasing policies they have with other centres. By so doing, as one of them remarked, they have been able to broaden the range of facilities available to users from collaborating institutions:

Our users now have a range of facilities which will not have otherwise been available to them here in our library. We are aware of some of the main acquisitions of some our partners and this helps. (UK41)

#### ***9.5.3.2 Nature And Scope Of Co-operation***

In the UK study, the respondents stated that co-operation exists at different levels. Co-operation exists between libraries in different higher education institutes in areas where there is more than one higher education library. There are also local co-ordinating and networking arrangements between other types of libraries, with the British Library serving as a hub for inter library functions. In addition, respondents discussed the availability of regional lending arrangements amongst all kinds of libraries, with academic libraries being substantial net lenders. Educational, national and international networks were also mentioned by all respondents and one university librarian remarked on his library's

membership of the UK Consortium of University and Research Libraries (CURL) and the benefits which his library's alliance with the Research Libraries Group (RLG) has brought:

Co-operation is part of our work. We have some effective sharing of resources with a number of partners. Our recent membership of CURL and RLG (USA) has provided important opportunities for developing inter-library partnerships. (UK11)

Networks, as a result of developments in computer technologies, were also mentioned by most of the interviewees. Links with the UK's Joint Academic Network (JANET), BIDS and locally loaded databases such as MEDLINE and searches using World Wide Web were cited.

In three of the UK institutions which are located in fairly big cities respondents reported that they collaborate with several institutions in close proximity in sharing the burden of opening outside core hours. They also shared a co-ordinated acquisition and retention policy in appropriate areas though they mentioned that the smaller institutions in the joint agreements benefited more as they were able to gain access to facilities on a scale they would not have been able to support solely from their own resources:

We have collaborative arrangements with our sister universities. I suppose the new universities benefit more from our collections because they cannot depend just on their own collections. They have not been universities for long. We have some of their students using our resources, sometimes when we are open they are shut. We have a shared opening hours particularly outside the normal opening periods. UK42)

Ghanaian university libraries have had a long history of co-operative ventures. Most of the interviewees reported traditional types of co-operative activities in the past. These included co-operative acquisition or union lists and an interlibrary lending venture with the British Library. The sharing of common cataloguing problems and training in standardised cataloguing practices were also mentioned. However, almost all the interviewees described these co-operative activities as 'informal' and expressed a general dissatisfaction about past and present co-operative activities which fell short of expectations:

Some attempts have been made in the past but without success. We had three failed attempts to establish union catalogues between the three universities between 1967 and 1980. My overall view is that we have not performed as expected in that direction. Many factors I suppose accounted for this. (UnivA2)

### ***9.5.3.3 Barriers To Co-operation***

Several of the respondents from the Ghanaian study accepted the need to co-operate and develop the nation's information resources better than ever. They cited as major resources public libraries, special libraries, government departments, academic libraries, regional and international resources such as Pan African Information System for Development (PADIS) and the Internet. They also commented that past and present co-operative activities had not been properly co-ordinated and that no attempts had been made so far to include any co-operative elements in the long term planning of the university library services.

These views contrasted with the experiences shared by the respondents in the UK study who reported effective local information plans (LIPs) and the successful integration of co-operative activities into their thinking on strategic decision making. However, the costs of co-operation were expressed by many as a barrier to expansion of current co-operative activities:

We have borne most of the costs of co-operation. Some of these costs have been indirect such as salary-related overheads. We did have some money from the Funding Council for co-operative activities but this has not been enough. I must however say that a lot has been achieved. (UK41)

The barriers to effective co-operation mentioned by the majority of respondents in all the case study institutions in Ghana were many and varied; most of them were also found to corroborate evidence from the documentary sources. The key issues that were cited most frequently across all the libraries were the lack of funds and the lack of competent staff to man information systems in Ghana, a consequence of limited training facilities in the country:

Networking is an expensive undertaking which needs firm financial backing from the authorities. Major libraries in Ghana are all government funded and do suffer the results of government insolvency. Also few professionals possess the skills required to handle the technical side of networks. Inadequate training largely accounts for this situation. (UnivC4)

The underdeveloped telecommunication infrastructure was cited by several of the respondents at all the libraries. They remarked that the telephone is not widespread and postal systems had proved too expensive for individual libraries involved in interlibrary loans with the British Library:

Our telephone system is not well developed and you know interlibrary loans especially borrowing beyond the borders of Ghana is important. The British Library has been the principal resource but the high postal charges the library incurs in returning borrowed materials and paying the subscriptions is difficult to bear. (UnivA2)

The low level of library services in general, particularly the absence of a national library coupled with the lack of a national information policy, were considered by many respondents in UnivA, UnivB, UnivC and UnivD as constraining the effectiveness of co-operation:

In Great Britain, for example, the British Library has a very strong function as the inter-library centre in the country but in Ghana we don't have one like that. Our public libraries are not well developed; they hardly contain materials of interest to universities. We don't have a national information policy. So commitment from government to co-operative activities and support is lacking. (UnivB4)

In UnivA, UnivB and UnivC, where co-operative activities were noted as having been in operation in the 1960s and 1970s, the majority of the respondents reported the lack of commitment at the national level, institutional level and among partners as having contributed immensely to the failure of past attempts at co-operation. They also remarked that co-operation at that time was informal and was not backed by government funding, interest or legislation. At the institutional levels, co-operation was said to have lacked the support of the parent institutions.

Many of the respondents commented on the low level of co-ordination between the tasks of participating libraries. There was therefore a lack of trust among the libraries participating in the collaborative ventures. Some of the leaders from the participating libraries were said to have failed on several occasions to attend meetings to discuss common concerns. Others were also found to be unreliable in fulfilling obligations regarding the exchange of materials. The University Librarian of UnivC remarked that:

Before co-operation finally came to a halt some parties, their leaders often failed to attend meetings regarding our joint concerns. They were not sending their materials, when they did it, it was not on time. In fact they could not be relied upon anymore so gradually the whole partnership broke down. (UnivC2)

Poor communication among participating libraries was also mentioned by many of the respondents across UnivA, UnivB and UnivC as having affected co-operation. (The quality

of communication was found to be poor at that time). Information sent to parties was sometimes found to be inaccurate, untimely and inadequate. The materials and information exchanged sometimes arrived so late that potential users had completely lost interest in them. As these difficulties continued interlibrary conflicts were said by the respondents to have set in. Though the respondents felt such conflicts were only to be expected because of differences in culture across the libraries, they were unable to resolve them and this affected the success of the links:

There was the problem of differences in working styles. This resulted in clashes between some of the top people. I remember one between our librarian and the former librarian of... these were not resolved and that might have helped to kill off the co-operation. These things happen but then it depends on how you tackle them but we didn't. (UnivA5)

Some of these findings for the failure of the earlier co-operative activities in the Ghanaian university libraries are quite consistent with the emerging research on partnership relationships and their negative effect on the success of strategic alliances. The lack of trust and commitment and its effect on the success of co-operation in the Ghanaian study supports Anderson and Narus (1990) and Anderson and Weitz's (1992) suggestions that trust and commitment in a co-operative venture are important in mollifying a partner's fear of opportunistic behaviour and increasing the chances of strategic alliances success. They further show the positive relationship between trust and satisfaction and profits (success). This study also adds credence to the notion that communication problems are associated with a lack of success in strategic alliances (Sullivan and Peterson, 1982; Mohr, 1989). Without good quality communication and participation, the success of the partnerships is placed in doubt, as was found in the Ghanaian study.

## **9.6 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY (IT) AND PERFORMANCE EVALUATION**

### **9.6.1 Introduction**

The pre-1990 IT literature focused on the strategic importance of IT adoption and innovation, and reflected a general optimism concerning IT's potential for creating competitive advantage (Benjamin et al, 1984; Cash and Konsynski, 1985; Porter, 1985). For example Neo (1988) found that the most successful IT implementors were those who had already implemented systems, having built an infrastructure of IT experience and

learning. The literature was almost uniformly positive that ITs produced sustainable competitive advantages.

The risks and costs of IT investments and the difficulties in integrating IT with strategy and some empirical findings such as Baker and Kaufman (1988) have produced another perspective - the resource - based 'strategic necessity hypothesis' (Clemons and Rows, 1991). This suggests that IT creates advantage by leveraging or exploiting pre-existing complementary human and business resources. In their studies sophisticated IT users did not generally outperform less sophisticated users, but those who combined IT performance with critical complementary resources did gain performance advantages. The general conclusions of most of the studies (e.g., Holland, Lockett and Blackman, 1992; Henderson and Venkatraman, 1993; Kettinger at al, 1994) on this new perspective is that IT advantage depends heavily on 'fitting the pieces together' i.e., exploiting relationships among complementary organisational resources such as IT training, IT investment, IT infrastructure, IT-strategy integration, team management, commitment by leadership, organisational flexibility etc.

In university library management information technology has transformed working practices across the whole spectrum of library operations over the last 30 years. An assessment of the current picture of computerisation across the Ghanaian university library services and the UK university libraries studied and its relationships to effective strategic management is presented.

### ***9.6.2 IT infrastructure***

At the time the interviews with the major stakeholders were conducted, a very low IT presence was found in all the university libraries in Ghana with slightly varying degrees of IT presence in individual institutions. None of the libraries had a local area network of computers or was connected to any wide area network. UnivA was found to have the highest number of PCs, E-mail and CD-ROM facilities with UnivD and UnivE having the least number of PCs with no E-mail or CD-ROM equipment. The knowledge of the presence of an IT infrastructure from the respondents' points of view, in all case study libraries in Ghana, was not found to be universal as many of the respondents presented different and fragmented views on the presence of computers and related equipment



available to their individual libraries. Some of the different comments from respondents of the same library are presented to illustrate the point:

I think we have 5 PCs, one E-mail and one CD-ROM equipment (UnivA2)

I can't give you the precise equipment we have or even what we use it for. We have the E-mail service and we hope to complete automation by 2000. (UnivA3)

I think you have to see Mr... he is in charge I can't tell you. (UnivA4)

We have only two PCs, that is all. We have not even started using them (UnivE1)

We have only one PC without a printer (UnivE2)

In the United Kingdom university libraries studied, a very significant level of IT presence was found. Respondents at all the sites mentioned banks of OPAC terminals for users and several PCs for accessing electronic information by users. For the production of hardcopies, dot matrix and laser printers as well as self service photocopying machines were available. The respondents reported that the need for students to have access to centralised library facilities had given rise to local area networks with the availability of video output, optical scanning facilities, optical disks reading equipment and fax machines. In addition, respondents described multicampus networks, the use of Internet and several CD-ROM databases. The databases were listed as ranging from bibliographic and full texts to data and reference collections. In all the libraries CD-ROMs covered all ranges of subjects in a similar manner to print sources.

### ***9.6.3 Impact Of IT On Services***

There was an indication from all the respondents in the UK that all the university libraries in the UK had computerised all library housekeeping systems. Another finding was that there was a vast range of other computer-related services in the libraries as all respondents of the five case study libraries reported membership of networks, particularly the Joint Academic Network (JANET) that links their campuses and provide connections to networks worldwide. It was reported that JANET provides facilities for electronic mail, file transfer, direct use of remote machines, bulletin boards, access to national library services, on-line library catalogues and gateways to international networks. Links with Super JANET to improve JANET's performance were said by the interviewees to have provided an excellent basis for

mounting networked information and document delivery services and also as a platform for multimedia communication and electronic journals.

The responses from the interviewees in the Ghanaian study, however, painted a rather dismal picture of the impact of IT on service development. The overall picture is that there is minimal use of computers in the university libraries and that IT was not found to have made any significant impact on service development in the university libraries. UnivD and UnivE were found not to be using computers at all.

These findings from the interviews were substantiated by the results of the survey that investigated the extent of computerisation of housekeeping routines in the Ghanaian university libraries. Table 9.14A shows the responses when the library staff were asked to indicate the specific parts of the housekeeping routines that they knew had been computerised.

	UnivA N=26		UnivB N=24		UnivC N=23		UnivD N=17		UnivE N=8	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
All computerised	1	3.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Part of cataloguing	15	57.7	19	79.7	19	82.6	0	0.0	0	0.0
OPAC	4	15.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Part of circulation	15	57.7	0	0.0	2	8.7	0	0.0	1	12.5
All of circulation	1	3.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
None	2	7.7	5	20.8	2	8.7	17	100	7	87.5

**Table 9.14A** Responses on computerisation of library housekeeping systems by establishment.

Table 9.14A shows very low levels of computerisation of library housekeeping routines. All the respondents at UnivD reported no computerisation of any part of their library's housekeeping systems with only 12.5% claiming a partly automated circulation control at UnivE. The result in respect of UnivE is quite anomalous as both interviews and the results of observation do not corroborate it. It was observed that the only PC available was not being used for any library operation. Other discrepancies can also be found for UnivB and UnivC where 20.8% and 8.7% respectively of the respondents claimed that no computerisation has taken place in their libraries. This was also observed and established by

the interview results to be false because both libraries were found to be in the process of automating their catalogues.

The overall results indicate that a significant percentage of the staff in UnivA, UnivB and UnivC reported that part of their cataloguing is being computerised as the first step towards library automation. This is in line with the pattern of library computerisation in academic libraries in the early days of library automation in the UK as most library automation projects were started with cataloguing. (Evans, K.E., 1991).

Quite a high percentage(57.7%) of the respondents at UnivA reported partial computerisation of the circulation function which was explained further by one of the respondents as involving a rather small number of closed access materials on short loan:

At the moment we are in the process of computerising our catalogues and we have also computerised some books in the reference section, some books that are given on short loans, about 600 in all. (UnivA5)

The general conclusion that can be drawn from the results in Table 9.14A is that staff perceptions are that university libraries in Ghana have not computerised their housekeeping systems. Three of the libraries which are using a piecemeal approach to library automation have however started computerising their catalogues whilst two of the libraries do not use IT at all. The data reveals that IT has so far had very little impact on library services in the university libraries. The respondents were also asked about any computer-related activities in which they thought their libraries were engaged in. Table 9.14B shows the 'yes' responses for each activity presented to the library staff.

	UnivA N=26		UnivB N=24		UnivC N=23		UnivD N=17		UnivE N=8	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
E-mail services	26	100	23	95.8	22	97.7	0	0.0	0	0.0
Networking	1	3.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
MIS	3	11.5	0	0.0	3	13.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Electronic document delivery	5	19.2	2	8.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
CD-ROM services	26	100	18	75.0	1	4.3	0	0.0	0	0.0

**Table 9.14B** Responses on other computer related activities in libraries

Almost all the respondents in UnivA, UnivB and UnivC indicated that e-mail services are available in their libraries and at UnivA and UnivB a very significant proportion of them also reported that CD-ROM services are available. For the rest of the other activities, networking, MIS and electronic delivery services, very low percentages of responses are revealed which indicate that these activities are not, for the most part, being carried out at present. It must be mentioned that at UnivA, UnivB and UnivC, where a significant percentage of respondents reported e-mail services, the interviewees elaborated that the services are not solely for library purposes but are available on a fee basis to any member of the university community who wishes to send a mail electronically either for recreational or non academic purposes:

This e-mail, we hardly use it for library work only. It is for the use of the whole university. Anybody can request for information to be sent to relatives abroad. Most of the services have nothing to do with library work, more of leisure you may say. (UnivA2)

The respondents from the libraries that reported of CD-ROM services expressed their users' satisfaction with the services and that the innovation had generated an interest in the use of computers, particularly among members of faculty who have for a long time shunned the use of the libraries:

The CD-ROM is already a major source which the library is determined to devote a great deal of energy to. It has really caught on well with some of the lecturers who for a long time have boycotted the use of library facilities. It has increased people's interest in the use of computers. (UnivA2)

#### ***9.6.4 The Use Of Computers In The Libraries***

The survey asked the library staff to indicate the frequency with which computers were used by the staff in the libraries. Of the 96 responses only 13 (13.5%) indicated they used the computer 'a great deal'. Table 9.15 shows that 48 (50.0%) have never used the computer whilst 35 (36.5%) of the respondents have used it sometimes.

	UnivA N=26 no. %	UnivB N=24 no. %	UnivC N=23 no. %	UnivD N=17 no. %	UnivE N=8 no. %	All N=96 no. %
A great deal	4 4.2	3 3.1	5 5.2	0 0.0	1 1.0	13 13.5
Sometimes	18 18.8	5 5.2	10 10.4	1 1.0	1 1.0	35 36.5
Never	4 4.2	16 16.7	6 6.3	16 16.7	6 6.3	48 50.0
Total	26 27.1	24 25.0	21 21.9	17 17.7	8 8.3	96 100.0

**Table 9.15A** Responses on the use of computers in the libraries

Some differences in the use across the libraries exists. Respondents at UnivA reported having used computers a great deal or sometimes more than any of the institutions, followed by UnivC and then UnivB. UnivD and UnivE reported the least use of computers. This finding gives credence to the findings in Table 9.14A as the libraries that reported some form of computerisation of library routines showed a higher computer utilisation than those who have not computerised any of the functions.

The data for the question on computer use was cross-tabulated by staff category and the results are presented in Table 9.15B.

	Professionals N=28 no. %	Para-professionals N=27 no. %	Non-professionals N=36 no. %	Administrators N=5 no. %	Total n=96 no. %
A great deal	4 4.2	3 3.1	4 4.2	2 2.1	13 13.5
Sometimes	18 18.8	6 6.3	10 10.4	1 1.0	35 36.5
Never	6 6.3	18 18.8	22 22.9	2 2.1	48 50.0
Total	28 29.2	27 28.1	36 37.5	5 5.2	96 100

**Table 9.15B** Responses on computer use by staff category

The table shows that a total of 22 ( 78.6%) professional staff have either used computers a great deal or have sometimes used computers which is the highest among all the categories. It is followed by 14 (38.9%) non-professionals and 9 (33.3%) of para-professionals. The result does not show any significant relationship between staff position and computer use. What is obvious, however, is the difference of use between the professionals and the other categories of staff as the professionals were perceived to have used computers more than the other categories of staff. This is not surprising because in Ghanaian society though the

implementors of strategies are usually the junior staff, senior members would have a bigger say in who learns what and who acquires what skills.

#### **9.6.5 IT-Investment**

Respondents at all the libraries in Ghana mentioned that the libraries had not had the required investment in technological infrastructure and thus full-scale automation of library operations is lacking. The initial investment in hardware and software has not been made. Hardware currently available had been presented to the libraries as individual pieces at different periods by the Ministry of Education without any input as to its suitability from the library staff. They remarked that the available PCs usually had small memory capacity unsuitable for large scale automation of library operations. One interviewee commented that no money had ever been budgeted for updating technology and regular maintenance of the existing machines has been non-existent:

We don't have a regular budget for PCs and because of that we have not been able to upgrade our systems. What we are doing is to wait for more machines from the Ministry. The maintenance of our PCs has also suffered badly. We don't have a budget from the registry as we have for books etc. to maintain these machines. (UnivA2)

In the UK study, the university libraries also faced difficulties in accommodating the increasing costs of information technology initiatives. In three of the libraries the respondents reported that they had not adopted a singular mode of investment in IT infrastructure. Though the bulk of initial capital investment in IT had been provided by government through the Higher Education Funding Council, they had had to combine those efforts with other forms of income such as borrowing from the money market:

We had about one third of our initial capital outlay from the government through the HEFC. In addition the university borrowed money from the money markets to supplement our initial investments. The technical details of all that you are asking the wrong man. (UK22)

Respondents further commented that present costs of automation have now moved beyond the earlier stage of ad-hoc institutional or HEFC funding. The costs of automation have now been built into the regular budget, both in recurrent terms as regards operation, upkeep and maintenance, but also in terms of the constant renewal and upgrading of systems when required:

Costs of automation are now considered in our library budget on the same standard basis that for example book purchases has. Longer-term renewal and major upgrading of systems are no more on ad hoc basis. It has been built into the library's annual grant. (UK51)

Respondents in two libraries however remarked that certain information media and services such as remote database utilisation and document delivery are still principally library - based but the other interviewees in three other three libraries reported that they had incorporated these into their libraries' standard budgeting by treating non-print media purchases as part of standard purchases, as was explained by one of the University Librarians:

What we do now is that subject- related or cost centre-related assignment of funds cover not only books and periodicals but these new formats I have just mentioned. For example, if we order books in humanities we also order the CD-ROM equivalents. (UK22)

#### **9.6.6 *IT-Strategy integration***

In the UK university libraries, the interviewees recognised the IT-strategy integration as a potential advantage, producing complementarity with human and other library resources. The overall consensus was that it was important to select technology that was consistent with and supported their institutional strategic objectives:

Our strategic plan includes an IT component. If you read through it you will find out that we have developed a good link between what we intend doing and what technology we have available to us. Each complements the other as we try to use IT to meet our goals. (UK41)

In Ghana on the other hand, strategy has not been aligned with IT in most of the university libraries though respondents at UnivB mentioned that their strategic plan has an IT component but implementation of IT strategies has been constrained by the rather low IT infrastructure available in the library:

We would like to develop our IT in line with our plan. It is all in the plan but our present problems do not allow us. We have only one CD-ROM drive which is not working at the moment., In our plan we hope to have about 15, link them all up and then students can do searches but this hasn't happened. (UnivB4)

### **9.2.7 Barriers To IT implementation In University Libraries In Ghana**

A number of constraints that militate against the success of IT implementation in Ghanaian university libraries emerged from the interviews. Across all the case study institutions, the lack of skilled personnel, coupled with the lack of a training culture in computer skills, were considered by many to be the most daunting barrier to IT implementation:

The lack of expertise in computer technology and also local training facilities in the area of automation and modern management technology are limited. (UnivA2)

Second, the lack of an inadequate IT infrastructure such as PCs and communication facilities was reported by the majority of respondents across all the case study institutions:

Insufficient hardware. We don't have enough computers to go round. It is difficult to work with just 1 or 2 PCs. The little we have we cannot allow all staff to touch them. Also, telecommunications is a problem. Even if we get more and want to network that is also a problem. (UnivC4)

Third, intermittent electric power cuts were found to be detrimental to computer work as power cuts were found to have destroyed computer files by many of the respondents at UnivA, UnivB and UnivC:

Electricity interruption has been a major problem to the use. Sometimes you are in the middle of some work then they cut the power. It destroys your work and whatever you are running. (UnivC2)

Staff attitudes towards the new technology were found to be positive in all the libraries and the respondents would have liked every member of staff to have had hands-on experience with the use of PCs. The lack of all staff exposure was strongly expressed by several of the respondents at all the sites:

The problem is that we are not using computers yet. The one PC we have cannot go round. We know and appreciate what the benefits are but the problem is the general lack of exposure. (UnivD1)

The library staff were requested in the survey to indicate in a multiple choice question which factor (s) they believed affected IT implementation in their libraries. Table 9.16 shows the results.



	UnivA		UnivB		UnivC		UnivD		UnivE	
	N=26		N=24		N=23		N=17		N=8	
	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%	no.	%
Lack of expertise	7	26.9	4	16.7	11	47.8	1	5.9	2	25.0
Insufficient number of machines	24	92.3	19	79.2	17	73.9	16	94.1	6	75.0
Irregular electricity supply	11	42.3	15	62.5	7	30.4	1	5.9	0	0.0
Lack of proper maintenance	4	15.4	5	20.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	25.0
Lack of all staff exposure	13	50.0	21	87.5	13	56.5	13	76.5	7	87.5

**Table 9.16** Responses on barriers to IT implementation-library staff perspective

The table shows that the responses for insufficient number of computers and the lack of all staff exposure substantiates the findings of the interviews whilst the lack of expertise and lack of proper maintenance, irregular electricity supply and lack of expertise do not bear out the findings from the interviews.

The findings on IT infrastructure and investment show that the lack of adequate physical and human infrastructure in the Ghanaian university libraries has prevented the libraries from developing their services to any appreciable level. In the UK study, the opposite is the case; their university libraries were found to be sophisticated IT users and appeared to outperform their Ghanaian counterparts in terms of the varied service provision available there. This is quite consistent with the earlier theory that IT produces sustainable competitive advantage (e.g. Neo, 1988).

### **9.6.8 Management Information Systems (MIS)**

In the qualitative phase of the study, subjects at the Ghanaian university libraries were requested to state whether they used computer generated management information. The majority view was that the libraries never use computer generated information.

Surprisingly however, in the survey 11.5% of the respondents at UnivA reported using computer generated management information and 13.0% of the respondents at UnivC also

claimed use of computer generated information. These results have been shown in Table 9.14B. The respondents in the other libraries reported that they did not use computer generated management information.

In the UK institutions, it was found that computer generated management information had not been used very much in the past but respondents mentioned that new computer library systems acquired had the capability for MIS which the librarians were hoping to implement sooner or later:

The library system we use in TALIS. We get a certain amount of MIS out of that but not as much as I would like. We have available plans to share management information even with finance. (UK22)

We are developing our MIS capability. As part of TALIS we have just acquired a new MIS server which will enable us to undertake more complex reports. Before that we generated basic statistics. (UK11)

#### **9.6.9 Performance Evaluation**

One aspect of university library management that has become increasingly important as librarians have had to justify the existence of their services more rigorously in arguing for resources is the measurement of performance (Line, 1990). According to Johnson (1994) strategies also need to be reviewed by the use of performance measures to ensure that the strategies are also working. In two university libraries in the UK all the respondents commented that performance measurement was not library - based but was part of the entire university student-services assessment policies. Within the library environment all the interviewees stated that they did not have any systematic policies regarding measurement of performance:

We do not do performance evaluation systematically at the moment. We are hoping to participate in a student services questionnaire that will be administered centrally by the university to all units. Apart from that we have a statistical survey which is done centrally by the Union of Students. We had a major survey in 1994 which we distributed to students and the results of that were processed and carefully used. (UK11)

In another two of the UK institutions, the situation was found to be different. The interviewees said that political pressures from their corporate institutions led to the libraries' measurement of performance. Though they cost their activities as a good sign of measuring

performance, it was found that they adopted a narrow aspect of performance evaluation by using mostly input information as expressed by one librarian:

For some time now we have been compelled by the university administration to measure our activities. We produce the cost involved in serving our students, what resources are necessary to accomplish a particular set of tasks. We try to justify a great deal what we ask for. (UK42)

The best evidence of comprehensive performance measurement was found in the fifth UK university library where respondents commented that performance measures were based on the quantifiable objectives and the goals drawn up in their strategy formulation process. They remarked that the indicators used consisted of service input measures, service output measures, service effectiveness measures and population attributes:

Since we drew up our plan we have evaluated performance based on the aims in the strategic plan. We have developed measures such as amount of resources applied to services, timeliness of output, amount of use, circulation statistics and user population. (UK31)

Mixed responses were received from the Ghanaian interviewees when they were asked if their libraries carried out performance evaluation. For example, in UnivA one third of the staff interviewed said their libraries did not do any performance evaluation of services. A member of the strategic planning committee reported as follows:

Yes, we evaluate the work of staff but if it is evaluating our services then it is no (UnivA4)

Another member of the same planning committee, reported, on the contrary, that the library did in fact measure performance:

Yes, we do. For example the cataloguing department we do the statistic of books that we catalogue in say a year. (UnivA3)

In UnivB the majority view was that the library did not undertake performance evaluation. However, the University Librarian and a couple of others pointed to the use of some measures of performance which were mostly population related attributes:

Yes, we do performance evaluation. We use the population of users at specific periods. (UnivB1)

In UnivD and UnivE respondents mentioned that they had a policy of evaluating performance but had not implemented the policy:

We intend to do performance evaluation we have it in our plan at least on paper but have not started. (UnivD1)

In UnivC, whilst a small number of respondents were not aware if their libraries measured performance or not, the majority reported that service output measures and population attributes were used as performance indicators:

Yes, we do performance evaluation using use/student population, we also use quantities of requests answered. We have done this for a long time now, even before this idea of strategic plan. (UnivC1)

The assessment of these responses from the UK university libraries' perspective and the Ghanaian university libraries reveal that both employ diverse ways and means of evaluating performance in the libraries. The UK findings indicate that performance measurements are tools for convincing the university authorities of the value of their services in order to enhance resource allocation potential. Secondly the findings also reveal that as with their counterparts in the Ghanaian case studies, the indicators for measuring performance are not standardised. While the economic and political motives of evaluating library services were recognised across all the UK libraries, their other status as tools for evaluating strategies did not appear to be paramount.

# CHAPTER TEN

## THE ANALYSIS OF DATA AND FINDINGS ON SOME ASPECTS OF THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

### 10.1 INTRODUCTION

The relationship between organisations and their environments continues to be a major area of study in organisation theory. The 'open systems' perspective of organisations has focused on the role of the environment as 'the ultimate source of materials, energy and information, all of which are vital to the continuation of the system' (Scott, 1987:91). In organisation theory, the external environment can be viewed as a source of information and a pool of resources. One of the first researchers to view the environment as a source of information was Dill (1962). He suggests that the best way to engage the environment is not to try to understand it as a collection of other systems and organisations but rather to '...treat the environment as information which becomes available to the organisation or to which the organisation, via search activity, may get access...' (Dill, 1962:96).

A consistent characteristic of the strategy paradigm, regardless of perspective (Astley and Van den Ven, 1983), is the assumption of a link between a firm's strategic profile and its external context (Venkatraman and Prescott, 1990). The strategic choice perspective asserts that this linkage has significant implications for performance (Hofer, 1975; Miller and Freisen, 1983). Strategic performance is, therefore, influenced by the extent to which sudden shocks or newly emergent trends in the wider environment occur. Thus, the literature on organisational environments reflects two prominent perspectives. The first perspective is that of information uncertainty, which suggests that the environment is the source of information (Duncan, 1972). Resource dependence, the second perspective, posits that the environment is a source of scarce resources which are sought after by competing organisations (March and Simon, 1958). As the environment becomes less munificent or more hostile organisations are subjected to greater uncertainty. Management's ability to

cope with these conditions by reducing the firm's dependence on or increase its control over these resources will affect organisational effectiveness (March and Simon, 1958).

The environment is also viewed as a multidimensional construct (Duncan, 1972). Conceptual and empirical studies have identified several specific environmental dimensions, which include dynamism (Thompson, 1967), complexity (Mintzberg, 1979) and hostility (Miller and Freisen, 1978). Environmental complexity and dynamism have been closely linked to the information uncertainty perspective (Thompson, 1967), while hostility has been tied to the resource dependence perspective (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978). The perspectives offer a better understanding of the impact of each environmental dimension on the formulation of a firm's strategy. These dimensions affect top management's perception of uncertainty, which in turn influences such strategic decision characteristics as propensity for risk-taking, proactiveness and defensiveness (Miles and Snow, 1978). It is further posited that the fit between environmental dimensions and strategic orientation will lead to better organisational performance (Venkatraman and Prescott, 1990).

In this regard, the need to determine the impact of these dimensions on Ghanaian university libraries was a necessity for further understanding of the factors that affect the strategy process. Analysing the whole environment is impossible (Fahey and Narayanan, 1986) so the political, economic, socio-cultural, technological and international segments of the environment were examined for dynamism, complexity and hostility. Rapid changes in the environment were used as a measure of dynamism; complexity, which usually shows the interrelationship between environmental factors, was measured by the extent of predictability and hostility was measured by the factors that have proved to be favourable and exert strong influence (or impact) on the institutions being surveyed (Genus, 1995).

## ***10.2 Hypotheses***

Research in planning in developing countries has identified several factors that differentiate the planning environment in developing countries from that of developed countries. Such factors include the absence of technology required to monitor the environment, highly unstable economic and political environments, lower levels of general and management education, etc. (Flores, 1972; Anostros, Bedos and Seaman, 1980). Mrema (1987) and Fubara (1986) in particular indicated that African countries are characterised by highly

unstable political and economic environments. Based on this, the following were predicted for the Ghanaian university libraries' population:

Hypothesis 1: The political and economic sectors of the Ghanaian environment have had a more significant impact on university libraries than the other three sectors - socio-cultural, technological and international - in the last 15 years.

Hypothesis 2: The economic sector of the Ghanaian environment is the least predictable of all the environmental forces.

Sawyer (1993) found that the political environment had undergone the most significant changes in the Nigerian environment when he investigated the environmental scanning behaviour of Chief Executive Officers of 47 Nigerian manufacturing firms. Adegbite (1986) also confirmed this of some Nigerian firms he studied and concluded that the Nigerian political environment is the most dynamic of all the environmental segments. The third hypothesis examines whether this holds for Ghana.

Hypothesis 3: The political sector is the most dynamic among the five sectors of the Ghanaian environment.

With the aid of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) Ghana has embarked on an Economic Recovery Programme (ERP). Some of the activities that have taken place in the last 15 years include donor support for education projects, the provision of resources as well as initiation and maintenance of new services for some university libraries and expert advice and training on economic planning for the country as a whole (Newton and Else, 1995). Based on this, the next hypothesis is made.

Hypothesis 4: The international sector of the Ghanaian environment has been the most favourable (least hostile) to the university libraries.

The findings are presented for the four hypotheses. For Hypothesis 1, the major stakeholders were asked about their perception of the extent of impact various environmental factors have had on their libraries in the last 15 years. The result for the combined case studies is shown in Table 10.1A.

	Very little	Between Very Little and about middle	About Middle	Between about Middle and very Much	Very Much	Total N=63
Factor	%	%	%	%	%	%
Economic	1.60	3.30	4.90	19.70	70.50	100.00
Political	4.90	0.00	14.80	23.00	57.40	100.00
Socio-cultural	4.90	9.80	39.30	27.90	18.00	100.00
International	6.60	3.30	41.00	24.60	24.60	100.00
Technological	13.10	29.50	29.50	16.40	11.50	100.00

**Table 10.1A** The impact of environmental factors

Table 10.1A clearly shows that the economic factor has had the greatest impact on the libraries in the last 15 years of Ghana's history. A cross-tabulation of the economic factor of the environment by establishment yielded the result displayed in Table 10.1B which is not statistically significant.

	Very little	Between Very Little and about middle	About Middle	Between about Middle and very Much	Very Much	Total N=63
Establishment	%	%	%	%	%	%
UnivA	0.00	0.00	13.30	0.00	86.70	100.00
UnivB	0.00	7.70	7.70	38.50	46.20	100.00
UnivC	0.00	0.00	7.70	15.40	76.90	100.00
UnivD	0.00	8.30	16.70	0.00	75.00	100.00
UnivE	12.50	0.00	12.50	12.50	62.50	100.00

**Table 10.1B** the impact of the economic factor on the environment by establishment

The result in Table 10.1B shows that for four of the sites over 60% of the respondents felt that the economic factor had had a very great impact on the development of their libraries. In UnivB only 46.2% of the respondents felt that the economic factor had had the greatest impact with 38.5% indicating between about middle and very much. It must be mentioned that no respondent at UnivB indicated that the economic factor has had 'little impact', which implies that despite the low percentage for 'very much economic impact' there is a generally accepted view that the economic force has had some impact on the libraries at UnivB.



Table 10.1A also indicates that the political factor ranks second to the economic factor. Over 50% (57.4%) of the respondents believed that the political factor had had a very great impact on the Ghanaian environment. A cross tabulation of the political impact on the environment by establishment also yielded the results in Table 10.1C.

	Very little	Between Very Little and about middle	About Middle	Between about Middle and very Much	Very Much	Total N=63
Establishment	%	%	%	%	%	%
UnivA	0.00	0.00	6.70	26.70	66.70	100.00
UnivB	0.00	0.00	15.40	46.20	38.50	100.00
UnivC	15.40	0.00	15.40	0.00	69.20	100.00
UnivD	0.00	0.00	8.30	33.30	58.30	100.00
UnivE	12.50	0.00	37.50	0.00	50.00	100.00

**Table 10.1C** The impact of the political factor on Ghana’s environment by establishment

Though the data is not statistically significant, the overall result shows that at four of the libraries the political factor is seen as having a great deal of impact on the environment. The analysis further indicates that UnivB is again the odd library out and in a similar response to the question on the economic factor, all the respondents however believed that the political factor has had some impact on UnivB since no one indicated that the political sector had had very little impact. Moreover, UnivB has the highest figure of 46.20% for ‘between about middle and very much’, which is indicative of the fact that the political impact is felt to be considerable by the stakeholders at UnivB.

The results displayed in Tables 10.1A-10.1C support hypothesis 1. The economic and political sectors of Ghana’s environment have had the greatest impact on its university library development with the economic factor having a greater impact than the political force. This finding is confirmed by the results of Flores (1972) who found that the economic sector had the greatest influence on planning in the Philippine firms he studied. Sawyer (1993) and Fubara (1986) however found that the political factor had the greatest influence on planning in their studies of Nigerian executives. To illustrate, Nigeria, which is a very close neighbour of Ghana, has been under military rule for a considerable period of its

recent history. Though Ghana has equally been under military dictatorship for a considerable period of its history, in 1992 a constitutional form of government was adopted. It is not surprising therefore that the respondents in the survey felt that the political factor has had less impact on their libraries than the economic factor though both factors still dominate in their effects on the environment.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that the economic sector is the least predictable of all the five sectors - political, economic, socio-cultural, technological and international. The subjects were asked to indicate the extent to which in their opinion each factor had become predictable. For the combined cases, the results is displayed in Table 10.2.

	Very little	Between Very Little and about middle	About Middle	Between about Middle and very Much	Very Much	Total N=63
Factor	%	%	%	%	%	%
Economic	14.80	19.70	29.50	21.30	14.80	100.00
Political	23.00	19.70	26.20	16.40	14.80	100.00
Socio-cultural	4.90	24.60	45.90	13.10	11.50	100.00
International	9.80	23.00	49.20	14.80	3.30	100.00
Technological	9.80	23.00	50.80	13.10	3.30	100.00

**Table 10.2** Predictable environmental factor

The results indicate that according to the stakeholders who responded to the questionnaires the least predictable is the political sector followed by the economic with socio-cultural trailing in the last position. The data in Table 10.2 also indicates that the economic factor is the most predictable in the Ghanaian external environment. This result does not support hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 stated that the political sector had been the most dynamic in the last 15 years. The subjects were therefore asked to indicate which of the sectors had undergone the greatest changes. Table 10.3 shows the results for the combined case studies.

	Very little	Between Very Little and about middle	About Middle	Between about Middle and very Many (dramatic)	Very Many (dramatic)	Total N=63
Factor	%	%	%	%	%	%
Economic	0.00	0.00	9.80	32.80	57.40	100.00
Political	0.00	0.00	33.30	0.00	66.70	100.00
Socio-cultural	0.00	13.30	20.00	26.70	40.00	100.00
International	13.30	0.00	46.70	20.00	20.00	100.00
Technological	6.70	20.00	20.00	26.70	26.70	100.00

**Table 10.3** Changes in the environmental sectors

The data in Table 10.3 indicates that the political sector has undergone the most dramatic changes thus making it the most dynamic of the environmental segments though only two thirds of the respondents indicated so. This is followed closely by the economic factor. This result is in agreement with Sawyer (1993) who also found that the political sector of Nigeria had undergone the most dramatic change in the last 15 years. It can therefore be said that based on simple percentages alone, the political environment has undergone the most dramatic change and hence, has been the most dynamic in the last 15 years of Ghana's history.

Hypothesis 4 was not supported by the analysis as indicated in Table 10.4 . The table shows that only 4.9% of the respondents thought that the international sector had been favourable .

	Very little	Between Very Little and about middle	About Middle	Between about Middle and very Much	Very Much	Total N=63
Factor	%	%	%	%	%	%
Economic	36.10	42.60	16.40	1.60	3.30	100.00
Political	41.00	36.10	19.70	0.00	3.30	100.00
Socio-cultural	19.70	44.30	31.10	4.90	0.00	100.00
International	8.20	24.60	44.30	18.00	4.90	100.00
Technological	8.20	24.60	49.20	14.80	3.30	100.00

**Table 10.4** Favourable environmental factors

The figure, 4.9%, for the international sector is however the highest for the most favourable factor. This result clearly shows that the political factor has been the very least favourable to the libraries' development. Forty-one percent of the respondents felt that the political force has been the least favourable. The result is consistent with the result obtained for answers on the impact of the environmental factors where it was shown that the economic and political factors have had the greatest impact on the university libraries.

Another aspect of the result in Table 10.4 that needs mentioning is the very low response rate for the favourability in respect of the international factor. Despite the seemingly numerous activities that have gone on in the Ghanaian macro-environment, and at times at institutional levels by international organisations and donor agencies, these results indicate that as far as the subjects of this study are concerned their activities have not lived up to expectations. This result further shows that none of the factors has been favourable. They all appear to have been hostile to the Ghanaian environment.

This study has revealed that the economic and political factors of the Ghanaian external environment are perceived by the major stakeholders of the university libraries to have had great impact on the country's university libraries. The two factors can also be said to have been the most dynamic of all the environmental factors. The data analysis did not yield any conclusive results on the predictability dimension hence the complexity factor could not be established. What is conclusive is that, none of the environmental factors were found to have been favourable to the libraries, the worst being the economy and politics.

### ***10.3 Key Issues In The External Environment***

The findings from the questionnaires confirmed the extent of the uncertainty and turbulence in the Ghanaian external environment; they also highlight the fact that effective analysis and monitoring of the environment is a key factor in understanding the strategic position of the libraries. There is therefore the need to identify the relevant factors within each of the environmental sectors.

In a competitive environment, the organisation that understands these issues in the external environment and reacts to them or exploits them most effectively succeeds in the longer term (Ward and Griffiths, 1992). Understanding these factors is essential if the fit between

the organisation and its environment is to be effectively managed. It is this dimension to the strategy process which is now explored further.

**10.3.1 Political Issues**

Some of the most significant aspects of the external library environments identified were central government policies, university policies/faculty relations, pressure/interest groups and competitors.

Government regulations and interventions in the Ghanaian higher education system are not new. However, the scale of these interventions, the unpredictability of government policies and the degree of uncertainty were cited by the majority of the respondents across all the libraries as having dominated the political scene:

All universities in Ghana are state owned and so the government dictates to us what we should do. In fact these days government tells us who we can employ and what projects we can carry out. These situations have increased over the years and we do not know what is going to happen next. Most of these rampant interventions are unnecessary and are forced on us unexpectedly. (UnivC10)

This finding was also supported in the quantitative study by the large library staff population. Table 10.5 shows the ‘yes’ and ‘no’ responses to the question whether university libraries had been affected by government intervention in universities’ affairs.

	UnivA N=35 no. %	UnivB N=22 no. %	UnivC N=14 no. %	UnivD N=11 no. %	UnivE N=7 no. %	All N=89 no. %
Yes	24 27.0	9 10.1	8 9.0	11 12.4	2 2.2	54 60.7
No	11 12.3	13 14.6	6 6.0	0 0	5 5.7	35 39.3
Total	35 39.3	22 24.7	14 15.0	11 12.4	7 7.9	89 100.0
Chi squared 14.74301      Degree of Freedom 4      Significance .00527						

Table 10.5 Effect of government intervention on university libraries by establishment

Table 10.5 indicates that a significant proportion of respondents (60.7%) felt that government interventions had affected the running of the university libraries. Differences in responses across the libraries were also significant. The responses for UnivA, UnivC and UnivD supported the interview findings with UnivD showing the highest frequency of ‘yes’ responses (100%). Responses for UnivB and UnivE did not support the assertion. At UnivE

5 out of 7 respondents said no. This could be due to the short existence of UnivE. The respondents might not have experienced government intervention as often as the other libraries. However, the responses for UnivB (9 out of 22 (40.9%)) also did not support the idea. This is quite surprising because government policies in the past have been uniformly enforced across all the old universities.

The impact of recent government educational policies on strategy was assessed by the interviewees as having been very negative. Most of them commented on the government's lack of consultation with senior university staff on matters that directly affected the universities and the lack of participation of university staff in government decision making on higher education. In UnivB, UnivD and UnivE a highly significant number perceived that government disregarded university education because its educational development policies were directly in favour of non-university education:

Government has no goodwill for university education. All its policies are towards JSS and SSS (Junior and senior secondary schools). If it really cared about us it would have seen to our demands for better university development. So this political aspect does not promote university growth. (UnivD11)

This finding was however not borne out by the majority of the respondents in the survey of the library staff as only 27 (30.3%) out of 89 agreed that the Ghana government had a low regard for university education. However when asked to indicate if past military governments had low regard for university education, 59 (66.3%) out of 89 respondents claimed that past military leaders had low regard for university education.

Several respondents particularly, those from UnivA, UnivC and UnivE, commented that government policies usually did not balance the national interest with university interest and described policies as more security- centred and bad for universities. They expressed the view that recent funding policies for universities often threw their plans in disarray. In the survey the majority of the library staff population (52.8%) confirmed that their libraries' plans are usually affected by bad government policies while 47.2% disagreed.

Universities' autonomy in strategic decision - making has been eroded over the recent years as central government has assumed full control over the operations and management of the universities and other tertiary institutions. The universities are now under the general supervision, co-ordination and direction of the Ministry of Education. Central government

now expects to play a leading role in policy formulation for what were once regarded as university led operations. Tensions often occur between university political culture and government policies. There is therefore the need for university librarians to constantly monitor and manage their relationships with government officials as was argued by one University Librarian:

You have to know what government expects. You have to consult the Ministry on decisions you intend to take even library acquisitions. The universities have a co-ordinator at the Ministry acting between the two institutions and you always need a nod from him to carry out any project. (UnivA2)

In the United Kingdom university libraries, changes in educational policies by government were also mentioned by all the interviewees as having had a great impact on library development. Some of the policies that were cited include the increase in student numbers, the shift from an elitist university system to mass university education, cuts in university expenditure and the emphasis on student learning instead of teaching. However, the reactions to these policies were starkly different from the Ghanaian situation as the respondents reported that they had actively embraced some of the uncertainties that these policies have created and have anticipated future development of their libraries on those lines. One of the interviewees explained further that the changes in policies had helped university and library growth and development. His library had had to change the way it operated and had had to modify certain elements in its environment to help create a future more favourable to working conditions:

Government policy change is what has underlined the growth of the university sector in this country. The perception that the universities are not for just a small elite. The university has had to work through on how it does that. The university' response is the shift from teaching to learning. I then respond to that by changing the way we work and make changes here and there to create a favourable environment for the future (UK22).

In Ghanaian university libraries, the lack of effective opposition to government's policies was expressed by several respondents as a set-back in tuning the strategy process to suit the external environment. This was not borne out by the library staff population. Out of 89 library staff who were asked to indicate if the lack of opposition to government polices had affected their plans only 21(23.6%) of the respondents agreed whilst 68 (76.4%) disagreed.

Further central government decisions have made a direct impact on library development; throughout the universities, the effect of the Educational Reform of 1990 has been felt through the implementation of increased enrolment without a corresponding increase in university funding or the expansion of library facilities on the requisite scale. One effect of this has been the mistrust that university management has for government policy makers and vice versa as was expressed by one government official:

... there is an uneasy relationship between government and the universities. There is a lot of mistrust and not until the right political atmosphere is created can government work hand in hand with the universities (Min11)

The relationship between government and universities was described by 32 (32.7%) of 98 library staff as highly unfavourable and by 51 (52.0%) as unfavourable with only 13 (13.3%) describing the university government relationship as favourable (2 non responses). This substantiates the findings in the interviews. The library staff were asked to assess which recent legislative measures had had the greatest impact on their services. Out of the 89 responses (supplementary questionnaires) only 8 (9%) described the impact of recent legislation as insignificant while 81 (91%) respondents cited a range of legislative measures and regulations as either having had an impact on their services or expected shortly to do so. Table 10.6 displays the most frequently cited areas of legislation and regulation impacting on university libraries (for the 81 respondents who cited some legislative measures).

Aspect of legislation	Number (N=81)	Percentage
General financial legislation especially cuts/quarterly payment of subvention	43	53.1
Education Reform Act 1990	20	24.7
Legislation on employment	10	12.3
Legislation on transportation	8	9.9
Total	81	100

**Table 10.6** Most frequently cited areas of legislation and regulation impacting on university libraries

Additional comments made by the respondents on recent general financial legislation related particularly to the uncertainty that now characterises the period of payment of subvention by government to universities and the impact this now has on the development of library services, as well as cuts of approved funds without prior notification of the universities' Finance Officers. There was also concern at the impact of the Education Reform Act; 15 out



of 20 (75%) respondents citing the Act commented on the effect the upgrading of polytechnics to university status would have on the already meagre universities' resources. All 20 respondents commented on statements regarding government control of the internal affairs of the universities and the exclusion of any policy related directly or indirectly to the role libraries would play in the reform. One University Librarian noted particularly:

The reform has not mentioned library at all in its white paper. It shows you the importance it attaches to libraries. But I believe libraries should play a very good part in the success of the reforms. (UnivE1)

Certainly, the evidence from the present study suggests that the Education Reform Act is likely to further alter the already the dwindling financial positions of the libraries and also alter the tenuous relationship between universities' management and the Ministry of Education authorities. Library services are now, more than ever, subject to the vagaries of central government direction. The form that strategic planning for university libraries take will depend on how effectively the librarians interpret the implications of these policies when they are fully implemented.

### **10.3.1.2 Corporate Politicisation**

Whatever the structural affiliations of the university library services, it was felt by almost all the interviews across all case study institutions that librarians had to be able to 'fight their own battles' in the corporate political environment. The general perception of the respondents was that faculties' attitudes towards libraries were those of contempt, disinterestedness and apathy:

You see some faculty members have funny ideas about libraries and this clouds their attitudes towards the library. They think they are better off. They do not show any interest in library activities. They believe libraries are not worth considering in anything and they stay away from the library. (UnivA5)

Corporate funding of university libraries has been one activity that has always come under attack by central universities' administration and by their Finance Officers. Whilst central government recommends that a substantial proportion (10%) of the universities' budgets should be allocated to library service developments the local corporate view is that the funding of faculty operations must take precedence over library funding. The need for university libraries to constantly manipulate their relationships with corporate power brokers was argued by one university Librarian:

When the subvention is received I have to move immediately to strike the necessary connections to see if we can get something a bit more than the previous month's. This I do regularly. (UnivA2)

### **10. 3. 1.3      *Interest/pressure Groups***

In the past, the activities of pressure groups such as Student Unions, University Teachers Association of Ghana (UTAG) and TUC had been centred on direct confrontation with central government policies which in extreme forms had flared up into riots and spread outside university campuses to involve other influencers on one side or the other. The present activities, particularly of UTAG, were mentioned by all the interviewees as having been detrimental to university and library development. Opposition to the recent Education Reform Act in the form of very long periods of strikes by teachers was met with mixed feelings by the interviewees. Several respondents, on the one hand, commended UTAG's strike actions as affording opportunities to make legitimate demands from government:

UTAG's activities have been favourable to university development. They are fighting a good cause for its members. Causes have been worthy ones. They make government aware of the real situation as they stand and I think it is right to press for what is yours. (UnivC4)

Several of the respondents, on the other hand, saw the activities of UTAG and the other interest groups who resorted to strikes to make demands as threats to university and library development. They commented that despite the intentions of the organisers, the frequency, scale and the duration of these strike actions and the uncertainty they bring to academic development affect strategic planning in the libraries:

UTAG's activities have not been favourable especially recent strikes which went on for far too long and in the last three years have been rampant and sometimes have involved so many parties. You hardly know when the next group will strike and this affects our plans seriously. (UnivC1)

A third perspective was presented particularly by the major stakeholders who were also library workers at UnivA, UnivB and UnivE. They deplored the long periods of strikes by UTAG on the grounds that their motives had always been member-centred only, without due regard to the effects their actions had on other sections of the university and, as one librarian remarked, UTAG do not even fight other causes for library development:

UTAG's activities have not been particularly favourable to our development. The long periods of strikes have seen our libraries

closed. Its actions are always seeking something for UTAG members. It has never made library development an issue worth fighting for. It is always interested in extra money for its members, forgetting that library development will also help. (UnivE1)

The adverse impact of UTAG's strike actions on library development and on the strategic planning process was confirmed by the library staff in the survey. Out of 80 subjects who responded to a question on the impact of UTAG's strike action on library development, only 13 (16.3%) described it as not significant. Twenty-one (26.3%) described it quite significant and the majority of 20 (25.0%) and 26 (32.5%) described it as very significant and significant respectively.

In the UK study, the respondents did not view the activities of interest groups in the negative light revealed in the Ghanaian study. Most of the interviewees described the activities of groups like Trades Union Council (TUC) and Student Representative Council (SRC) in the last 10 years as favourable. They remarked that some of these groups had permanent representations on library committees and their inputs to major library decisions and policies had in the past helped library development:

The activities of the unions have been favourable. The Union of Students is represented on library committees and all other committees of the university so there is an opportunity for the unions to comment on any decisions and their suggestions are taken seriously in any policy measures. (UK11)

The few incidents of active discontent by a section of university workers were reported by the interviewees as short, irregular and as not having any adverse effects on library development:

In the last 10 years there have been a couple of instances of strikes by union of workers, usually overnight. By and large they have not caused any interruptions and the library has been able to re-open without any long term effects. (UK51)

#### **10.3.1.4 Competitors**

It is unusual to think in terms of competition for libraries but in the context of strategic planning two primary competitors were identified by most of the respondents across all the five Ghanaian case studies. The libraries of peer institutions, department libraries and some special libraries were cited as competing for clientele, products and services. The respondents however believed that interactions and the selection of some of these

competitors as partners in information provision could play a more central role in strategic decision making:

We do compete with all departmental libraries on campus. We compete with libraries of Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), the other research libraries and Atomic Energy libraries. Our students go there. We compete with the Agric stations too for magazines. If you look at law library our students hardly use our resources they all go there. We believe that these are healthy rivalries and we hope to reach agreements with a selected number of them to strengthen our collections. If you read the proposal I gave you it is all there. (UnivA3)

Other competitors were identified as faculties of the universities, central administration and computer centres. The respondents stated that they competed for finance and technical equipment. The system of allocation of university funds by competition was considered as a threat because respondents felt that other competitors from the central administration were also key players in allocating university funds. Many from UnivA, UnivD and UnivE commented that it was very difficult and to some extent impossible to influence the decision processes of these competitors which eventually affects the libraries' financial plans:

I think the registry poses our biggest threat. They take every equipment that is meant for us. For instance take our e-mail. It is in the central administration building not in the library though it was originally meant to be placed here. When it comes to distribution of subvention, those who have the final say are all in management positions at the central administration who are also fighting to get a big share. We try to lobby to overcome some of these things but like the e-mail and funds we have been unsuccessful and this equally affects our plans, I mean financial planning. (UnivE1)

A considerable number of interviewees described their libraries as having very weak power bases (power base consists of the resources, manager's reputation and relationship with other managers, that gives them the ability to convince others to go along with their ideas) and they believed this inability of their leaders to influence university power brokers and to compete effectively for resources had affected most strategic decisions on library development. One respondent described library leadership as bad and commented that:

If you look at the library at ... it has a strong leader so the library gets what it wants. I think that a university librarian's position and the way he is respected in the entire university has a lot to do with his ability to demand from the authorities what is due to the library and this has affected most decisions taken about this library. In fact I will say there is bad leadership. (UnivD2)

### ***10.3.2 Economic Issues***

Ghana's university education and university library services have in the past been regarded as models for other African countries. Their resource base and governments' support were remarkable. However, times have changed. Following a string of political upheavals, Ghana has joined the chain of other African countries noted for political instability with their revolutionary changes of government.

Such political activities have had a devastating effect on the economic environment which the present civilian government is grappling with by adopting a number of economic measures such as a Recovery Programme.

#### ***10.3.2.1 Underdeveloped Economy***

Though there has been some improvement in some of Ghana's economic indicators such as an increase in GDP, the economy still bears the hallmark of an underdeveloped nation, with a rise in population, low standards of education, general shortage of transportation and the lack of commercial base and little or no change in the standard of living.

The majority of the major stakeholders remarked that the government's economic measures had not had any significant impact on the way of life of many Ghanaians and that the economic environment continued to be unfavourable to the development of universities and their libraries:

Well, the economy according to the statisticians is improving. Rise in GDP and so on but as for the living standards I don't see any change and as far as the university and the libraries are concerned the impact is still not felt. I think the economy is still not favouring us. (UnivE5)

The unfavourable economic climate in which the university libraries operate was substantiated by the library staff in the supplementary survey. The subjects were asked to indicate the extent to which the economy had had an adverse effect on libraries. Across the case study libraries, responses were not statistically significant but for all the combined sites 52 out of 89 (58.4%) described it as highly significant, 20 (22.5%), as quite significant with only 16 (18.0%) describing it as not significant.

Government was criticised by many of the respondents as having the wrong economic priorities and very poor economic policies. Particular mention was made of the government's rigid funding of universities as an economic policy that had had a negative

impact on library development. Admitting the general weak economic environment in which the libraries find themselves, across all the libraries, many respondents remarked that the government was too rigid with its funding of universities and that the funds for university education were inadequate:

The economy has never been good at least not in the last 25 years. But I think that the present difficulties has to do more with government's tight-fisted policy of funding the universities. The funds are simply not enough for the universities and the libraries (UnivD8)

This finding was also shared by an overwhelming number of library staff in the survey as 76 out of 89 (85.4%) indicated that the inadequate funding of universities and government's rigid funding policies had affected library development significantly in the last 15 years whilst only 13 (14.6%) felt the effect had not been significant.

### **10.3.2.2      *Inflation***

In addition to traditional concerns about the state of the economy, all the interviewees expressed concern about the high inflation rates which were seen as a constraint on business and non-profit organisations. High rates have been boosting various costs of doing business in the country such as the purchase of books, office equipment and stationery. Persistent increases in inflation were also commented on as constraining the expansion plans of many bookshops and publishers which usually caused the government to take action that in the past has been found to slow the economy down:

The economy, I don't think it has been managed well. Government's response to high inflation has rather slowed the economy down. Two years ago government tried to lower inflation. It was 28% or so when they put certain measures into place it didn't help. It was 70% last year. They can't bring it down; it affects purchases of books, office materials, the lot. Those in book businesses cannot expand to meet our needs and in the end we suffer. (UnivE9)

The effect of inflation on the Ghanaian economy was borne out by the library staff as 65 out of 89 (73.0%) respondents described it as having had a highly significant impact on the economy with only 24 (27%) reporting that it has had no effect.

### **10.3.2.3      *Depreciation Of The National Currency***

A crucial factor in the economic performance of the country and one which was assessed by a considerable number of the interviewees particularly those at UnivA, UnivB, UnivC and UnivE, as making organisation-level strategic decisions subject to great uncertainty is the volatility of foreign exchange rates. The value of the Ghanaian currency relative to other major world currencies was seen as affecting decisions on many business transactions. The daily deterioration of the value of the local currency-the cedi was remarked on by the respondents as providing less financial incentive for acquisition librarians to purchase from foreign sources and to pay for inter-library loan charges:

The cedi is depreciating on a daily basis. When our librarians have to order from overseas the exchange rate changes by the time they put their orders through. It is discouraging for orders outside this country. It really affects our orders and the payment of our British Library interlibrary loans. Many of our plans have been badly affected because of this. (UnivB4)

The overall responses to the question asking library staff if consistent depreciation of the cedi has had any impact on their libraries planning programmes indicates that 46 out of 89 (51.7%) respondents believed it has had a highly significant impact while 23 (25.8%) indicated that it has had quite a significant impact and 20 (22.5%) felt the impact had not been significant.

### **10.3.2.4      *Taxation And Import Duties***

In assessing the impact of taxation on information resources in Ghana several respondents at UnivA, UnivB and UnivC commended the government for waiving import duties on computers but did not see the opportunity it affords the libraries as they did not have the necessary foreign exchange to order them in the first place. Some of them expressed their dissatisfaction with the high taxes on other information products and the introduction of value added tax on a considerable number of information products and non information products which they feared would affect library financial strategies in the long term:

Government waived duties on computers. The idea is good if we had foreign exchange to purchase our own computers from outside. What bothers me also is the high duties on books, typewriters which is passed on to those of us who have to buy them for library use. I understand VAT is being introduced on all goods, library goods and non-library one. This will raise the costs of all kinds of materials and it is going to affect our financial plans in future. (UnivA8)

### **10.3.2.5 *Misappropriation Of Corporate Funds***

All the respondents who were government officials and a majority of Finance Officers of the universities commented on the misappropriation of public funds by many public workers. The current economic climate has been known to be characterised by many fraudulent activities by workers who are in financial management positions. What the respondents found most damaging to university financial planning was the 'legitimised' misappropriation of university funds, a result of traditional financial management practices. One government official gave the following example to illustrate how many university staff take advantage of loopholes in traditional financial practices to misappropriate university funds:

There is fraud on such a scale. It is unbelievable and this happens in most public organisations. The most damaging is those who know the loopholes in the system. An example in the university is the free medical care. Because prescriptions are borne by government, you get all sorts of claims. Two people can bring two different receipts for the same prescription showing different amounts for the same drug. There is not much we can do to stop this practice so many people use this method to make money. All this is paid out of government subvention to the universities. (Min11)

### **10.3.2.6 *Low salaries and wages***

Salaries and wage rates were described by all the respondents as very low. The reasons for this, however, were mixed. Some interviewees felt the weak economic base of the country, particularly random inflation, affected their purchasing power considerably. Others considered it more of a social problem whilst several also gave it the usual political clout by attributing poor salaries and wages to the poor government -university relations. Whatever the reasons of the stakeholders for the poor remuneration in the universities its effect on work was seen as demoralising and an impediment to effective strategic planning. The effect of poor salaries on strategy was described by 69 out of 89 (77.5%) of the library staff as highly significant whilst 20 (22.5%) did not think so.

The respondents who were mainly administrators reiterated further that morale was very low, which they attributed to the lack of motivation. They commented that workers put in less effort in their work now than before because the rewards of work no longer satisfied



workers' need for security, social esteem and self-actualisation. The lack of motivation according to all the respondents who were administrators has resulted in undesirable workers' behaviour, particularly the junior staff which they felt had made most of the university staff non-achievers:

...in spite of the poor salaries we try to do our best. The salaries are too low and this is not helping workers' morale. So how do you fault someone if he is not giving of his best?... I don't see it as social problem, it is economic and it is no wonder the junior staff in particular and even lecturers cannot afford the basic necessities of life in order to make their families survive and live as respectable human beings... They have resorted to all kinds of ways to satisfy this psychological need (UnivB8)

The issues discussed so far show that the economic context of the external environment is important. Many of the factors were found to impede organisational performance and hence the strategy process. Library services are vulnerable to economic opportunism and the fluctuations of the Ghanaian economy have had devastating consequences for university library services and developments.

### ***10.3.3 Socio-Cultural Issues***

The socio-cultural environment was found to present many opportunities as well as threats to the strategy process of the university libraries in Ghana.

#### ***10.3.3.1 Opportunities***

According to the major stakeholders, universities in Ghana are held in high esteem by the citizens of the country and the populace had always been sympathetic to the causes of universities when they had to resort to confrontations with the government to redress grievances. The recognition of the importance of universities by Ghanaians and the support universities usually get in times of government-universities conflicts were remarked on by several of the respondents:

...if you look at our strike action despite government propaganda against universities the population was behind us. They believe universities are important and we present the hope of this country so they were in agreement with our demands for more money. (UnivC5)

University education, according to many of the respondents in UnivB, UnivC and UnivD was viewed by many Ghanaians as a social need and the demand for university education has always been on the increase. In the opinion of the respondents, universities in Ghana are considered as elite and reputable institutions with the full goodwill of the civilian population. The librarians amongst the interviewees particularly remarked that this was significant for future income generating activities as they would have the public's support:

Universities in Ghana are considered highly in the society and I believe this is good for us, income generation by the university usually gets the support of the general public. (UnivB1)

### **10.3.3.2 Threats**

A number of social forces were discussed by the interviewees as a reflection of the growing impact of social pressures on corporate performance. The low status of the library profession in university environments was viewed by most of the respondents who were library workers as having deeper roots in the Ghanaian socio-cultural environment where there is no clearly enunciated definition of the basic purpose of libraries. Public libraries exist because they were established by the former colonial power and continue to exist as symbols of modern society. However, the respondents remarked that no attempt had been made to redefine the role of libraries and their functions within the context of an independent Ghana seeking to achieve socio-economic growth. The following remarks made by two university librarians illustrate this point:

When I used to work in the public library in the old days we had defined roles and things went very well. After independence our public libraries deteriorated and nothing new has been done. Libraries have not been properly defined to reflect the country's attempts at solving socio-economic problems. Most public libraries are empty, no books. (UnivC3)

The roles of public libraries have to be set out properly, people do not use them to upgrade themselves and to develop themselves in this country. The whole concept of library is seen negatively in this country. I have seen libraries collapse over the years after our independence. (UnivE1)

Several of the respondents commented that the infrastructure for library and information work was poorly developed as a result of the poor appreciation of the value of information as a resource by the Ghanaian authorities:

Generally libraries and other information centres are not regarded as important by the powers that be and this has affected the development of library facilities in general. If you go to Britain even tiny villages have libraries. They still have mobile libraries for places where there are no libraries. (UnivC5)

A remarkable number of the interviewees also felt that the basic needs of housing, good water, roads and educational facilities always took precedence over libraries, on the part of government and policy makers as well as the general Ghanaian public:

Government and all those in positions of authority especially Ministry of Finance and so forth believe providing the basic necessities such as electricity, water, roads and schools are more important than libraries so the libraries remain underdeveloped. (UnivD10)

The Ghanaian educational system was also discussed as a social factor by the major stakeholders who were also librarians. They commented that even though the country had university and special libraries, the historical weakness of public and school libraries had meant that the majority of its citizens had not included library use in their educational process. The educational system according to the interviewees affects this reality, making it difficult to distinguish cause from effect, the educational system focuses on instruction rather than formation, a situation that generates students who are more receptive than creative. One University Librarian commented that this situation was worsened by the poor reading habits of young people and that the newly admitted undergraduates considered university libraries as corner groceries where they bought what was needed for immediate consumption. She reiterated that the library as an organisation that contributes to reflection and self - education had still to be discovered in the country:

...our educational system hasn't helped either, the youth of today do not like to read but listen to pop music. They consider libraries as place just like a corner shop where you go to buy what you need use it and that is that...what is lacking in the country is that people do not see the library as a place where one seeks to develop himself. They only see it as a place to pass exams after that no more libraries (UnivA2)

Almost all the respondents who were library staff commented on the impact of the weaknesses of school and college libraries on university library development. The immediate impact in their view is in the training of users, which takes up a considerable part of the university libraries' human resources and in personnel recruitment. Much staff time is spent on user instruction at the expense of more important professional library work:

Our school and college libraries are not strong enough. When the first year students enrol they do not know how to use the facilities here so we have to spend lots of staff time repeatedly to explain our operations and how to use catalogues whilst other more important jobs suffer. (UnivC1)

The absence of a national library was also perceived by many of the library staff as a social set-back which affects university library development. This, they remarked, affects strategic alliances of university libraries and other types of libraries as the function of a national library as the co-ordinator of library co-operative activities is lacking:

We don't have a national library so that motherly function of co-ordinating all activities of the various libraries is lacking and this affects networking. (UnivA3)

The importance of a national library to a country emerged strongly in the interviews in the UK study. The role of the British Library as an interlibrary loan centre and a national asset was remarked on by all the interviewees as very significant to university library development:

The British Library, our national library, plays a very important role in higher education. It is a national asset without which our level of acquisitions would have been low. It is supportive of our library's development. (UK51)

The interviewees in the UK study also commented on the attitudes of the public towards education and librarianship in particular. They remarked that there is a reading culture in the UK and education has always been regarded as very important aspect of their societal development and that new students usually were not totally ignorant about the use of libraries which they found helpful in their information provision:

...well, education in Britain is very important to our society. I would say it matters more to voters than any other issue and so are libraries. Library use is a way of some people's lives. We have a reading public. Most of our new students have knowledge of the use of libraries so that helps with our initial introductory week. (UK32)

In three of the university libraries in the UK, the interviewees described British society as a technology-conscious one. They remarked that British society had transformed to meet the challenges of modern technology and that modern technology can now be found in individual homes. The effect of this on the university libraries is that most library users have shown lots of enthusiasm in the use of IT and users of university libraries show a high level of IT know-how:

The British society has transformed itself and those institutes that have not followed have been dragged along in a way and it has been a situation of enthusiasm. Most families have TVs, satellites , PC's. So we have lots of users who are already using the facilities without much staff interactions. In fact I'm surprised these developments has caught up with everybody so rapidly (UK32)

An area of increasing concern for strategic decision-makers during recent years has been the need to show that their organisations are behaving in a socially responsible and ethical manner. A number of aspects of organisational behaviours of university staff were linked to the external socio-cultural context, especially the beliefs, values and norms which workers bring with them to the work place.

Bad timekeeping which has been nicknamed 'African punctuality', was believed to be part of the Ghanaian culture and usually workers who reported late for work hardly regarded it as having a negative effect on work. There was also the concern expressed by all the civil servants about the misuse of and disregard for handling public property. They commented that public sector workers did not take care of the facilities they had to use for their daily jobs:

Within the Ghanaian culture people do not take good care of their working tools and other equipment. I'm sure you have heard of the government property. They simply cannot be bothered and treat working facilities anyhow. (Min11)

The lack of commitment to work by Ghanaian workers was also commented upon, particularly by respondents at UnivA, UnivB, UnivC and UnivD. They were of the opinion that most workers in public organisations did not regard their work as a central life interest and that their behaviour was in conflict with role expectations. This behaviour, according to some of the interviewees, had become an accepted norm in many organisations whilst a second group linked it with the current economic difficulties in the country:

Workers' attitudes to work in public services is not encouraging but then in Ghana, most public servants believe their work does not pay enough. So many people do not give of their best and it is somewhat accepted and most people are carrying on with it. (UnivC7, p.2)

Attitude to work, the government sector . In private sector it is quite different. That is the number one factor. We have to change our attitude to work... we seem to believe that government work should be done any how. People are not dedicated to what they do.

They do not take good care of working materials, they do not do what they are expected to do. Of course it goes back to the economic problems. If people are well paid and their efforts are valued then they will put in a lot.. If salaries are not good, they get frustrated and get other incomes at the expense of what they do at their main jobs. (UnivB10)

This array of developments in the socio-cultural environment of the university libraries in Ghana, such as the behavioural conflicts with role expectations and the general lack of appreciation for libraries and information work, present non-traditional planning issues which will have to be factored into the management calculus of decision-making.

#### ***10.3.4 Technology Issues***

The respondents across all the case study institutions in Ghana recognised the significance of national technology infrastructure to library service development. They expressed various views on the technological changes going on globally and the significant implications for library expansion and growth and the improvement they can make to services. For example, they cited the use of high technology for publishing, the Internet, diversity in computer use and the departure from main frame computers, and electronic libraries.

The challenge, though, according to the majority of the respondents, lies not only in the pace, diversity and rate of change, but also in the scale of corporate and national response needed to keep abreast of these changes:

I believe our institutions have not responded well to these advances in modern technology. Nationally, we have not done enough though one may argue that we are better off than some other developing countries. That is not the issue here We need to develop our technology in order to catch up as these changes are going on fast in the developed countries. (UnivB9)

In the UK study, the interviewees were more positive about the manner in which the universities and the libraries had responded to recent developments in IT. They commented that the rapid changes in technology had affected the way in which universities and their libraries and their staff operated. They remarked that they had received political and financial support from the UK government through the HEFCs and had therefore capitalised on recent developments in IT which had presented opportunities and new challenges of doing library business:

IT now is helping the academic libraries to meet the needs of user and library management. In fact the Follett report recommendations included funds from central government through the HEFC to be invested in IT over a certain period. We have government support. We have responded and have been getting results. (UK51)

Several interviewees, particularly those working in Ghanaian university libraries further remarked that the success of modern libraries lies very much in the networks and the mechanisms to which they have access. In this regard, respondents commented that libraries depend on the technological infrastructure of their countries but found that of Ghana very poor:

Our technological base is poor. Libraries need to link up with other libraries but this is not a reality here because the national technology infrastructure is weak we don't have enough telephones. (UnivA3)

A number of reasons were given as to why there is a low level of technology application in the country. The most frequently cited was ignorance of the suitable technology on the part of the authorities who are responsible for providing them. Also near the top of the list is the traditional underinvestment in technology in favour of other investments in other sectors of the economy:

From time immemorial, this country has not invested in technology sufficiently. We do not value technology as we do the other sectors such as agriculture and education but if we developed this well education can be improved. (UnivC11)

Several of the respondents also reported on the national electricity supply which is solely dependant on hydroelectricity. In the dry seasons, the lake is remarked to dry to low levels and cannot produce the country's supply. This situation has often resulted in the rationing of electricity in the country, which usually results in most organisations not having power for a considerable number of days. One University Librarian remarked on its effect on the use of electrical equipment such as computers:

The electricity supply in the country has always been a problem. In the harmattan season when the Volta lake dries up electricity is rationed and this affects the use of our computers and many electrical appliances. (UnivD11)

The recent introduction of the Internet was hailed by all the respondents as a national strength because many organisations, particularly private businesses, have joined the

information superhighway but its use in universities is hampered by insufficient PCs, as one interviewee commented:

Joining the Internet is remarkable indeed and ideal for work. Its use in businesses in particular is very good but I'm afraid because we do not have many PCs to go round its use in the university I must say is very minimal. (UnivD11)

On the corporate level, many of the respondents at UnivA, UnivB and UnivE cited institutional resistance to change in anticipation of any large scale automation of services. One major stakeholder warned that those employees who were used to performing traditional tasks might feel threatened by the introduction of computers and that any technology strategy must take this into account:

People are used to the way things are done here. They may feel their positions are threatened so if we are planning a large scale automation we have to take all this into account. (UnivA12)

It must be mentioned here that it was observed that across all the case study institutions the majority of respondents in Ghana, especially the non-library workers, had very few views on the impact of technology on the environment especially in the context of university libraries. Their responses which are not presented here did not indicate any depth of understanding of the subject. Undoubtedly though, if university librarians are to plan effectively for survival of their library services as well as for service development, then monitoring the technology environment even globally, and adopting an external focus to information gathering to aid strategic management decision making will become increasingly relevant.

### ***10.3.5 International Issues***

The activities of international bodies such as the IMF, World Bank, embassies, EU and many other donor agencies were seen by most of the respondents as presenting opportunities and threats to strategic planning in university libraries in Ghana.

#### ***10.3.5.1 Opportunities***

The concept of strategy formulation in public organisations was viewed by almost all the interviewees as the brainchild of international organisations. They commented that planning had enabled many organisations, especially universities, for the first time in their histories, to provide plans that detailed their medium or long-term objectives and were able to assess



the impact of achieving those objectives within the context of the development process of the country:

The whole idea of strategic planning in the universities and other institutions was mooted by the donor agencies. This I must say has helped many institutions to set medium and long-term goals and within the national development culture have tried to achieve them. (UnivC8)

In UnivA, UnivB and UnivC many of the respondents commended the activities of foreign consultants for assisting with the country's economic recovery programmes. They remarked that the slight improvement in GDP and other indicators are consequences of international involvement in the country's financial strategies:

The little improvement you see in the economy lately has been a result of the activities of the World Bank consultants. Take GDP and others which is now in positive figures. It is because of the financial activities of these consultants. (UnivA12)

In UnivA, UnivC, UnivD and UnivE all the respondents who were library staff reported their reliance on donations of bibliographic materials from international bodies. They found their relationships with these bodies as vital to collection management:

Our association with bodies like British Council, Ranfurly, AAA have helped us to maintain some levels of acquisitions. Just last year when we could only afford to buy a few books we had to rely on British Council donations to keep up. (UnivD)

### **10. 3.5.2 Threats**

Despite the contribution to the development of library services, several of the respondents however reported having received irrelevant materials as donations from some of these international bodies, particularly from the Eastern bloc countries:

The problem with some of these donations is that sometimes they are not relevant to academic work especially books we received in so multiple copies on Chairman Mao and others. (UnivC4)

Some economic uncertainties were also believed to have been caused by some international bodies as was remarked by many of the respondents. They remarked that some of the changes in economic circumstances of the country, a result of pressure by some international organisations, have sometimes created unpredictable situations which affect carefully worked out plans of many organisations in the country. They remarked further that

the country is sometimes put under pressure by donor countries to pursue harsh economic measures which the Ghanaian government is compelled to comply with without objection so as to attract more support for development. They cited some of these measures as devaluation of the national currency and cuts in the budgets of many public organisations such as universities:

IMF policies such as devaluation and budget cuts for public services such as universities have been forced down the throats of our government which relies on their continuous support to survive. It does whatever IMF says without putting up a fight. Some of these measures bring untold hardships to the people of this country. (UnivA14)

### ***10.3.6 Environmental Scanning***

The issues discussed on the various segments of the external environment reveal a number of warning signals of changes taking place or yet to come in the Ghanaian macro-environment. The uncertainty and unpredictability of some of the issues have substantiated the survey results presented in Section 10.2.

A careful monitoring of these issues may lead to significant organisational opportunities or the identification of potential threats in time to take action to mitigate the effects on strategic planning in the university libraries. By so doing the libraries can make strategic decisions that keep them in equilibrium with the Ghanaian environment.

A key tool that can help an organisation survive rapid change in the macroenvironment is environmental scanning (also called issues scanning or issues management). Unfortunately, the strategic plans of the university libraries in Ghana are based on the predictive and mathematical models characteristic of the earlier views on long range planning (e.g. Porter, 1985). Despite the awareness of the tumultuous uncertainty of social, economic, political, technological and international forces that have changed the game for most organisations in Ghana, the planning efforts of the libraries studied in Ghana have not adapted to deal with these changes. Collectively, the impacts of these forces do not dominate corporate thinking as the evidence shows that a high percentage of the respondents believe strongly that economic and political issues need to be dealt with mostly in the environment as shown in

Table 10.7. This shows the results when the major stakeholders were asked to indicate how many factors the libraries would need to deal with in the external environment.

	Very few	Between few and very about middle	About Middle	Between about Middle and very Many	Very Many	Total N=63
Factor	%	%	%	%	%	%
Economic	0.0	0.0	9.8	32.8	57.4	100.0
Political	0.0	0.0	33.3	0.0	66.7	100.0
Socio-cultural	0.0	13.3	20.0	26.7	40.0	100.0
International	13.3	0.0	46.7	20.0	20.0	100.0
Technological	6.7	20.0	20.0	26.7	26.7	100.0

**Table 10.7** Environmental factors that would need to be dealt with

The table shows that the economic and political environments have many issues that would have to be dealt with.

When the library staff were also asked to indicate if their libraries monitored the environment systematically, over 90% (90.8%) reported that neither their libraries nor their universities monitored systematically what goes on in the economic and political environments. About 6% (6.2%) of the respondents reported some scanning activities and 3% claimed no knowledge.

### **10.3.6.1 Environmental Scanning-Constraints**

In view of the evidence in the last paragraph it was necessary to explore further the constraints that have prevented the libraries from scanning the environment.

The interviewees were therefore asked why their libraries did not scan the environment. Across the five case study libraries in Ghana, there were few differences in the responses. However, differences in opinions amongst major stakeholders roles emerged. Those who took part in producing their organisation's strategic plans presented mixed reasons why environmental scanning was not part of their strategy process. A section of them reported that university libraries in Ghana were relatively small entities within the external environment and therefore felt that forecasting future trends in the environment was not

appropriate or even feasible. They believed that environmental issues were relatively remote from library development.

Another group of strategists also commented that their libraries lacked the necessary resources to carry out a thorough analysis of the wider environment:

We didn't scan the environment because it is too broad and we didn't have the means to do so. (UnivB3)

Others who took part in drawing the plans also remarked that their libraries' strategic plans were based on guidelines which were handed over to them by the central university administration. They believed that the final document bore the values and perceptions of senior university managers without any assessment of the environment.

Another group of major stakeholders who were not members of the strategic planning committees did not see the usefulness of assessing a wider environment; which they believed they knew little about and also found to be notoriously difficult to try to forecast the future:

The issues we are talking about here are not easy to search. They are very difficult or even notoriously difficult to forecast. These are events that change per minute. It is not easy. (UnivC4)

The various views expressed by the different major stakeholders indicate the lack of environmental assessment culture in the university libraries in Ghana. Though it is very difficult to make a comprehensive assessment of the wider environment, the responses suggest that the crux of the problem is the fact that assessment of the external environment has not been considered as an essential component of the strategy process. The individual issues in the wider environment are well known to a considerable number of respondents but the methods of understanding the nature of these issues and using them as inputs into management thinking about future strategic decision making is completely non-existent.

# CHAPTER ELEVEN

## CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 11.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary purpose of this study has been to determine the factors that appear to have affected the development of a strategic planning process aimed at improving the capacity of Ghanaian university libraries to deliver information services effectively and efficiently.

Since the structure of universities in Ghana, is to a great extent, derived from or modelled on that of universities in the United Kingdom, the project has, of necessity, also included some consideration of current attitudes to the strategic planning process in a number of university libraries in the United Kingdom. A synthesis of the empirical findings from the study of the university libraries in Ghana and the evaluation of this aspect of the management of some United Kingdom university libraries are used for the second purpose of providing pertinent guidelines for university library management in Ghana. A third purpose of this study is to suggest a future research agenda in this important area of information management; important not only for libraries but also for other non-profit organisations.

In order to accomplish the primary purpose of this study a multiple case study approach has been used, capitalising on the flexibility it allows and using a mix of the interpretative and positivists paradigms. The selection of ten cases enabled the inclusion of a variety of educational traditions. The use of multiple data collection techniques, whereby the results from one set of data have been used to corroborate the evidence of previously collected data, has, it is believed, helped to achieve reliability and validity of the research findings.

A number of factors have been found to affect the development of strategic planning processes in university libraries in Ghana. The discussion of these factors as they relate to existing theories in strategy formulation are presented in this final chapter. Included in this chapter are conclusions drawn from the results of this investigation which have been linked with the issues raised in the introductory chapter in the context of the different perspectives of the strategy process. In achieving the second and third purposes of this project,

recommendations for improved information provision strategy for Ghana's university libraries based on the studies have been presented.

## **11.2 DISCUSSION OF THE FACTORS THAT AFFECT INFORMATION PROVISION STRATEGY IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES IN GHANA**

Discussion of the findings of the study are based on the sequence of major subtopics involving the issues discussed in Chapters Seven to Ten.

### ***11.2.1 Mission/Goals and Vision statements***

The first issue explored was the conception of library mission/vision held by the major stakeholders who were closely involved in the strategic direction of the libraries and also to determine if they share a common mission/goals for and vision of their libraries.

#### ***11.2.1.1 Library Mission/Goals***

According to the proponents of the normative (linear) model of the strategy process, 'a single, agreed clearly articulated mission is an essential prerequisite for successful strategic planning' (Vincent, 1988: p.43 ). The results as presented in Chapter Seven do not support this optimistic tone that dominated much of the early literature on strategy formulation. The results are however consistent with Cohen's (1972) finding that libraries, like many service organisations, often have multiple not single missions.

The findings indicate that the major stakeholders in the Ghanaian university libraries have different perceptions of the mission of their libraries. The findings suggest two perspectives. The major stakeholders who were non-Librarians preferred a narrower mission for the libraries, a mission that focused more on the needs of their particular institutions, and emphasised collection development as a method of attaining excellence; those who were Librarians had a much broader vision of their libraries' mission expressed in the context of national information provision, emphasising information access whilst at the same time balancing it with collection development. One of the constant issues in designing a mission statement involves just how broad one should make it. A broad mission statement has support in the literature, particularly in the corporate world. Pearce and David (1987) have asserted that broader mission statements are more helpful to an organisation than more narrow statements. Hayes (1993) advocates a broader mission for

university libraries. He states that a university library's mission imperatives must apply not only to the library but with at least equal vigour to the university as a whole and the university's imperative, like that of the library, must be based on the view that information is important to both society and the individual.

However, critics of broad mission statements for non-profit organisations, such as Milofsky (1979) believe that the narrower the mission statement, the less dissension there is likely to be among stakeholders and the easier it is to use in the evaluation of programmes. He states further that non-profit organisations with stable, narrow goals will find it easier to recruit individuals to articulate and support these goals to the broader community. These observations, of course, point back to the key point articulated earlier, namely that there are dissenting views of a mission of a university library among the different categories of major stakeholders.

A critical examination of the role of a mission statement, as defined by, for example, Oster (1995), points to three distinct functions: 'Mission statements serve boundary functions, act to motivate both staff and donors, and help in the process of evaluation of the organisation'. The boundary function is important as a way to provide focus for the organisation. The second function as far as libraries are concerned is to motivate staff, library boards, users and sponsors. It thus helps to carry across to people the ideology of the organisation, to serve as a flag around which the organisation can rally. The final function is to help in the evaluation of the organisation. Just as there are three functions served by the mission statement, there are also three constituencies the statement will affect: the staff, library and non-library sponsors and the users. As a boundary mechanism, the mission statement serves all three groups. It helps to attract sponsorship, focuses the staff and defines clientele. The motivational function operates principally on staff while the evaluation function is a staff-sponsors (government) domain.

These functions without doubt can be seriously undermined if a university library mission is full of diverse and conflicting elements, as this study has demonstrated. As a reflection of the basic goals, characteristics and philosophies that will shape the strategic posture of the university libraries, a mission statement that makes contradictory and competing demands on the libraries affects the basic foundation upon which all strategies are developed. Cyert and March (1992) state that goals must always result from the outcome of bargaining among

members of sub-coalitions. Mullins (1996) also stated that goals that have been defined through the consensus of major stakeholders help to develop the commitment of individuals. They also focus attention on purposeful behaviour and provide a basis for motivation and reward systems.

Unfortunately, the results of the study of the Ghanaian libraries have shown that the three principal groups of stakeholders did not have a single overriding mission for their libraries. Though Vincent (1981) argues that the absence of a single mission among stakeholders in a university library is more of a universal characteristic than an institutional one, past studies (for example Mullins, 1985; Genus, 1995) have shown that conflict between decision makers over objectives, goals or values often results in a degree of resistance to planned changes, which are often perceived as not being 'owned' by those affected by them.

A process of melding the diverse and conflicting views of the elements that constitute the mission statement of university libraries in Ghana is therefore a necessity to provide the basis for a culture that will guide future executive action.

The study also revealed a similar disagreement between the library staff and the library management as to the constituents of a library mission statement. Though a significant proportion of the library staff who participated in the study agreed with the libraries' management on quite a number of elements in a library mission statement, there were considerable differences regarding a broader mission statement for university libraries. The library staff were not in favour of developing a library mission that took into account a wider national perspective while library management believed strongly in a university library that served the entire nation. These differences must be addressed because objectives and strategies require mission statements that display such a single-minded, though multidimensional approach to doing library business (Pearce, 1982)

#### ***11.2.1.2 Vision for universities and university libraries***

According to Zalemik (1989), the primary responsibility of top management of a university is that they must have a vision of the university and of the library's role. Naisbett (1982) has also stated that to be worthy as a modern management tool to achieve organisational effectiveness, strategic planning must have a strategic vision.



The analysis of data on the vision that the major stakeholders have for the universities indicates that all three categories of major stakeholders across all five case studies in Ghana did have visions for the universities. Evidence was, however, also found that all the government officials and a considerable number of the non-Librarians did not have a strategic vision for the university libraries.

Secondly, the data suggests that despite having strategic visions for the universities, the vision statements of government officials were entirely opposite to the vision of the universities held by the major stakeholders who were university workers; while the former expressed a vision of implementing government educational reforms, particularly government's wish to spend more on vocational and professional education at lower levels than on university education, the latter would prefer growth and development at all levels of university education. According to Corral (1994), however, a strategic vision must be shared amongst all staff of an organisation.

The vision statements of the UK case study institutions provide some support for Hayes' (1993) vision of a library's role in an academic institution. Essentially, the results suggest that the service development of the university libraries reflects the educational objectives set in the universities' corporate planning documents. The priorities of the UK case study libraries are to extend access to information services to multiple categories of users and to facilitate the move from teaching to learning by harnessing information technology applications for the transmission of knowledge.

The overall results from the Ghanaian perspective did not fully support this concept of a strategic vision of a university library. It was the stakeholders who are librarians who to some extent supported the view that the strategic management of libraries must involve a perspective wider than its individual institutions. For the library profession, there is the perception of the entire set of academic libraries as a resource for a nation, and even the world, but for this research the majority view of the Ghanaian stakeholders who were not library workers was an emphasis on the excellence and breadth of the libraries' collections with a focus on traditional media.

The results further show the differences between the strategic visions of various major stakeholders. Hayes (1993) argues that in strategic management of university libraries, libraries have to develop grand strategies for preservation and resource sharing and that the

results of this will be a hierarchy of objectives, from individual library to the institution, the nation and the world. Underlying them all is the vision of the academic library as the institution for information resource management to meet the needs of society at every level (Hayes, 1993).

The results from the perspective of the library staff (not the major stakeholders) supports Hayes' (1993) argument and this is a positive sign for strategy implementation in the university libraries in Ghana. What is of great concern are the differences in aspirations of the government officials for universities, those of the major stakeholders of the university libraries and also the lack of strategic vision for the libraries by the government officials as well as the general lack of consensus among the various major stakeholders of the libraries. These political differences do not augur well for the universities nor the university libraries' development. Strategic visions are translated into key elements necessary to accomplish that vision (Hunger and Wheelan, 1996) and a sponsor who does not share an organisation's vision will be reluctant to commit his funds (Helfron, 1989).

### **11.2.2 RESOURCE CAPABILITIES OF THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES**

The classical approach to strategy formulation assumes that organisational competencies and resources that are distinctive or superior relative to those of rivals, may become the basis for competitive advantage (Andrews, 1971). Barney (1991) groups a firm's resources into financial, human and physical. Vincent (1988) concluded that the lack of these resources affects the effectiveness of strategic planning in libraries.

#### ***11.2.2.1 Funding and financing***

The results of the analysis of data on the financial standing of the university libraries in Ghana point to an economically unstable internal environment for doing library business. Secondly, the comparative data on library finance of the university libraries in Ghana and that in the United Kingdom show a strong support for the financial driven approach to strategic decision-making (Andrew, 1971; Thompson and Strickland, 1990). The resources-performance relationship in the UK case studies was found to be strikingly stronger than in the Ghanaian case studies. Evans (1991) has observed that the financial resources within a library enable it to fulfil its strategic potential. This finding of this research supports the

historical notion that a library that has better resources performs better. Grant (1991) states that resources are the source of an organisation's capabilities and capabilities are the main source of competitive advantage. According to Johnson (1994), library services are affected when money is tight. It is not surprising that this study has established that the UK university libraries with better resources perform better than the Ghanaian university libraries.

A number of factors have been found to account for the unstable financial standing of the case study libraries in Ghana.

The data suggests that the Ghanaian libraries relied completely on a single source of funding which was found both in the qualitative and quantitative studies to be highly inadequate for the needs of all the libraries. Many authors, for example, Riggs (1987), Baker (1990) and Johnson (1994), have observed that it is unrealistic for university libraries to expect a lavish allocation of funding and that libraries must not rely on a single funding source. Their strategies must therefore be directed at maximising resource provision from the wide range of potential funding available, whether from public or the private sector.

The analysis also showed that in the case study institutions, a high proportion of the library budget is spent on staff costs. However, the results of the UK study shows that a massive reduction in staff costs has been embarked upon and the evidence of staff reduction shows that if the librarians had maintained their staff numbers as they were ten years ago, they would probably by now account for almost their total budgets. The documentary analysis in Chapter Six revealed that in all the cases in Ghana, staff emoluments take about 80% of the entire budgets. If this is not reduced they would gradually account for the entire proportion of the libraries' expenditure.

Another obstacle to sensible financial planning in Ghanaian university libraries was found to be the highly unpredictable amounts and timing of government grants to universities. The data indicates that the actual amounts given to the universities are based on government revenue generated for the fiscal period. Sometimes targets are not met and universities have to suffer the consequences of reduced budgets. This finding was similar to Jazdon and Olszewski's study of problems in academic libraries in Poland, where they also found out that the highly unpredictable amounts and timing of budget grants made financial strategy in libraries virtually impossible (Jazdon and Olszewski, 1994).

Internal university and library financing were found to be heavily subject to a variety of controlling influences by a fragmented external coalition made up of: the World Bank, IMF and international consultants who pressurise public services to reduce spending; the Ministry of Education with prescribed norms for funding allocation; and university academics and administrators whose perception of the libraries' roles is so low that librarians are marginalised in academic and financial decision - making. This finding is similar to past studies of some non-profit organisations. For example, Newman and Wallender III (1978) found that resource contributors of non-profit organisations often intrude into the internal financial management of their beneficiaries which in turn affects their planning efforts.

One topic in library financial management about which much has been written recently is resource allocation. According to Johnson and Scholes (1988) financial planning involves deciding on the resources required for implementing strategies and identifying the extent to which required resources build on or change the pattern of existing resources. Line (1990) writes on resource allocation policy for university libraries and states that a university librarian must have virement between staff, equipment and acquisitions. This is consistent with the findings on resource allocation in the UK case studies, particularly evidence from UK51, UK42 and UK22. It was found that there is redeployment of resources from one library activity to the other in order to promote innovation and vitality.

The data on resource allocation in the Ghanaian case studies, however, suggests that resources allocation is non existent. Staff in particular are usually treated as a separate budget head and the university librarians are not free to switch money from staff to acquisitions and equipment. An overprotection of resources has been found by Yavitz and Newman (1982) to prohibit effective resource allocation. Resource allocation involves knowing how much different services cost in order to allocate resources between collections and services. Service and unit costing are therefore essential for effective resource allocation (Line, 1989). In comparison with the case study libraries in the UK, the Ghanaian university libraries were found not to monitor the cost effectiveness of library services whilst their UK counterparts were found to recognise service costing as an essential ingredient of effective resource allocation. This finding regarding the UK case studies is

consistent with current theories on financial planning of university and other academic libraries. Riggs (1987) states that:

University library financing must be designed to permit creativity and it is now good practice not to have unproductive library services; such services must be dropped and new ones implemented in line with cost/benefit calculus... without the movement of resources from one library program to the other there is little chance of promoting innovation and vitality (Riggs, 1987).

The data analysis further suggests that the Ghanaian university libraries do not have a clear strategy in disbursing funds as the evidence shows that they expend the resources in any direction often without allocating adequate resources in any one area to produce significant results. The linkage of planning goals to resource allocation decisions is non-existent.

Financial management at corporate and library levels was found to be largely on budgeting. At UnivC in particular, the interviewees misconstrued annual budgeting for corporate financial planning. As resources are inevitably limited the whole budgetary process becomes intensely political with various departments competing fiercely with each other for their share of diminishing funding. Hussey (1981) has argued that:

Budgeting is not the same as corporate planning because budgeting tends to co-ordinate current activities normally within a year, 'whereas corporate planning is used to stimulate thoughts, innovation, attention to appropriate changes and to provide motivation to stretch the organisation.' (Hussey, 1981)

Another aspect of the theory of resources capabilities is that organisations which survive and prosper over the long term are those which distinguish themselves in a way that continuously generates resources which can be used to improve the current strategic capabilities or to create new ones. Financial strategies for libraries are therefore concerned with long term development as well as short term cost recovery and income generation (Evans, 1991). Riggs (1987) proposed a merger of the concepts of entrepreneurship with strategic planning as a means for the reassertion of an innovative climate in the library environment. The importance of financial acumen and controls of a library's strategy has been commented on by Johnson (1994:11) who further states that 'the stereotype of the librarian is of a chronologically challenged person with a stern face sitting in front of a desk, portraying himself/herself as being reluctant to have anything to do with finance' must give way to a 'library manager' who brings with the title all the responsibilities of managers in other fields of employment including financial and budgetary control'. The results of data

analysis from the point of view of university librarians in the UK, particularly UK31, UK32, UK21 and UK22, show a considerable shift from that stereotype librarian to a library manager with the responsibility for relating budgets to the business plans for the library service. Training in business skills was found to be important as well as developing business plans with realistic financial targets and implementing financial strategies while controlling expenditure on daily basis. The overall goals of the libraries were also found to have been merged with an entrepreneurial objective of generating income and the responses by UK21, UK22, UK11, UK31 and UK32 indicate that income generation is now an integral part of library financial strategies and of the entire corporate development process.

In the Ghanaian case studies, the results suggest that interviewees considered that the responsibility for funding a university and its library rests solely on the government. A library was viewed as not for profit making and education of which it is an integral part, should not be left to market forces. For most of the libraries, income generation was talked about but had not got much further than payment for services like photocopying. At UnivA, UnivB and UnivD photocopying was found to be subsidised and proceeds hardly met a cost recovery strategy let alone income generation. However there was a general consensus among all the major stakeholders that librarians seeking better institutional funding should at least be seen to generate some income themselves.

#### ***11.2.2.2 Human resources***

The classical approach to strategic planning assumes that the future development of every organisation is crucially dependant upon the people who will be involved in transforming the strategic intent into action (Bowman and Asch, 1996). Human resources therefore have a powerful performance impact on organisations.

In the context of libraries, Corral (1994) notes the necessity for skilful, knowledgeable and competent personnel to meet the requirements for strategy formulation and implementation whilst Riggs (1987) advocates for the melding of human resources management with strategies. He cautions that without this melding, one cannot expect much more than mediocre performance toward goal/objective attainment. Riggs (1987) further suggests that strategic planning for libraries must take into account the elements of human resource management as it is currently applied in the business world such as judicious selection of

staff, training and development, staff motivation, performance appraisal and evaluation, leadership, rewarding and development.

The data on the assessment of the requisite skills for the strategic visions of the major stakeholders suggest that trained librarians to carry out the traditional library services are not a problem at UnivA, UnivB and UnivC. UnivD and UnivE, however, badly lack professional staff and this curtails any improvement in the organisation of the libraries and their services.

The kind of skills most valued and most difficult to acquire at all the case study libraries in Ghana in order for the libraries to realise a strategic vision of using IT to achieve academic excellence are at the post - professional levels such as computer expertise, IT knowledge and skills and business management. This finding is consistent with an observation made by Kissiedu (1994) about the University of Ghana library. She states that:

The major problem with staffing has not been that of numbers. The arrival of new technologies on the information scene in recent times and the new credentials and techniques required in library and information management have rendered the traditional library qualifications inadequate to meet those demands (Kissiedu, 1994: p.13).

This finding also implies that currently there is a mismatch between the skills that the personnel of the libraries possess and what is required to achieve new goals and objectives. Whilst the obvious solution to this problem is to develop new skills and appoint 'new blood', the evidence from this study indicates that the librarians do not have this freedom to make such choices easily. In human resource management such freedom and autonomy are needed to make quick and rational strategic choices but at all the Ghanaian case studies libraries, the librarians did not control the staff purse and as such could not explore the feasibility of alternative working patterns. At present hiring new people with new skills cannot be done without ministerial approval. This kind of association between politics and effective human resources management has been explored by Yavitz and Newman (1982) who found that company politics had a negative effect on the relationship between resource allocation and organisational performance.

The data further revealed that there is no formal statement of staff development and training policy specifically geared towards the realisation of the strategic vision of the major stakeholders and none of the five case study institutions in Ghana has any financial

allocation specifically for staff development in that direction. Hayes (1993) states that data from the industrial context suggests that, for any strategic human resource management to succeed, at least 2% of the total staff budget and preferably as much as 4% must be set aside for staff development towards specific library strategies.

The data on the UK university libraries showed that money and time spent on training and development varied considerably from institution to institution. In two of the libraries, the data revealed that prior to the formulation of their recent strategic plans there had been extensive commitment to investment in staff development. The others showing varying degrees of staff development investment still proved that the budgetary and financial framework for training and development was an integral part of their long term institutional policies.

The results of the evaluation of current staffing patterns and competencies in the university libraries showed similarities between the UK case studies and the Ghanaian case studies. For example, both sets of respondents believed that the present problems in staffing positions in libraries mean that there is an urgent need to utilise the existing staff resources judiciously. They both provide basic level training (induction) for new employees, have job rotation to encourage staff to learn most of the library operations and all have staff appraisal schemes. The purposes of staff appraisal schemes, however, vary among all the case studies, with many focusing upon staff development, while others attempt to serve as a vehicle for improvement in current job performance through the identification of key objectives and associated achievements, failures and constraints.

The data suggests further that in the UK case study libraries, formal staff appraisal schemes were for all levels of staff but as far as the data on the Ghanaian case studies were concerned, formal staff appraisal schemes did not include the professional staff, which suggests that in most cases the annual appraisal process of individuals was not linked to the overall library strategy. Johnson (1994) highlights the importance of staff appraisal schemes and their association with the performance evaluation component of strategic planning.

Information from interviews and the visits made to the individual institutions in the UK highlighted their pursuance of flexible working arrangements in order to cope with the demands on the libraries resulting from the increase in student numbers. For example, at



three of the libraries, where local agreements on flexible hours of work were in place to help improve services to users, one frequently cited example was the prevalence of flexible working with time off in lieu to cover extended opening hours in the evenings or at weekends. Contractual flexibility was also found to exist, to ensure that professional staff roles can be worked as reasonably required by management. In contrast, in all the university libraries in Ghana there was no flexibility at all, with professional staff effectively working only during normal office hours. The traditional 'custom and practice' requires them to finish work at a fixed time. This situation has made it impossible to extend opening hours in the libraries in response to student demand for longer periods of opening.

The present opening hours, fixed since the inception of the libraries, will however have to change if the libraries are to cope with the increasing numbers of users and potential users of the libraries. This will call for flexibility of contractual positions for effective working and the University Council will also have to review employment policies for librarians which will allow for flexible working patterns covering seven days a week with extended opening hours.

The need to develop an adaptable and well motivated staff who will promote implementation of strategy has been noted by Rue and Holland (1986) and Bradbury (1993). The data on staff motivation in the university libraries in Ghana indicates that staff are lowly paid and consequently there is a drastic reduction in staff morale at all levels. The situation is worst amongst the non-professionals and para-professionals who were found to have 'artificial' restrictions on promotion to professional posts, even where candidates were qualified by competence but not by formal qualifications. Two scenarios exist in the libraries. On the one hand, many para-professionals try to circumvent the hurdle by leaving their posts to pursue further formal training in order to get promoted. The effect of this is that, because promotion is qualification-related, they are promoted immediately after acquiring the new professional qualifications and this affects the already over-stretched staff budgets. On the other hand, there is significant disillusionment on the part of those who cannot for one reason or another have any career opportunities but continue to face financial pressures.

This existing situation of distinguishing between professionals who are considered academics and the para-professionals and non-professionals has been criticised in past

studies (e.g., Line, 1991) as having an inhibiting effect on greater delegation of responsibility to clerical staff, thus also reducing the opportunities for 'upskilling'. In contrast, though these distinctions were found to exist in the case studies in the UK, they are less rigid and are more flexible when it comes to promotion. It was found that promotion from one grade to the other was not qualification- related but dependant on staff competence and available vacancies. In fact, this concept of distinguishing between academic - related professionals and the 'others' has been found to affect adversely team work and hence the strategy implementation process. A report on human resource management in academic libraries for the UK HEFC, the Fielden Report (1993) proposed that:

...the term 'professional' as applied to a particular grade of staff be abolished: its use in this sense within institutions is unnecessarily divisive and obstructs teamwork. LIS managers should aim to ensure that all staff achieve the highest standards of professionalism in their services to customers of all kinds. (Fielden Report, p. 34)

### ***11.2.2.3 Physical resources***

Physical assets have been described by many authors on the resource-based view of strategic management, such as Kiernan (1993), as an internal strategic factor which in combination with others constitutes the strengths and weaknesses that may well determine whether a firm will be able to take advantage of opportunities while avoiding threats. Experts in the area, led by Barney (1991) and Grant (1991) suggest that differences in performance among companies may be explained best, not through differences in industry structure identified by industry analysis but through differences in corporate assets such as physical assets and their applications.

In the context of this study, in accordance with the resource-based view, the data analysis revealed that the shortage of physical infrastructure in all the case study institutions in Ghana, particularly UnivD and UnivE, poses a major threat to the development of strategic planning in Ghanaian university libraries. The problem was found to be less significant amongst the UK case studies. The UK university libraries visited were found to be relatively well endowed with library facilities. This is consistent with Hayes' (1993) observation when he states that:

In developing countries, the lack of an adequate infrastructure, including communications, logistical support and availability of

consultation services is an insurmountable barrier...though the problem exists in US and UK, it has not had that kind of effect on the academic libraries (Hayes, 1993: 94).

Similarly, Ferguson (1992) observed that physical resources in most developing countries are limited, they have a poor infrastructure and because of this there is the perception that planning will always lead to frustration.

Woodsworth et al (1989) note that physical facilities must be planned and built to meet future planning needs of libraries as a way to articulate a strategic direction for the library and information services. They state further that in situations where new buildings cannot be constructed renovation of physical facilities ought to be done in relation to the libraries' long range planning. The lack of space in all the case study libraries in Ghana was found to impede access to library resources by students. However, in UnivC and UnivB, new buildings were under construction as a measure to solve the accommodation problem but these efforts were found not to have been initially linked with the libraries' long term planning as evidence proves that the construction of the buildings was started some two decades ago and was found to be nowhere near completion. Yet fears were also expressed by the major stakeholders that if the present level of funding persists then the libraries would not be able to provide the new buildings with the necessary equipment that could meet the needs of the students in the 21st century.

Grant (1991), elaborating his capabilities resource theory, suggests that four characteristics of resources and capabilities are also important in sustaining competitive advantage. The first is durability, which he explains as the rate at which a firm's underlying resources and capabilities depreciate or become obsolete; the others are transparency, transferability and replicability. In the context of the durability characteristics, the data for this study indicate that in addition to the limited physical infrastructure found in the Ghanaian case studies, UnivA, UnivB and UnivD reported a very high rate of obsolescence of existing physical equipment, a consequence of years of use without adequate maintenance.

In the light of this evidence it may be concluded that the limited physical resources of the university libraries in Ghana do not afford them the capabilities to implement a successful strategy. They lack the core competencies that could give them that competitive drive. Prahalad and Hamel (1990) state that firms' resources give them capabilities which are the

organisations' distinctive or core competencies which in turn confer the potential for strategic advantage.

### **11.2.3 THE INTERNAL ENVIRONMENTS OF THE LIBRARIES**

The discussion in this section is based on the sub-themes as presented in Chapter Nine.

#### ***11.2.3.1 Staffing structure and management style***

Chandler (1962) in his classic study on strategy-structure, showed how changes in strategy - namely product market diversification- required subsequent alterations in structure, particularly diversification, hence the maxim 'structure follows strategy' i.e., fitting the structure to strategy. A legion of replicators have followed with empirical studies across wide geographical areas largely confirming Chandler's conclusion. The thesis that structure followed strategy has been tested and confirmed in Britain (Channon, 1973), France (Pooley-Dias, 1972) and Germany (Thanheiser, 1972).

Richard Rumelt (1974) also showed how the match between strategy and structure influences performance and this was supported by Galbraith (1973) and Whittington (1993). Though the classical concept has been found over the years to be basically sound, other authors have described it as too simplistic and have developed other dimensions to the concept, e.g., Miles and Snow (1978), Mintzberg's (1979) adaptive strategies and their structural environmental correlates. They looked at strategy and structure from a multidimensional point of view. They identified entrepreneurial planning and adaptive models of strategy-making and related these to the organisational and environmental contexts in which they occur. Other authors, such as Porter (1980) and Hambrick (1983), have derived extremely suggestive conceptual typologies and empirical taxonomies of strategy, focusing on variables that have enjoyed much attention from industrial economists- variables that have been shown repeatedly to influence performance and those that can often be manipulated by managers. These include external power relations, leadership, environmental dynamism and extent of technology application.

The underlying theme of these recent developments is the unification of strategy and structure; that, given a particular strategy, there are only a limited number of suitable structures and vice versa. Specifically, the sophisticated concepts of some strategic theorists- particularly Miles and Snow (1978) and Porter (1980)- have been related to those

of the major structural theorists, notably Lawrence and Lorsch (1967), Burns and Stalker (1961) and Mintzberg (1979), to produce a philosophy of integration of particular elements of strategy and organisational variables. In effect, the current view is that elements of structure cohere within common configurations, as do those of strategy. Furthermore, these configurations are themselves interlinked in that there are natural congruencies between particular strategic, structural and indeed environmental configurations.

Thompson (1991), writing on library structure and strategy and in support of the configuration theory, states that:

Organising for change means establishing an appropriate, tailor-made staffing structure where every task has been agreed to be necessary and still relevant and fitting well with other environmental constructs (Thompson, 1991 p.11).

Past studies in academic and public libraries particularly from the US and the UK (such as Evans, 1991; Hayes, 1993; Johnson, 1994; Moore, 1995), have concluded that modern information systems, automation methods and cultural changes that have occurred in many library services call for a structural configuration that permits a much flatter structure and the reduction in the number of middle managers. They recommend the organic type of structure to respond to the strategic environment.

The findings of this study on staffing structure in the Ghanaian case study libraries differ markedly from the theories described so far. First, the results do not support the classical theory that structure follows strategy. Second, the present structures also defy the configuration approach and also ignore any relationship with environmental dynamism.

The organisational structure of the university libraries in Ghana was introduced in the early 1950s and 1960s. They were created to the colonial librarianship standards of the traditional concepts of span of control, which result in a pyramid or hierarchical structure. Regardless of the deficiencies within these structures and the advent of information technology as well as changes in other environmental variables such as size of readership, they have not been altered, resulting in superfluity (overgrowth) of organisation structures across all five case studies. At UnivA, UnivB and UnivC there are more professional librarians than para-professionals, all being supervisors controlling various departments, sections, branch libraries and so on. This dispersion of library tasks is a considerable setback to effective management, dissemination of information and performance of special tasks, and finally, it

can cause the dispersion of professional competence and authority and hamper the monitoring of task performance (Jazdon and Olszewski, 1994)

The data analysis also revealed that the management style of the university libraries was the autocratic type as the responses indicated a top down strategic decision making process with an obsession for control and discipline. Pao and Warner (1989) have observed that autocracy is good for business but when it comes to implementing strategic planning there are important differences between business and libraries and that as far as libraries are concerned, strategic planning must be done in a participatory manner. Brownen and Burton (1988) found that the fairly centralised and formalised structure of the library imposed rigidity and inhibitions on the library's ability to innovate and respond more closely to users' needs. Manning (1991) and Corral (1994) and many other authors have suggested a consultative style of management with an emphasis on team building for university libraries. Manning (1991) has observed further that the consultative process has also been recognised by many as the key element in Japanese business superiority over American business.

#### ***11.2.3.2 Organisational culture/climate***

Organisational culture can facilitate or hinder a firm's strategic actions. A 1994 study showed that firms with 'strategically appropriate cultures', such as PepsiCo, Walt-Mart and Shell, outperformed selected other corporations with less appropriate cultures (Verespej, 1994). Kono (1990) has emphasised the point that the culture of a successful firm must be appropriate to, and supportive of, that firm's strategy and that the culture must enshrine values that can help the firm to adapt to environmental change.

An important aspect of culture that correlates with strategic success is the power relationships that exist in an organisation. Hofstede (1991) demonstrates that a large power distance in an organisation correlates negatively with organisational performance. The analysis of data, particularly of the library staff perspective of all the Ghanaian university libraries, showed that there is a large power distance between library management and the rest of the library staff. This finding is consistent with Hofstede's study of Power Distance Index (PDI) values of 50 countries and 3 regions when he found that West African

countries had a high PDI of 77, much higher than that of the USA (38) and Britain (44) (Hofstede, 1991). The implication for strategy is that the effect of organisational processes such as inequality at work places, encourages a mechanistic structure. The power to make decisions rests with only the very top managers and the tendency for junior staff, because of non-participation, to block the implementation of decisions, affects the strategy-culture relationship (Bowman and Asch, 1996). The negative impact of monopoly of organisation decisions by top management has been demonstrated in a study of 12 successful companies by Lorsch (1986). He found that, because top managers have a system of beliefs that underly their strategic choices, the less successful companies have managers whose beliefs inhibit strategic change and who are also blinded by strongly held beliefs without listening to advice from other staff.

Schein (1985) has observed that culture is shaped by many factors such as values and beliefs. He states further that an organisation that operates under the assumptions that, for example, truth comes ultimately from older and higher status people, people are capable of loyalty and discipline in carrying out instructions, some organisations are characterised by closed doors and deference and obedience to rank, leads to a power and role culture where culture depends on a central power source with influence spreading out from the central figure. The role culture is stereotyped as a bureaucracy, its strength resting in defined functions and specifications as well as in procedures and set of job descriptions. The organisational beliefs and values of the libraries studied in Ghana indicate a similar situation similar to that described by Schein (1985). For example, the responses indicated that an overwhelming number of respondents (84.7%) believed that the libraries were characterised by deference and obedience to rank, a kind of environment which Norton (1994) describes as embodying values and beliefs that are less effective to competitive survival.

It is not surprising that the data on the awareness of and participation in the strategic planning processes of all the Ghanaian case studies (Section 9.2.6) showed that the professional librarians participated more significantly than the other levels of staff, with almost 100% non-awareness and non-participation amongst the non-professionals. Riggs (1987) states that:

It is crucial for appropriate persons in the library to have personal involvement and commitment to the strategic planning process if it is to have long-term effectiveness and that their participation will help offset the anti-planning biases and counter the resistance to

change...strategic planning is a human centred process and the team work aspect of strategic planning is strengthened by having an all staff participation (Riggs, 1987 p. 48).

Clemenceau is said to have remarked that “war is much too important to be left to the generals”. Yet, particularly in peacetime, many military decisions tend to be delegated to the generals (Van der Poel, 1995, p.196). Equally, information provision strategy deserves a lot of input from the library generals, but is much too important to be left to them alone.

Davies, Kirkpatrick and Oliver (1992) and Bowman and Asch (1996) note that patterns of behaviour that clash with management preferences correlate negatively with organisational performance and hence the strategy process. The data analysis of the case study libraries in Ghana suggests a number of tensions and conflicts between staff behaviour, routinised either deliberately or through custom and practice, and the formal organisational routines. For example, lateness to work, lax supervision, laziness, non-commitment and loitering emerged strongly as behavioural patterns which will have to be changed to create the compatibility between planned strategy and the libraries’ culture because the more strategies and corporate culture are in true harmony the higher the level of strategic management competence (Kono, 1990).

### ***11.2.3.3 Internal library politics***

Different views on the relationship between politics and the strategy process were discussed in Chapter Nine. The classical view is that organisational politics correlate negatively with strategy (Pfeffer, 1981). One principal factor that supports this thesis was observed by David (1986) who stated that:

The hierarchy of command in an organisation of different individuals and the need to allocate scarce resources, guarantee the formation of coalitions of individuals who strive to take care of themselves first and the organisation second, third or fourth (David, 1986 p. 230)

In the context of this study, this theory was partly supported by the interview data but not the survey results. The interview data revealed that internal politics in UnivA, UnivB, and UnivC delay or prevent the execution of some major policy decisions because of interpersonal conflicts, interdepartmental conflicts and informal leadership. This finding is also consistent with MacMillan’s (1978) view of the political constraint on strategy. The contemporary view (e.g., Mintzberg, Quinn and Ghoshal, 1995), however, is that politics



has functional as well as dysfunctional roles in the formulation and implementation of strategies. The interview data revealed that coalitions and influential groups have promoted strategic change which would have otherwise been blocked by the more legitimate systems of influence. For example, in UnivC, influential groups were found to educate other staff on major organisational decisions denied them by the formal chain of command.

Unfortunately none of these findings was substantiated by the survey results. A possible explanation for this is that the effects of these internal political activities are yet to be experienced by the other members of staff who did not consider these features as currently crucial to the development of strategy process. Because strategic planning is long term and future oriented, a major responsibility of the library strategists will be to guide the development of these features in their fundamental stages in order to use them to enhance strategy. For example, coalitions as they exist now can be nurtured into an overall team concept and used to gain the support of key individuals and groups of influencers. Rue and Holland (1986) also argue that:

The internal political environment is composed of those internal forces which may influence the strategic choice process...the end result of changes in the political environment is that management must find ways of involving and influencing the decision processes of other interest that have the power to prevent its strategies from being successfully implemented (Rue and Holland, 1986 p. 88).

#### ***11.2.3.4 Service development***

The main finding on current service development in the Ghanaian case study institutions is the impact the notion of comprehensive collection building is having on library service development. Two different reasons account for this. First, at UnivA, UnivB, and UnivC, despite the considerable awareness of changes in service development, a result of technical developments, a formal review of policies on service development has never been done since the establishment of the libraries. At that time, the emphasis was on collecting all affordable material. There was no indication of a departure from this line of thinking as the libraries are still characterised by 1. the idea of library collections for services. 2. the notion of purposeful book selection and 3. the use of technical innovations of the 19th century such as relative shelf location, improved catalogue codes, systematic approaches to shelf arrangement and classification and updating of catalogue cards. Second is the lack of awareness of strategic issues in service development on the part of respondents at UnivD

and UnivE. The implication is that the current service provision which is modelled on those of UnivA, UnivB and UnivC is still driven by collection-building and not primarily by customer demand.

The traditional functions of libraries - selection and acquisition, intellectual and physical organisation, storage and preservation, access and retrieval are changing, as was found in some of the UK case studies. Hayes (1993) notes that the classical imperatives of collection development and access to information records are beginning to conflict instead of being mutually supportive. The problem of preservation is becoming one of monumental magnitude; and the relationship of the library to other means for information access is becoming increasingly complex.

In other words, across the board of academic library management responsibilities, change is the order of the day. Strategic management needs to assess each of these functions both for its contribution to the perceived mission of the libraries as a whole and its individual viability. The data analysis for the UK case studies revealed that the university libraries are targeting their services clearly, partly as a result of the need to manage diminishing resources but also from a recognition of the importance of a customer driven approach to services development. This was revealed to be consistent with literature on university library service development e.g., Line (1990), Thompson (1991) and Roberts (1992).

The pattern of future service development in UnivA, UnivB and UnivC was found to be encouraging to some extent, as respondents indicated their wish to see technology and change as driving forces of the information age library. However, the emphasis on a shift from collections to access as an essential factor for service development remains a dream, as the respondents did not think it was a viable alternative because library budgets are not sufficient to purchase the new technology media. At UnivD and UnivE, the varied views on how services should develop suggest a lack of recognition of the sweeping changes in university library service development. Their future still points to the thinking of the concept of the 'eternal library' (Roberts, 1992) and does not have any practical alternative to serving the present but also has no social or moral alternative and still believes that building the collection is the supreme objective.

### ***11.2.3.5 Strategic alliances (Co-operation and resource sharing)***

Strategic alliances are partnerships between independent firms who share compatible goals, strive for mutual benefit, and acknowledge a high level of mutual interdependence. They join efforts to achieve goals that each firm acting alone could not attain easily (Powell, 1987). In business strategy, Powell (1990) and Bleeks and Ernst (1991) state that the formation of these alliances and partnerships is motivated primarily to gain competitive advantage in the market place. Partnerships can afford a firm access to new technologies or markets; the ability to provide a wider range of products/services; economies of scale in joint research and/or production; access to knowledge beyond the firm's boundaries; sharing of risks; and access to contemporary skills (Powell, 1990).

One of the aims of this section was to assess the perception of the benefits and reasons for library co-operation among all the case studies. In the context of university libraries, one approach to dealing with pressures on space and stock might be sought in greater collaboration and resources sharing between institutions (Follett Report, 1993).

The data analysis revealed that though the benefits of library co-operation and resource sharing were expressed in a narrower context in Ghana than in the UK, the benefits of library co-operation expressed include: reduced acquisition costs arising from co-ordinated purchasing policies; and a broadening of the range of facilities available to users from collaborating institutions. There was also some of the benefits outlined in the Follett Report (1993).

However, prescriptions for the formation of collaborative action often overlook the drawbacks and hazards of such relationships. For example, increasing complexity, loss of autonomy and information asymmetry may accompany partnership relationships (Williamson, 1975; Provan, 1984). Although the number of attempted partnerships has grown in recent years in business and libraries, the rates of success are rather low (Harrigan, 1988; Kanter, 1988). Research in strategic alliances has assumed that, when practised under appropriate circumstances and environmental conditions, collaboration will be successful. Yet, as mentioned previously, a large number of these strategic partnerships do not succeed (e.g., Harrigan, 1985, 1988). Given this inconsistency, this study sought the factors associated with partnership success or failure in the university libraries in Ghana.

The data analysis revealed that a number of physical and behavioural attributes were responsible for the failure of earlier co-operative ventures in Ghanaian university libraries. The physical factors associated with the lack of success were found to be inadequate resources, the low levels of library services and the absence of a national library. This finding was similar to that of past studies on Ghana (Kissiedu, 1994) and China (Zheng, 1989).

The behavioural attributes found to affect library co-operation were: the lack of co-ordination and trust; problems with interdependence and defective communications between partners. In every partnership two important premises prevail. First, partnerships tend to exhibit behavioural characteristics that distinguish these more intimate relationships from more traditional (conventional) business relationships (Borys and Jemison, 1989). Second, while partnerships in general tend to exhibit these behavioural characteristics, more successful partnerships will exhibit these characteristics with more intensity than less successful partnerships. Salmond and Spekman (1986) also found that the behavioural characteristics that correlate with partnership success are commitment, trust, communication behaviour and conflict resolution techniques, which tend towards joint problem - solving, rather than domination or ignoring the problems (Borys and Jemison, 1989 ; Mohr and Nevin, 1990).

In sum, the results of this study support the literature cited and confirm that more successful partnerships are expected to be characterised by higher levels of commitment, co-ordination, interdependence and trust as well as the availability of communication infrastructure, library infrastructure and other physical and human resources than are less successful partnerships.

#### ***11.2.3.6 Strategic management of information technology (IT) and performance evaluation***

There are two dominant theories concerning the role of information technology (IT) in strategy formulation and implementation and its impact on organisational performance.

A number of traditional strategy researches advocate tight IT-strategy linkages, asserting that IT affects firm strategies, that strategies have IT implications and that firms must somehow integrate strategic thrusts with IT capabilities (Rackoff, Wiseman and Ullrich, 1985; Bakos and Treacy, 1986; Beath and Ives, 1986). Porter and Millar (1985), for

example, related IT to the value chain, concluding that the main strategic purpose of IT is to co-ordinate activities in the chain. These researches were almost uniformly positive that IT produces sustainable competitive advantages.

Recent empirical findings have provided major challenges to the earlier optimism (e.g., Rumelt, 1987; Teece, 1987) and as a result a less optimistic view of IT's direct performance impacts-the strategic necessity hypothesis - has appeared. With this approach IT is used to leverage or exploit firm - specific intangible resources such as organisational leadership, culture and organisational processes to gain performance advantages (Clemons and Row, 1991; Henderson and Venkatraman, 1993).

In the context of this study, there is evidence from the case studies that supports both perspectives. For example, in support of the pre-1990's view of a positive correlation of IT sophistication and performance, the case studies' evidence suggests that the UK case study libraries had not only gained direct strategic advantages over their Ghanaian counterparts, but had significantly altered the ways of doing library business, particularly by changing library structures; by re-structuring and improving lateral communication and interaction between sections, reducing autonomy and isolation of tasks, reducing specialisation and encouraging the concept of team - working. They exhibit a better fit of IT and strategy integration. IT investments were found to have moved beyond the earlier stages of ad hoc institutional or HEFC funding. Costs of automation have been built into the constant budgets both in recurrent terms and in terms of constant renewal and upgrading of computer systems. These developments on the part of the UK case study libraries confirm some of the fundamental concepts argued for IT innovation and sophistication based on its potential for altering structural variables in organisations (Benjamin et al, 1984; Cash and Konsynski, 1985; Porter, 1985; Clemons, 1986).

An interaction of resources with IT to produce sustainable advantage - the underlying theme of the strategic necessity hypothesis was also found to be evident in the data analysis presented in Chapter Eight (Data and findings on resource capabilities of the university libraries) of this study. The data suggest that, in the UK case studies IT performance has been combined with critical complementary resources to achieve superior performance. For example, IT has been combined with human and physical resources to achieve better

resource allocation policies as there is redeployment of resources from one library activity to the other.

In the case studies in Ghana, a number of factors was seen to account for the failure to achieve any direct strategic advantages in the application of IT. The data suggests that the libraries have had rather low investment in acquiring IT infrastructure. Innovations made in IT were found to be wholly or in part derived from donor-provided support which this study has demonstrated has not been adequate. A direct result of this is that none of the libraries has embarked on a full-scale automation of library operations. Only at UnivA have a few PCs been used to implement small scale projects. In this regard a strategic approach to IT by the libraries, namely positioning of the management of information systems alongside all other aspects of overall organisational strategy and management, is impossible (Plant, 1992).

In the Ghanaian libraries the extent of computer usage was found to be very low, another direct result of the lack of IT infrastructure. At UnivB, UnivD and UnivE about 80% of the staff had had no exposure to PCs. Though the percentage was lower at UnivA and UnivC the general perception was that computer illiteracy in the libraries has to be dealt with as the data also suggests the lack of an infrastructure of expertise and professional support, not to mention problems relating to training and education.

In addition to the lack of the basic requirement of a regular electricity supply, none of the libraries has yet made any practical proposals as to how maintenance and development costs might be met and none appears to have any computer service contracts, so maintenance is non-existent. Though research on IT in developing countries still remains fragmented, an attempt to build a theory for this field of study from developing nations' perspectives by Sahay and Walsham (1995) identified to a fair degree all the issues associated with application of IT in university libraries in Ghana.

#### **11.2.4 THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT**

The data on the external context of the Ghanaian environment revealed a tumultuous uncertainty of political, economic, social, technological and international issues. A range of specific factors were found to affect the development of strategic planning. Perhaps the

only somewhat surprising finding was the relatively low emphasis given to technological issues and the relationship between national and university library development by the major stakeholders who were not librarians - surprising, that is, when one considers the now universal mantra of 'technology as the key to development'.

Some of the findings on the relationship between a university library and its remote environment, as revealed in this study, support a number of past studies, particularly on university libraries in developing countries, and also to a fair extent corroborate evidence from literature on the Ghanaian macro-environment presented in Chapter Five. For example, Franco and Diaz (1995), in a study of human resources in the library system of the Pontifical Catholic University of Chile (SIBUC), made several observations confirmed by some of the findings in this study. On the socio-cultural dimension they found that the historical weakness of public libraries and school libraries had a negative impact on university library development in Chile, exacerbated by poor reading habits among young people. As with the present study Franco and Diaz also found the effect of monetary exchange policies and the markets on the bibliographic materials acquisition budget of their university library. They highlight stringent customs laws and regulations and their negative impact on collection development at SIBUC.

The present study also supports previous research on planning in developing countries, For example, several factors that differentiate the planning environment in developing countries from that of developed countries, as identified by, for example, Flores (1972), Adegbite (1986), Fubara (1986) and Mrema (1987). Such factors include the absence of the technology required to monitor systematically the external environment and collect needed data, highly unstable economic and political environments, the absence of a technological infrastructure and the lack of political will for information-related developments.

One implication of these findings is also the support they give to management research in the transferability of management theory and practices developed in western economies to other countries. The finding of Kiggundu, Jorgsen and Hafsi (1983) that managerial activities that involve how the organisation relates to its environment were difficult to transfer from western economics to developing countries is given some support in this study. The responses from the UK and Ghanaian librarians indicate that the political and economic sectors of Ghana's environment were found to be more unstable than the UK.

This highlights the importance of the political and economic environments in the practice of management in developing countries. Developed nations are typically characterised by relatively stable political and economic environments. Managers in developing countries, however, are faced with highly unstable political and economic environments. Government policies are uncertain and unpredictable. Major decisions that affect the conduct of business are made unilaterally by government for political reasons and often without adequate regard for the possible economic consequences. This makes managers of organisations operating in developing countries more sensitive to the political and economic sectors.

The findings of the survey on the external environment from the major stakeholder perspective further added insights into the character of strategic decision - making in Ghana and in university libraries in particular. As the results in sections 10.1-10.2 show, among the three environmental dimensions of dynamism, complexity and hostility, the data analysis was not conclusive about the complexity factor but revealed that the economic and political factors of the university libraries were the most dynamic and most hostile of all the five environmental segments- namely, the political, economic, socio-cultural, technological and international environment

Since, according to Hambrick (1981), each environmental sector has a distinct influence on decision making and organisational actions, (and a high dynamism implies that the rate of change is high therefore external activities and events shift rapidly), decision - makers do not have accurate information about them (Duncan, 1972). There is therefore a high perceived environmental uncertainty for the university libraries (Huber and Daft, 1987).

The perceived high environmental uncertainty in the political environment in this study is centred primarily on government regulations and interventions. This, however, has been the norm in the history of universities in Ghana, but the current university workers have always opposed every new policy of the present government. What is new here is the degree of uncertainty encountered by the libraries in other areas - uncertainty as to closures of libraries because of the actions of a striking pressure group, uncertainty as to the future balance between national and university interests as government attempts to revamp the economy, uncertainty as to continuing competition between libraries and other departments of the universities for limited resources, and the gradual erosion of the power base of the libraries that prevents them from competing effectively for these resources. Indeed, it is



these factors in the political scene that make the environment unstable and unpredictable. The 'power shift' in the relationship between universities and government has probably been the most profoundly unsettling to universities since it encompasses, simultaneously, the funding regulations, increased intervention and heightened government expectations of corporate performance.

The economic environment in Ghana has been characterised as discouraging any future-oriented and risk-related decisions. In addition to traditional concerns about the underdeveloped economy of Ghana, rampant inflation in the last two decades was found to affect purchases of books and periodicals. For example, in Chapter Six, the data revealed that collection development was healthy in three of the Ghanaian university libraries in the 1950s and 1960s. In UnivA there was an annual growth rate of 10,000 volumes with 5,000 periodicals subscription until 1972 when the decline in collection began at an exponential rate. In 1994 one of the case study institutions made purchases of just 26 books. The main mode of acquisition for this particular case study library has been donations, which in 1994 accounted for over 89% of acquisitions. The constraining effect of high inflation rates on businesses and the strategy process has been highlighted by Wright, Kroll and Pernell (1996).

The volatility of foreign exchange rates was also found to affect strategic decisions in the libraries. In a similar study Wilson (1994) also pointed to the negative effect that the volatility of foreign exchange rate has on industry restructuring that requires a shift in strategic management's focus, emphasis and methodologies to speed the process of corporate adaptation to these changes. Ferguson (1992) writes that the daily deterioration of the value of the local currencies of most developing countries against other international currencies makes the future far less predictable and makes it difficult to implement rational strategic planning. In this study it was revealed that the effect of the depreciation of the local currency, the cedi, has affected university libraries' international orders. The data in Chapter Five indicates that the dollar in 1960 was exchanged at 1.4 cedis. By 1996 the cedi had depreciated by more than 1,000 times. Long - term financial planning is impossible as the currency floats on the market and continues to depreciate on a daily basis.

This study further demonstrates the lack of fit between the political and economic environments and the organisational strategy as well as the organisational structure. In

Chapter Ten, it was stated that the organisational structure prevalent in the Ghanaian case studies was the mechanistic type. But past studies such as Burns and Stalker (1961) and Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) have revealed that a traditional mechanistic structure with few horizontal linkages and many layers of managers is most common for organisations operating in relatively stable environments.

This lack of fit between the environment and the organisational structure may result in a decline in performance and other organisational problems (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967; Lindsay and Rue, 1980 and Weick, 1987). Moreover, Bourgeois (1985) has provided evidence that indicates that the greater the match between managers' perceived environmental uncertainty and true environment volatility, the higher the economic performance of a firm. Strategic action is dependent upon perceptions and interpretations of the environment (Schneider and DeMeyer, 1991)

As the political and economic environments have proved in this study to be major sources of uncertainty for planners in Ghana in general and university libraries in particular, future planners must be responsible for identifying external opportunities and threats, implementing strategic changes and achieving the organisation/environment alignment. Miles, Snow and Pfeffer (1974) also theorise that managers respond primarily to what they perceive.

Such perceptions and interpretations are subject to influences at multiple levels of analysis, e.g. individual characteristics, group processes and environmental context (Hambrick and Mason, 1984; Miller, 1993). It was found in the present study that, despite the awareness of the uncertainty that has characterised the strategic decisions of the major stakeholders, a result of environmental turbulence particularly in the economic and political spheres, they have not responded to or interpreted these changes in their environment. Pfeffer and Salancik (1978) state that:

When decision-makers fail to notice changes that turn out to be important or misinterpret changes in their environment they may fail to make needed adjustments to organisations strategy or structure (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978: p.17).

The data analysis further revealed that environmental issues are not considered important to organisational performance and university and library management have not shown any

interest in them, a situation which itself creates a high perceived environmental uncertainty. Milken (1987) states that, in practice, perceived environmental uncertainty exists when decision-makers do not feel confident that they care or understand what the major events or trends in an environment are, or when they feel unable to assign accurately probabilities to the likelihood that particular events and/or changes will occur.

Information from important sectors of the environment may become a source of competitive advantage (Dutton and Freedman, 1984). In a sector of high performance, external events are also perceived to be directly linked to operational performance. According to Daft, Sormunen and Parks (1988), perceived sector importance translates perceived environmental uncertainty into strategic uncertainty. In essence, strategic uncertainty reflects the strategic value of environmental information for organisational performance. The combination of perceived environmental uncertainty and sector importance is expected to generate a need for the librarians and, to a greater extent, the university administrators to scan events in selected environmental sectors - the political and economic. Environmental scanning is the means through which managers perceive external events and trends (Hambrick, 1982; Culnan, 1983). Following Daft, Sormunen and Parks (1988), top executive scanning frequency is believed to have a positive relationship with perceived strategic uncertainty across environmental sectors.

One constraining aspect of environmental scanning as found in this study is that the major stakeholders perceived environmental scanning as a difficult organisational process because the environment is complex and they experience bounded rationality - that is, they cannot comprehensively understand the environment (Cyert and March, 1963). Others also claimed that the libraries on their part lacked the capacity to analyse the environment. That is why the findings of this study - the political and economic sector importance in the Ghanaian external environment - must be taken seriously as posing the greatest threat to university library development. They ought to concentrate their scanning efforts on these sectors. The selection of a given scanning mode by senior executives, however, is conceptualised as being critically influenced by perceived strategic uncertainty across sectors (Daft, Sormunen and Parks, 1988).

### **11.3 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

As stated in Chapter One, this study set out to explore the factors that affect the development of a strategic planning process aimed at improving Ghanaian university libraries' capacity to deliver information services effectively and efficiently. It was also postulated from the outset that because the success of strategic planning is affected by environmental factors, the model as it is presently applied in United Kingdom libraries would not translate to Ghana because of its goal of profit maximisation, insensitivity to sociological factors, its assumption of the availability of considerable resources of time, people, money, expertise, and its reliance on stable political and economic circumstances.

The linear normative model as described in Figure 1.1 (a linear model of strategic management) treats strategic planning as an explicit, conscious process, where purposeful organisations make strategic decisions in advance of more specific business or operational level decisions. An important consideration is the conflict between decision-makers (or major stakeholders) over objectives, goals, values or visions. It is assumed that these are shared, known and also capable of being quantified (e.g., measuring profit maximisation through return on investment) (Porter, 1980).

Furthermore, a very important underlying assumption of this approach is that decision-makers have at their disposal all the necessary resources for understanding and analysing the problems at hand (Mintzberg, 1994). This strategy, therefore, involves a series of sequential, rational and analytical processes that are essentially of more relevance to stable conditions than to the difficulties of strategic-decision making in an uncertain world (Huff and Reger, 1987).

This study has unveiled a number of pitfalls or difficulties which make the applicability of this model inappropriate to the effective and efficient provision of information in Ghanaian university libraries. The main findings, which are seen mainly from the point of view of decision-makers (major stakeholders) and a sample of library staff of university libraries in Ghana and some university librarians in the United Kingdom, have been discussed extensively in Section 11.2. A summary form of the main conclusions is re-stated below. It must, however, be noted that the findings do not show considerable diversity across the five case study institutions in Ghana.

### **11.3.1 MAIN CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY**

- 1. The major stakeholders and the library staff of the university libraries in Ghana did not have a single, agreed articulated mission for their libraries**
- 2 A multiplicity of strategic visions were found to be the subject of disagreement between decision makers and the library staff.**
- 3. University libraries in Ghana lack the required physical, human and financial resources that could give them the strategic capability (the extent to which resources are employed ) to provide effective services.**
- 4. The magnitude of the resource-performance relationship in the UK case study libraries was found to be strikingly greater than that of the Ghanaian case study institutions. The UK libraries with relatively more resources than the Ghanaian libraries were found to provide a variety of services.**
- 5. The organisational structure of all the libraries in Ghanaian universities is of the hierarchical type, with standardised work processes and programmed sets of activities . The UK university libraries studied maintained hierarchical staffing structures but were found to be moving towards ‘matrix’ structures with a much more organic relationship to strategic planning.**
- 6. The management style of all the libraries in the Ghanaian universities was found to be the autocratic type with a top down strategic decision making process and an obsession with control and discipline.**
- 7. The university libraries in Ghana have a larger power distance between subordinates and bosses than the libraries studied in some UK universities. Inter dependence of subordinates and bosses at the university libraries in Ghana does not exist. There is dependence of subordinates on bosses but not vice versa. Organisational beliefs and values in Ghanaian university libraries place emphasis on bureaucracy with defined functions and role specialisation, procedures and job descriptions. There is deference and obedience to rank.**
- 8. The different nature of values and expectations held by internal stakeholders ( all library staff) of the Ghanaian university libraries impact on the course and conduct of the libraries’ activities, for example, the library management prefer staff to be committed to their tasks and responsibilities but some staff pursue other objectives not related to library**

development. A number of tensions and conflicts exist between some staff behaviour and the formal organisational routines. In the UK case study libraries, shared beliefs and values were found to be relatively in harmony with the intended strategies of the libraries.

9. The awareness of strategic planning documents by staff was found to be universal at all case study libraries in the UK but was not universal at the Ghanaian case study institutions. There was a positive relationship between years of experience and awareness of the planning process in all the Ghanaian university libraries. Professional librarians at the university libraries in Ghana were found to be more aware of planning than were the other members of staff.

10. Professional staff at the university libraries in Ghana participated more significantly in the strategic planning process than the other levels of library staff, with non-participation by the non-professionals.

11. All case study institutions (UK and Ghana) have a top-down approach to strategic planning

12. Current service development in the Ghanaian university libraries is based on building comprehensive collections of all kinds of affordable recorded materials.

13. Stark differences exist between service development in the UK university libraries and the Ghanaian university libraries. The former have developed new services because of the availability of electronic forms of records and the means of access to them. There is a shift from the more traditional concept of acquisition to demand-led acquisition in the UK university libraries.

14. The main physical and behavioural attributes that have contributed to the failure of library co-operation in Ghanaian university libraries are - lack of trust between partners, lack of proper co-ordination, lack of commitment of partners and poor communication quality. Others are deficiencies in the physical infrastructure such as shortage of telephones, lack of a national library and shortage of qualified personnel.

15. A significant Information Technology (IT) presence was found in the university libraries in the UK. All case study libraries have banks of OPAC terminals for users, several PCs for assessing electronic information, video outputs, laser and matrix printers, optical scanning facilities, optical disk reading equipment etc. IT has had a very significant

impact on the UK case libraries as all housekeeping routines have been automated. A range of other computer-related services exist and all libraries reported membership of networks particularly JANET and so on.

16. Very low IT presence was found in all the university libraries in Ghana. There was minimal use of computers by staff and there was no significant IT impact on services as house keeping automation is non-existent. Staff exposure to the use of computers is very low. Staff at UnivD and UnivE have had nil exposure while at UnivA professional staff have had a more significant exposure than all other levels of staff.

17. The costs of automation in the UK case study institutions have moved beyond the earlier stages of ad hoc institutional funding as costs of automation have now been built into the libraries' regular budgets.

18. There was no evidence of a strategic approach to IT in service development in any of the Ghanaian university libraries, and no positioning of the management of information systems alongside all other aspects of overall organisational strategy and management. Strategy has not been aligned with IT.

19. Barriers to IT implementation in university libraries in Ghana include: an inadequate IT infrastructure, low IT investments, shortage of personnel; lack of training and of expertise, and interruption in electricity supply to sites.

20. None of the case study libraries (UK and Ghana) has standardised performance measures. Most of the libraries used only output measures or input measures or population attributes.

21. The UK university libraries have a relatively more stable political and economic environment than the Ghanaian university libraries whose decision- makers are faced with highly unstable political and economic environments.

22. An environmental assessment culture is lacking among decision- makers in Ghanaian university libraries. There is no response to changes in environment by decision- makers. Environmental issues are not considered important to organisational strategy and performance by decision - makers.

23. There is a an absence of technology and the capacity to monitor systematically the environment and collect needed data in the Ghanaian external environment.

Among the strengths of strategic planning as reflected in this study are the regard the major stakeholders and library staff have for strategic planning as a rewarding and beneficial process as well as the anticipated benefits of planning and other short-term benefits such as orderliness in the conduct of university business and more effective short-term problem-solving.

However, the limitations of planning perceived by the major stakeholders and the library staff at the various libraries in Ghana, as summarised earlier, are many and varied, and in the face of these apparent weaknesses of orthodox strategic planning it is not surprising that none of the five case study libraries in Ghana is able to provide information at any appreciable standard.

A variety of approaches to the management of strategic decisions already exist, for example, the processual, evolutionary and systemic (Whittington, 1993). The processualists emphasise the sticky imperfect nature of all human life, pragmatically accommodating strategy to the fallible processes of both organisations and markets. The evolutionary approach draws on the fatalistic metaphor of biological evolution, but substitutes the discipline of the market for the law of the jungle. The systemic approach is relativistic to the cultures and power of the local social systems in which it takes place.

### **11.3.2 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The approach to strategy being proposed for the Ghanaian university libraries' managers is derived from and modelled on Genus's concept of flexible strategic management (Genus, 1995). Other practitioners elsewhere who are interested in upgrading the planning process at their institutions may find this type of flexible strategic management being proposed useful. It should also be of interest to managers of other non-profit organisations charged with the development of their information provision strategies. Students and researchers may also find the model useful to compare library strategies.

It is not, however, suggested that the proposed approach is necessarily a blueprint for a 'perfect strategy' for information provision for university libraries. As in corporate or even military strategy the perfect paradigm is not in sight. The rationalisation for this is that information provision strategy clearly falls in the category of 'wicked problems'. Van der



Poel (1995) has described information systems design in terms of 'wicked problems' with the following characteristics:

-There is no stopping rule, solutions can be improved upon: the systems designer only stops because it is time to act, or because he runs out of money or patience.

-Solutions to wicked problems are not good or bad, only better or worse: information systems are judged on relative, rather than absolute qualities.

-Each wicked problem is typically a 'one shot operation': one can never replay the same situation with a better information system and the question of the 'best' strategy can therefore not be decided (Van der Poel, 1995: 202).

- ***The concept of strategic flexibility***

Strategic flexibility is an emerging approach to the management of strategic decisions. Flexibility is a concept suited to dynamic environments where continual change is unlikely to make once-and-for all adjustments an appropriate means of managing change (Evans, 1991). Strategic flexibility is concerned with readaptation, a process by which an organisation and the environment interact and evolve toward mutually acceptable exchanges, with the organisation being capable of inflicting as well as responding to unanticipated changes (Evans, 1991). Flexibility is also concerned with 'corrigibility and reversibility' in the sense that errors associated with strategic decisions may be first detected and then remedied or ultimately completely undone to allow some new course of action to be pursued.

Flexible strategic management also involves 'hedging' and 'organisational slack' (Cyert and March, 1963). Whilst hedging protects or insures against errors or risk, organisational slack refers to the extent to which organisational resources are not utilised to full capacity or efficiency. Such slack provides organisations with the capability to respond to suddenly changing conditions since they will not then always be operating at full stretch.

Other emerging themes associated with the concept of flexible strategic management are organisational learning and renewal. Organisational renewal refers to the capability to adjust continually to or shape, new circumstances; thus, organisations that find themselves in crisis situations may well need to undergo fundamental and far-reaching strategic and operational change. Organisational learning involves the development of cross functional knowledge (sharing of ideas from different functional areas), skills and abilities that will be required for the future. It also refers to the upgrading of practices with regard to the performance of specific tasks in a more immediate sense. The concept of strategic flexibility therefore involves the related concepts of adaptability, corrigibility, hedging, reversibility, learning and renewal (Genus, 1995).

Presented below are possible guidelines for flexible strategic management based on the issues identified as the factors that affect information provision in university libraries in Ghana and the United Kingdom. Some of the recommendations are placed in a wider corporate context and inferences are made to the university libraries. Where a recommendation is made for a particular audience this is indicated accordingly.

#### ***11.3.2.1 Developing meaningful mission and vision statements***

Organisations are founded for a particular purpose, known as the organisation mission. The organisation's mission must be systematically and comprehensively developed, shared and agreed upon by decision makers. However, it was found that the major stakeholders and the library staff who took part in the investigation in Ghana did not have an agreed mission. The challenge for the university library managers responsible for the development of information provision strategy is to develop a meaningful library mission based on a process of melding the diverse and conflicting demands placed on the libraries by the various stakeholders. The purpose of a library may change over time, it is essential that mission statements are reviewed in the context of SWOT analysis. The point of analysis is to enable the libraries to position themselves to take advantage of particular opportunities in the environment and maximise their strengths and moderate the impact of their weaknesses.

Similarly, a multiplicity of strategic visions were found to be the subject of disagreement between decision makers and the library staff. Major stakeholders' conflicting visions for the universities and the libraries must be resolved. David (1986) suggests three basic approaches for conflict resolution: avoidance, diffusion and confrontation. The opposing

vision statements expressed by the major stakeholders can be resolved by diffusion. Government will have to take the initiative to open talks with university staff, not just the vice-chancellors but representatives of all interest groups of the universities. An agreement as to the future role of universities in Ghana must be reached in order to minimise the potentially dysfunctional effects that pursuing one or the other's vision will have on the universities and their libraries' development as no one group will give the other's vision the support in terms of finance and implementation. The role of libraries in university development must be part of any agreed vision statement. Restraint must be exercised in all negotiations as past resolutions of disagreements between government and university staff have been noted for their unsatisfactory endings.

### ***11.3.2.2 Developing resource capabilities***

The need for and practice of flexible strategic management are related to the perspective that emphasises the importance of developing strategic capabilities to the enhancement of organisational flexibility and performance. It was found that the university libraries in Ghana have a shortage of the required resources that could give them the strategic capability to provide effective services. Two key issues that are relevant to the pursuit of a flexible approach to strategic management will have to be considered by the university librarians. 1. The identification and evaluation of strategically relevant capabilities and 2. Sustained and ongoing development of such capabilities for the future.

Central to these issues is the consideration of capabilities in a strategic light, which stresses the process by which capabilities may be developed or deteriorate. From a financial management point of view, the librarians will have to consider new and multiple sources of funding by generating income. The effectiveness with which the libraries allocate their resources forms an important aspect of strategic financial management. It requires the library staff budgets and expenditure budgets to be merged. Greater freedom of manoeuvre is essential in this respect and university authorities can bring this about by relinquishing some of their control of the income and expenditure of the libraries. This will enable them to move money from one activity to the other and be able to manipulate the costs of providing service, a view that contrasts markedly with traditional one paced strategies.

It was also found that resource allocation was non-existent in the Ghanaian university libraries. The librarians ought to have virement between staff, equipment and acquisition as

practised in some of the UK case studies libraries. Service costing and cost benefit analysis ought to be integrated into resource allocation policies and the librarians will have to determine if funding is being wasted on one resource or service when it could be put to better use on another. They must be prepared to discard services that are not cost effective. Johnson (1994) suggests zero base budgeting as a technique for reviewing and justifying each aspect of library service beginning from scratch. Development of capabilities requires forward financial planning as a way of controlling library finances. Indication of how much money is needed to provide basic services is essential. Each year, these costs can be calculated and a rough projection of the coming year's costs produced and presented to the university authorities.

A sustained and ongoing development of capabilities for the future requires managing the human resources of the libraries. In the context of this study individual university libraries in Ghana were found to have failed in the past to take a proactive role vis-à-vis human resource management (HRM). It is necessary for the librarians to consider HRM issues that may be relevant to their own needs. HRM is of interest because it is an approach to employee management that is claimed to be more appropriate to the requirements of organisational strategy than traditional personnel management practices. HRM is of particular interest because of the role it is believed to have played in the post war success of Japanese corporations and also in the improvements that have been made more recently in US and UK firms, among others. Many commentators have noted that the growing interest in HRM has arisen from the failings of traditional personnel management practices and, more optimistically, from the perception of the potential benefits of such an approach for strategic performance (Beer et al, 1984; Guest, 1987; Storey, 1992).

In terms of the findings of this investigation the potential benefits of HRM can be realised if the library staff are used strategically as assets in their relationship to the strategic implementation of technological change. The management of human resources may be viewed as integral to strategic needs: employees ought to be seen as representing a resource that needs to be harnessed to the wider objectives of the organisation, as might other resources such as finance.

Involvement of all staff in the conduct of strategy is highly recommended in order to raise their levels of commitment to the aims and objectives and changing requirements of the

libraries. There is a need for the libraries to develop a philosophy of welcoming change within their organisations, recognising the autonomy and innovativeness of employees and the flexibility of human resources and organisations more generally. The need for a decentralised control of employees of the universities will allow the libraries to make the required changes such as recruiting new people with new skills, firing people with inappropriate or substandard skills, redeploying, retaining, promoting or retrenching staff.

Flexibility relates to various types of labour flexibility (e.g., functional, numerical, temporal, wage and distance). The libraries may have to adopt functional labour flexibility as it operates in some of the UK case study libraries. Functional labour flexibility relates to the enhancement of the range of tasks that individual employees are able to perform. It is associated with blurring of job descriptions or boundaries. Flexibility of contractual positions will be required for effective working and all the libraries will have to develop employment policies which will allow for flexible working patterns covering seven days a week with extended opening hours in order to cope with the increasing use of the libraries. Numerical flexibility requires that the libraries should be able to adjust the number of employees according to variations in user-demand. Temporal flexibility requires that the libraries vary the hours worked, as demand changes. Working hours of workers should be varied instead of giving every employee fixed working hours which some do not fully utilise for library duties. The use of part-timers for some duties such as shelving is recommended. Wage flexibility is another way the libraries can get value for money. The librarians should be able to develop individual rather than standardised, uniform pay systems with greater variations in the performance-related element. Distance flexibility will require the librarians to use external personnel for particular tasks, say, using contractors for cleaning and maintenance.

The role of intangible resources (reputation, skills, technical know-how, etc.) and organisational learning are relevant to the capabilities concept and hence to the implementation of strategic flexibility. It is essential for the libraries to manage both intangible and tangible resources (human, physical and financial) and capabilities (organisational routines) in order to achieve strategic performance, in a way that goes beyond the understanding given by Porter (1980) (that it is the resources an organisation owns which are said to confer the potential for strategic advantage). The key to achieving

strategic capability is for the library managers to co-ordinate all resources and also to develop organisational learning.

The role of learning within a flexible approach to strategic management will have to be considered. This involves the development of the learning capacity of the libraries as a whole and of individuals within organisational settings, not individual learning *per se* as was found to be the case in the Ghanaian university libraries. Organisational learning ought to be a processual phenomenon, rather than the one-dimensional perspective of the classical approach to strategy. Pettigrew and Wipp (1991) believe that employees ought to collectively change their knowledge, values and shared mental models of their organisations and markets. Levitt and March (1988) also viewed organisational learning as concerning the changing routines that are independent of the individual actors who execute them and are capable of surviving considerable turnover in individuals. It is suggested that any notion of learning within the libraries be related to the competitive situation the libraries may face in their working environments as well as to the total enhancement of organisational performance and the attainment of library goals.

#### ***11.3.2.2.1. Developing core capabilities***

A more rounded view of the contribution of resources - financial, human and physical - to strategic performance than the 'Porterian' view, the resource-based view and the core competencies view, is the emerging concept of capability-building or core capabilities (Nonaka, 1991).

This approach, which is currently used successfully in many businesses such as Canon and Honda, does not rely only on the abundance of resources for competitive advantage as in the 'Porterian' view, nor does it emphasise the role of combined skills, technical systems and finances to produce performance, as in the case of the resource-based view, but goes further to recognise the importance of values and norms to individual knowledge within organisations and to the process of creating and controlling knowledge. Nonaka (1991) suggests that in successful organisations the capability to respond to changing customer requirements, to create new markets and products and to dominate emergent technologies owes much to organisation-wide knowledge creation.

This idea of capability building is being suggested as a novel idea for university libraries. University librarians can tap the tacit or intuitive knowledge that individual employees have and then make this available and usable across their libraries as a whole. The management of knowledge in this regard will no longer be the sole province of library management or research and development wings of these libraries, but a strategic organisation-wide concern.

### ***11.3.2.3 Achieving flexibility within the libraries***

The study has identified and underlined some major factors in the internal environments of the Ghanaian university libraries that may affect information provision strategy. Some of these issues and their implications for achieving strategic flexibility are discussed below.

#### ***11.3.2.3.1 Flexibility through organisational restructuring/Achieving a better internal organisational co-ordination***

The libraries were found to conform to the professional bureaucratic model of organisations, a model designed to maximise the benefits of mass production: its technical proficiency stems from standardisation of the work process and outputs. It can be criticised for failing to accord with the more complex realities of organisations and for its assumption of passivity on the part of the workforce when in fact the work force can be motivated, will seek recognition and achievement and can actively contribute to the objectives of the organisation. Whilst it is an efficient form of organisation in certain contexts its principal failing in the contemporary world is its inability to cope with an unstable environment. Post-industrial organisations operate in turbulent and dynamic environments for which they require more fluid structures.

The appropriateness of alternative structural forms to uncertain environments ought to be considered by the libraries; the matter of the integration of different organisational activities or sections of the libraries is also of importance. A number of mechanisms and conditions are appropriate for encouraging internal organisational co-ordination and therefore related to issues of innovativeness and flexibility. These include matrix structures, team working, broad job definitions, empowerment and employment security supported by open communication channels (Kanter, 1983). Writers such as Kanter (1983) and Galbraith and Kazanjian (1986), for example, assert that there is a role for matrix structures in developing

collaboration between parts of organisations. Having matrix structures implies that the university authorities will have to loosen their control over libraries to help ease the formalities the library staff have to go through, a characteristic of centralised structures. Mintzberg, Quinn and Ghoshal (1995) have argued that the greater the external control of an organisation, the more centralised and formalised its structures are. New staffing structures based on a fresh analysis of tasks and duties resulting in new job descriptions and re-assignment of goals are essential. This may help reduce the degree of waste in the use of over - qualified staff for routine jobs as was found to be the practice in some of the UK case study libraries.

Another way for the libraries to achieve a better internal organisational co-ordination is the development of team concepts. If the matrix design is implemented, team building will help to legitimise integration between different units of the libraries. This will also secure employee commitment to the tasks in hand. The development of the team concept as applied to the workplace results in enhanced productivity (Moore, 1995). Team building is seen as an aid to integration in organisation and a central focus of the work of the 'organisational development' movement (Child, 1984). Taking a cue from the libraries studied in the UK, the Ghanaian university libraries could also organise on a subject basis with each of these subject divisions having a team of staff who must be out there being confronted and consulted by its public.

#### ***11.3.2.3.2 A new management style***

The move towards the enhancement of flexibility through organisational restructuring, new patterns of human resource management and the implementation of process innovations call for the development of a new management style. The move to an organic adhocracy as has been recommended may require a consultative and more informal management style. It calls for the adoption of informal strategic control - the need for library management to monitor and improve performance without imposing undue rigidity about the setting of objectives and reporting mechanisms.

Goold and Quinn (1990) state that this issue is especially relevant where organisations operate within uncertain environmental conditions in which flexibility is still vital. Quinn (1980) found that informal control processes appear to offer a better hope of achieving an effective control system in uncertain environments. The practice of informal strategic



control accords well with behavioural models of the process of strategic management in general. Research evidence shows that strategy evolves on the basis of tentative and broad commitments.

#### ***11.3.2.3.3 Developing strategic management techniques***

The examination of the strategic plans of the Ghanaian libraries, particularly UnivA, UnivC and UnivD, and the evidence of investigations into strategic planning as practised by the libraries show that the libraries will have to develop new strategic management techniques. The librarians will have to develop strategic planning skills as this study has found that there is a lack of understanding of the basic but essential aspects of strategy formulation and implementation. The positive attitudes shown towards the process should be translated into the development of management and planning skills

Formal training by competent management personnel is required and government will have to provide the necessary finances for this. The haste with which the current plans were formulated had one motive - to satisfy international donors. Strategic planning will therefore have to be given a meaningful interpretation because of the complexity of political and technological circumstances and the constraints upon the resources of the libraries.

Whilst it is crucial for appropriate persons in the libraries to have personal involvement and commitment to the process, the lower-echelon library staff members must become directly involved with the process. Participation by all staff will help offset the anti-planning biases and counter any resistance to change. Strategic planning is a human-oriented process. The team work aspect of strategic planning can be strengthened by having a strong strategic planning committee made up of all levels of staff. Its members must engage in an interchange of ideas with non-members. This approach will enable the committee members to look constructively at the multidimensional aspects of the libraries' formal structures. The plans when finally drawn must be implemented and continually reviewed and revised.

#### ***11.3.2.3.4 Developing a culture-strategy fit***

In view of the culture-strategy misfit identified within the Ghanaian university libraries, explicit attention will have to be given to matching strategy and culture. With the adoption of a participative style of management and informal strategic control, the large power gap between bosses and subordinates should begin to close. A reconfiguration of staffing

structures will also restructure authorities, responsibilities, functions, programmes and resource allocation conventions. As a result there will be redistribution of power and the present organisation values and beliefs in which there is obedience to rank; subordinates fear of approaching and contradicting bosses will begin to die out.

What will require some effort by management is to fine tune some of the beliefs which will be stubbornly persistent. They may have to adopt specific steps to manage some of the existing behavioural patterns which were found to affect the strategy - structure coalignment. Many models of corporate cultural change can be found in management and library management literature, for example, Norton (1994), Mintzberg, (1989), Rue and Holland (1989) and Toyohiro (1990). However, flexibility will require steps that achieve a fit between the libraries' mission or activities and both their wider environment and their resource capabilities.

#### ***11.3.2.3.5 Service development***

Flexibility within libraries must reflect the flexibility required in dynamic environments. This implies that libraries should be able to alter current strategies when existing markets (users) change. This might mean changing the game plan in the operations of the libraries to reflect the changes in user population. In the context of this study service development in the Ghanaian university libraries was found to be based on building comprehensive collections of all kinds of affordable recorded materials irrespective of their relevance to specific target populations. The need to manage the libraries with diminishing resources calls for the libraries to target their services. They will have to use a targeted approach to book and periodical acquisitions, with little or no resources to spare with which to indulge in the previous generalist approach of building comprehensive collections. The libraries of the 'new' universities in Ghana in particular need to develop their services with targeting and access to information as the basis of their service development. They do not have to collect books retrospectively but develop information technology and other electronic media right from these early beginnings and not follow in the footsteps of the 'old' universities by building collections, most of which will hardly be used. Current acquisition policies will have to emphasise a demand-led acquisition as the libraries do not have the resources to embark on such outmoded service development policies. The librarians will need to

understand better the nature and variety of new methods of developing new services based on specific individual needs.

#### ***11.3.2.3.6 Towards effective strategic alliances/flexibility between libraries and other organisations (co-operation and resource sharing)***

The extent to which organisations collaborate with each other represents an expression of the emergence of a new paradigm, at odds with conventional views of the nature of competition. Such co-operative activities may occur in planned or unplanned ways, be short or long-term in duration and may frustrate as well as enhance strategic flexibility. The management of relationships between organisations of different objectives, size and relative power is critical to the success of collaborative ventures. This study has established that for a number of reasons the outcomes from collaboration, both horizontal and vertical (between libraries and between libraries and other organisations) of the Ghanaian librarians have been at odds with hoped-for benefits. Vertical collaboration has also not been exploited to the full by the librarians. The librarians were also found not to have developed complementary assets for partners to access.

Each of the university libraries will therefore have to decide what it has to gain from co-operation before embarking on it. If a library wants to join, for example, the Ghana National Scientific and Technological Information Network (Ghastinet) project, it must bear in mind that it will have to standardise its own records to fit in with the system. It will have to develop its complementary assets that the others can access, such as holdings and union lists. One of the prime motivations of the establishment of horizontal collaboration is in the area of cost-reduction and sharing. The significance of costs is more dramatically demonstrated where technology development is central to activities within an organisation. This is especially so where in new organisations such as UnivD and UnivE the technology related to service development is unproven, underdeveloped or potentially prone to rapid obsolescence.

In some for-profit industries, for example, the enormous costs of research and development, allied to the increasing rapidity of technological change and the costs of installing new production facilities, have all contributed to the attractiveness of strategic alliances (Dicken, 1992). Strategic alliances are capital-intensive and the libraries will have to create the resources for any collaborations. The nature of vertical collaboration within an organisation

is typified by relations between suppliers of inputs to the organisation. A number of variants to be considered by the university libraries in Ghana include subcontracting and outsourcing (where certain non-core activities such as cleaning, maintenance are contracted out to external bodies). A network of university libraries and other institutions may deal with the same suppliers of library inputs in order to reduce and stabilise prices of items while the libraries also go some way to absorb suppliers' investment risks, such as reducing the tight control of quality and efficiency targets of suppliers and the penalties they incur when they fail to meet dead lines and targets. Clark and Fijimoto (1991) observe that this mutuality encourages frequent contact and sharing of information such as the detailed nature of suppliers' costs and an increase in overall productivity.

The management of inter-university library linkages in Ghana as also found to be problematic. The participants in a joint venture enter with different histories, experiences and motives. The trust, the willingness to co-ordinate activities, and the ability to convey a sense of commitment to the relationship are key factors. Also critical to the success of any co-operating ventures are communication strategies used by the co-operating bodies. The quality of information transmitted and joint participation of partners in planning and goal setting send very important signals to the co-operating partners - this may require some sort of resources for the sole purpose of effectively managing the interface between participating libraries.

Joint participation enables parties to better understand the strategic choices facing each other. Such openness is not natural for management and it must develop its communications skills and learn to accommodate/modify traditional concerns for decision autonomy as this skill is not a trivial element in ensuring the success of the partnerships. Management of the libraries must also move towards processes and behavioural mechanisms that support working with another library to achieve mutually beneficial goals. Consistent with this view is the importance of joint problem-solving as a conflict resolution mechanism. One partner's ability to perceive the other's perspective and attempt to reconcile differences improves problem solving.

It is advisable for partners to develop a management philosophy or corporate culture in which independent and autonomous libraries can relinquish some sovereignty and control while engaging in planning and organising which takes into account the needs of other

parties. Such a voluntary abdication of control (and autonomy) does not come easily but appears to be a necessary managerial requirement for the future.

#### ***11.3.2.3.7 Strategic management of Information Technology (IT)***

IT has brought many benefits to university libraries and libraries in general and it is obvious that any library shunning IT is imperilling its own survival. With the present very low level of IT application in all the university libraries in Ghana initial investment capital is required by all of them to purchase the required hardware and appropriate software in line with the strategic development of services. The present manner of acquiring PCs on an *ad hoc* basis for piecemeal automation of certain minor projects in some of the libraries (e.g. UnivA) will have to give way to a planned fully automated integrated system. A careful selection of hardware and software will have to be done so that IT will meet the identified needs of the libraries. CD-ROM, e-mail and other on-line services will have to be introduced or expanded so that IT can be used to access remote bibliographical databases and to locate and obtain information not available in their own libraries. The libraries must start looking at the future of IT as providing links to the outside world and increasing intra-African exchange and communication.

Investment in new technology involves the development, nurturing and redeployment of IT resources. A longer term renewal and major upgrading of systems after initial installations will have to be of prime concern. This will have to be built into whatever the library is granted institutionally in the way of annual equipment grant. It has to be on at least an annual basis because all programmes of renewal and upgrading need to be rolling and continuous.

Provision of training in IT will have to be made for all staff. 'New blood' may have to be introduced to strengthen their current very limited technical expertise in the libraries. Short- as well as long-term, formal and attachment training programmes in the management of IT in more IT advanced organisations in IT management will have to be pursued.

The role of IT in strategic management will have to be exploited further when the basic IT infrastructure has been put in place. The concept of computer-integrated technology (CIT) will have to be looked at. CIT is in contrast with approaches such as those in the earlier work of Porter (1980), where the role of technology and innovation therein appears to be

subordinate to strategic decision-making. Thus, where Porter's generic strategy framework considers development of a strategy for technology within the business as necessary to the subsequent implementation of previously decided generic strategies, with CIT, the role of technology is seen as integral to strategic decision-making and to organisational development. The potential of IT relates to the extent to which the library services and programmes, may be integrated, firstly with each other but, more crucially, in such a way as to permit the satisfaction of strategic objectives.

One relevant aspect of CIT which the libraries will have to utilise, is management information systems (MIS), i.e. generating management information by computers for operational and strategic decision making. Some tailor made library systems such as TALIS which was found to be widely used by the UK case study libraries have MIS capabilities. The Ghanaian university libraries can have such a system and gradually in future should be able to translate this ability to generate data into the ability to design practicable decision support systems to aid in the complex management tasks that university libraries may face, particularly in longer term planning.

#### ***11.3.2.3.8 Strategic control and performance evaluation***

Strategic control consists of determining the extent to which the libraries' strategies are successful in attaining their goals and objectives. Strategic control also involves a review of the strategies of the libraries to ensure that they are still running according to the time scale set by planning committees. It is futile for the libraries to continue with strategies that are obviously either not working or irrelevant or both. The study has found that performance measures were not used to determine the success of strategies by the librarians in Ghana. None of the libraries in Ghana has standardised performance measures. It is necessary, therefore, for the libraries to review strategies using a set of consistent performance measures to determine if goals and objectives are not being reached as planned. It is good practice for the libraries to use a wide range of performance measures without relying solely on service domain measures (e.g. total population size and user population attributes) as was found with the libraries that claimed to be measuring performance. The libraries will, therefore, need to include all aspects of performance measurements using service input measures such as amount of resources applied to services, amount of funding applied to services, relevant attributes applied to services etc.; service output measures such as

quantities of output, qualities of output, timeliness of output, availability of service, accessibility of service etc.; service effectiveness measures such as user perceptions of attributes, user expressed satisfaction, user-indicated importance, purpose, use and consequence of use and, of course, service domain measures such as size of geographic area, geographic area attributes and information needs. Management, after taking measurements, must assess both internal operations and the external environment within the context of the libraries' mission, goals and objectives. If performance is in line with standards set by management or exceeds them, then no corrective action is necessary. However, if performance falls below the standards, then management must take remedial action.

The focus of strategic control is both internal and external. Library management's role is to align advantageously the internal operations of the library with its external environment. Hence, strategic control should be visualised as 'mediating' the interactions between environment variables (in both the macro- and corporate environments) and the library's internal operations. Strategic control can be exerted by library management in other ways apart from evaluation of library performance. Management can control performance at several levels - individual, functional and branch units.

#### ***11.3.2.4 Managing the external environment***

In the light of the tumultuous nature of the Ghanaian external environment it is necessary for the universities and their libraries to adopt approaches to external environmental management that permit flexibility of thought about possible alternative futures and the strategies that might be developed therein.

This study has revealed a number of factors that make the environment uncertain, particularly issues in the political and economic sectors. The libraries must first of all be willing to actively embrace the increasing uncertainties facing them in order to anticipate future developments. To be successful, however, they must have the will not only to change the way they operate, but also to attempt to change or modify certain elements in their environment to help create a future more favourable to the libraries. The librarians will have to avoid temporary approaches that postpone the inevitable adjustments needed to gain and keep strategic fit. Hunger and Wheelan (1995) advise against three basic orientations - avoidance (ignore or hide), react (react, reorganise or follow the leader) and influence

(advertise, lobby, co-opting). Instead libraries will have to anticipate future developments by planning strategically.

University libraries ought to include environmental issues in their strategic plans. The libraries which have yet to formulate their plans will have to consider the analysis of the strategic position of the libraries by the identification of opportunities and threats in the macro and corporate environments, particularly political issues such as government educational reforms, legislation on employment, strength of Ghanaian currency, import duties etc. The data to be gained may then be considered in conjunction with an examination of the relative strengths and weaknesses of the libraries to give a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis. This will provide a means of comparing the external environment and internal strategic capabilities of the libraries in order to serve as a useful input into management thinking about future strategic decision-making. The libraries that have strategic plans must also do likewise because research has identified a positive relationship between environmental scanning and productivity (Thomas, Clark and Gioia, 1993).

There are many models of environmental analysis (popularly called political, economic, social, technological (PEST) analysis) in management and library literature. For example, Burack and Mathys (1989), Newsome and McInery (1990), Du Toit (1993) and Hunger and Wheelan (1995) offer good guidelines for analysing the external environment. Models that support the flexible strategic management approach advanced so far in this study must be used. The analysis of the environment must seek to uncover relevant information rather than extensive information, it rewards the pursuit of quality rather than quantity. The analysis must focus on a limited number of key trends in the environment that are likely to continue and are likely to affect the libraries. These trends can then be systematically explored to establish with more precision the way they will impact on the libraries. Resources must be provided for environmental analysis.

### **11.3.3 CONCLUSION**

The fundamental structural transitions in a wide variety of organisations brought about by major catalysts such as global competition, technological developments and changing customer expectations, are imposing new strains on managers around the world.



Managers, concerned with restoring competitiveness of their firms, are abandoning traditional approaches to strategy; they are searching for new approaches that give guidance in a turbulent environment. Many academics, confronted with the same reality, are re-examining the relevance of the concepts and tools of the strategy field.

In the absence of a consistent and useful strategy paradigm that they can use, most managers appear to be using sections of different models of strategy that they either find interesting or convenient. Academics continue to search for new approaches. As a contribution to the global literature on strategy, this study has presented another approach to strategic thinking and strategy development.

The literature on strategy for university libraries is fragmented and far-flung and despite some recent advances weighs heavily toward principles and methodologies, anecdotes, and conceptual frameworks, with insufficient empirical work and minimal synthesis of findings. This project has attempted to redress this imbalance by examining some of the reasons why rational processes, though dominant in the strategy formulation processes, do not always create effective strategies. It has presented results from an empirical study of university libraries in Ghana. Contrary to the prevailing prescriptions and anecdotes on strategic planning in university libraries, the findings suggest that university library administrators will never be able to plan strategically through formalised processes. In other words, there is no one technique for creating strategy. In the absence of strategy, there is no reason to engage in formalised strategic planning. It will not generate strategies; at best it only extrapolates strategies from the past or copies them from other organisations.

Alternative perspectives emphasise the role of political activity, interpretative mechanisms and sheer chance in the development of strategy. However, uncertainty in external conditions of libraries make the selection and implementation of strategy potentially hazardous and flexibility desirable. That is why the findings of this study suggest the notion of flexibility in relation to strategic decision making.

The flexibility-related concepts have been explained and, more specifically, flexibility has been described in terms of an ongoing ability to respond to and to shape changing circumstances - a matter closely connected to the subjects of adaptability, corrigibility, organisational learning and renewal. For example, strategic flexibility in library service development has been presented in a demand and supply context. On the demand side,

flexibility in library service development has been associated with an ability for university libraries to alter current strategies when changes in user demand alter drastically. Also important and relevant to the issue of strategic flexibility is the supply context, new forms of technology may confer benefits associated with a variety of service provision at lower costs or the facilitation of changes in output levels and the use of other forms of library materials.

The perspective of flexibility pertaining to relationships between libraries places emphasis on user-centredness and contractual relationships inherent in service provision that libraries make with each other. In terms of its relevance to the internal flexibility of organisations, this approach seeks to address the apparent trend towards vertical integration, outsourcing and networking. Moreover, such flexibility is concerned with noting the extent to which individual organisations are restructuring or divesting, so as to return to a core set of limited activities, managed in a less hierarchical, bureaucratic fashion than previously.

As a new and emerging concept it has to be recognised that flexibility should not be treated as a panacea but more research is required to determine any reservations about the notion. An evaluation of the degree to which some university libraries in the UK and other developed countries enjoy strategic flexibility would be useful. The concept of capability-building (core capability) that has been uniquely recommended in this study as an alternative to the resource-based and core competencies views on improving university library resource development may be replicated in other studies to throw more light on its applicability in libraries.

The literature will also benefit particularly from studies on new and revitalised approaches to strategic thinking and strategy development in other developing countries. Differences between developing nations in relation to new strategic approaches and between developing and developed nations should be examined. Research study can be expanded to include both public and manufacturing sectors.

From the Ghanaian academic library perspective, this research has provided insight into the complex multifaceted relationships between university libraries' external and internal environments and as a first attempt at filling a significant gap in the strategy/university library literature has presented an abundance of issues that can be studied from a multiplicity of theoretical vantage points by other Ghanaian university library or other academic and public library researchers. For example, organisation leadership and

executive characteristics have been found to affect strategic decision processes by Hitt and Tyler (1991). They argue that people, not organisations, make decisions and that the decisions depend on prior processes of human perception and evaluation (Child, 1972). These processes are believed to be constrained by managerial orientation created by needs, values, experiences, expectations and cognitions of the manager. This study has not fully explored this issue and has not empirically verified the role of managers in strategic decision making in Ghanaian university libraries. Therefore, further research is needed to enable a closer examination of the specific understanding of the effects of individual executive characteristics on strategic decisions.

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# APPENDIX A

## INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

### BRIEF EXPLANATION OF THE RESEARCH

I am trying to explore the factors that affect the development of strategic planning in information provision in university libraries in university libraries in Ghana.

As you may be aware, the concept of strategic planning is Anglo-Saxon in origin. It is characterised by culture, politics and other variables typical of the American people. Therefore the concept does not fit comfortably in other societies that do not have the 'can do' nature and the steady growth found in American industries in the early 1960s.

Though profit-maximisation has been the material outcome of strategy making for the for-profit business and private sector, it has since 1980 been adopted by the non-profit organisations such as libraries in the management of their institutions in the UK and other western countries.

There is that tendency for less developed countries like Ghana to imitate the university libraries in the UK without due consideration to the suitability of strategic planning in the Ghanaian context which is characterised by political, social limitations and economic insecurity.

I am therefore talking to some of the major stakeholders of the university libraries in Ghana to find their views on some of the parameters that may affect positively or negatively the strategic planning process.

The data to be derived from these interviews will be used to determine the strategic fit and a strategic model for the development of our university libraries in Ghana.

May I assure you that your responses will be treated confidentially.

2. There are two parts of the interview. The first is a self-completed questionnaire. The questionnaire has routine questions on the background of all respondents. It is followed by some basic questions on strategic planning and some background information on the environment in which the universities/libraries operate.

The second part is the interview questions.

### ***GOALS/MISSION OF UNIVERSITIES/LIBRARIES***

I would like to ask you some questions on the mission of universities in Ghana and their libraries as most institutional policies are determined by the elements of the mission statement.

1. Why does a university exist?

Response.....  
.....  
.....

2. Card 2 (hand card to respondent) shows the categories of persons the university library may serve. Can you tell which categories you believe it should serve? Please rank your responses.

- a. Pupils from secondary schools studying for Diplomas, Bachelors etc.
- b. Students from overseas
- c. Matured students
- d. People doing short courses/ attending seminars, conferences etc.
- e. Research students
- f. other.. Please specify.....

3. Card 3 (hand card to respondent) is a list of the sort of business the university library has to be in. Can you tell me which of them you believe it must be in? Please rank according to the following priority 1= very high priority 2= high priority 3= important 4= marginal 5= least important.

- a. provision of entertainment facilities
- b. to assist in education and acquisition of knowledge
- c. information provision (providing books and periodicals)
- d. providing the right environment for learning
- e. promoting campus access to information resources
- f. document supply
- g. training the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management
- h. taking a leading role in national and international library and information services
- I. other.....

4. Card 4 (hand card over to respondent) shows possible customers (clientele, users) of the library. Which of them do you believe are the customers of the university library. Please rank your answers.

- a. graduate students
- b. undergraduates
- c. university administrators
- d. other members of the university community
- e. library staff
- f. faculty members
- g. other.....

### **VISION**

Having identified some aspects of the mission of a university and its library I would like to find out from you the vision you have for the university and the library.

5. What is your vision for the university in the next 5 years? (in other words where will you like the university to be in the next 5 years?)

Response.....  
.....

6. What sort of tasks will this vision involve for the university?

Response.....  
.....

7. Do you have a vision for the university library too?

No

Yes

7.1 ↓ What is your vision for the library in the next 5 years?

Response.....  
.....

**For Executives of Ministries of Education and Finance and all non library staff of the universities ask Q8-14**

For the tasks we have discussed in Q6 let us look briefly at the requirements for achieving them.

8. Do you think the universities will have enough money for the tasks?

Yes



NO



Why do you say that?.....

8.1 **Probe** adequacy of subvention for last year, this year and the next year i.e. Did the government subvention meet all the university tasks for the year 19994/95?

Response.....

9. What sort of technology do you think will be necessary for the tasks?

Response.....

9.1 Will this be available?

No



**Go to Q10**

Yes



9.1.1 How will this be available? Probe (govt providing separate fund or part of annual grant?)

Response.....

10. Will the tasks require new skills?

No



**Go to 10.2**

Yes



10.1 Have the universities got them?

No

Yes

**probe** (by discussing skills)



10.1.1 How do you think this human resource limitation can be solved? PROBE (if he says training probe cost responsibility).....

10.2 Why? **Probe** (by referring to new tasks if any).....

11. Will these tasks affect the university structure?

Yes



**Go to Q11.1**

No



Why not?.....

.....

Probe (where new skills will have to be employed).....

11.1 In what way will it affect it?.....

.....

12 With due regard to the government's policies on sector priorities where do you think university education has been placed?

1st quarter    2nd quarter    middle    last quarter    other.....(read out categories)

**EXTERNAL FACTORS**

The environment in which universities/libraries operate affect the progress in achieving the vision discussed earlier.

13. How will each of the following factors be favourable or not favourable to realising your vision?

13.1 Political

Response.....  
.....

13.2

Economy.....  
.....

13.3 Social.....

.....13.4

Technology.....  
.....

14. How will the international factor affect your vision?.....  
.....

*Discuss environmental analysis with them depending on their responses.*

*For Executives of Ministries of Finance and Education GO TO Q50*

*For ALL UNIVERSITY STAFF ASK Q15-17*

I'd now like to ask you about the position of the library in the university structure.

15. Some librarians believe that the university librarian must be next to the Pro-VC in the university organisational hierarchy. What extent do you agree with this? (read out categories)

Strongly agree    Agree    Uncertain    Disagree    Strongly disagree

16. In allocating funds to the various departments of the university what criteria do the authorities use?

Response.....  
.....

16.1 Where will the university library be in order of size of funds allocated to the departments in the university?.... (read out categories)

1st quarter    2nd quarter    Middle    last quarter    other.....

17. Is the university under any institutional pressure or obligation to generate income?

No    Yes

↓  
17.1 How are you going to generate this income?.....  
.....

17.2 What will happen to the income to be generated?.....  
.....

18. After some time of strategic planning in this university would you say the plan has achieved some of its aims and objectives?

Yes                  No  
 ↓                      ↓  
                          18.1 Why?.....  
                          .....

18.2 What have been some of the achievements?.....  
 .....

**For library staff and library related staff (library board, library planning committee etc.) ask Q19-50.**

*Library services*

The services currently provided by the library may have to change in the next 5 years to meet increasing demands. I'd therefore like to ask you about some of the services provided by your library.

19. What services are currently provided for:

- a. students b. faculty c. non- faculty d. others.

20. What new services will be provided in the next 5 years for

- a. students b. faculty c. non- faculty d. others.

Discuss the following issues: collection management, now and the future.

21. What sort of co-operation does your library have now with other institutions?

Response.....  
 .....

Discuss problems of previous attempts, reasons for co-operation, scope and nature and barriers to co-operation.

22. What will be the scope of co-operation in the next 5 years?.....  
 .....

*Funding*

23. What are the sources of funding of your library?

Response.....  
 .....

24. Do you have fund raising activities?

No    Yes  
 ↓    ↓  
           What do you do exactly?.....  
           .....

Why? (are you forbidden?).....  
 .....

25. Do you get all the money you ask for in your yearly budget?

Yes                  No  
 ↓                      ↓  
 Go to 25.3

25.1 What percentage do you normally get?.....

25.2 Would you therefore describe the funding of your library as...(read out categories)

Highly unstable   Unstable   quite stable   stable

25.3 For a yes answer Probe (ask about library expenditure, services, exact spending etc.).....

26. What criteria do you use to disburse the library funds? Probe (ask if it is strategic according to task etc.).....

**Organisational Structure and climate**

27. Which of the following describes the organisational structure of your library services?

- a. hierarchical (i.e. with University Librarian at apex, Deputy, Asst etc.)
- b. organic (with fewer levels, use team management, project groups running across rather than down the organisation)
- c. other.....

28. Has the structure ever changed?

No   Yes

↓  
How long ago was this?.....

↓  
Would you say it became more hierarchical/organic/other.....

↓  
How long has this structure existed?.....

Discuss the following: types of structures required, constraints to possible changes and the reasons for change.

The following statements relate to your library's working climate. How far do you agree with the statements?

**Q29 SEE APPENDIX C**

30. What work habits affect your services?

Response.....

31. How do you hope to discourage the negative practices?

Response.....

32. Have you noticed any mismatches between the preferences of your management and the way the staff do things? (Trying to find some of the key areas in which mismatches between management preferences, i.e. strategies and existing ways of doing things.)

No   Yes

↓  
32.1 What are some of the key areas in which staff prefer to do their own things instead of the laid down routines?.....

32.2 How do you hope to change these?.....

**Politics**

Strategy formulation is very much influenced by national and organisational politics. I'd like to ask you about the effects of politics on library development.

33. Would you describe the impact of national politics (Especially educational policies) for the last 15 years on university and its library development as : (read out categories)

Highly favourable    Favourable    Quite favourable    Not at all favourable

34. Why?.....  
.....

35. What would you say of 10 years before this period? (read out categories)

Highly favourable    Favourable    Quite favorable    Not at all favourable

Why?.....  
.....

36. In your experience which government (s) has favoured library growth and development in this country?.....

How?.....  
.....

37. What particular policy of the present government has had the greatest impact (-ve or +ve) on your library services?

Response.....  
.....

38. Would you describe the impact of interests groups such as UTAG, SRC, NUGS, SENIOR STAFF ASSOC. etc. on the development of your library as (read out categories) :

Highly favourable    Favourable    Quite Favourable    Not at all favourable

Please explain.....  
.....

39. Do you have any competitors in your university for the dissemination of information?

No    Yes ↓

Who are your competitors?.....  
.....

40. Do you have to compete with any department for a particular type of resource? (e.g. hardware because of similar functions etc.)

No    Yes ↓

Which departments?.....

What resources do you compete for?.....

How have you dealt with such competition? (lobbying, negotiation etc.).....  
.....

41. Card 41 (hand card to respondent) is a list of some political features that may be found in organisations. Which of the following political features exist in your library?

- a. Coalition among staff    b. department conflicts    c. informal leadership    d. other influential groups    e. inter-personal conflicts    f. other.....

If he has chosen a-e ask the following questions: Please explain. ....

How do you control it/them.....  
.....

Discuss other external environmental issues with library staff at this point (social, tech, international, economy)

*Personnel*

Strategies require skills. The following questions attempt to find out the sort of skills available to your library.



42. Who drew the library's strategic plan?.....

43. Were they equipped to do so?

No

Yes



Go to Q44

What sort of qualifications do they have?.....

.....

Were they particularly equipped to monitor and analyse the environment?

No

Yes



Go to Q44

Explain type of qualifications and experience they have.....

.....

Discuss scanning when necessary (e.g. constraints etc.)

In developing strategies for your library which areas do you think you will need to develop your staff ?.....

Now **probe** the following: Recruitment, promotion, training, HRM, qualifications, current staff competencies, staffing structure in relation to answers, management styles etc.

*Technology*

Strategic planning takes into account technology. The following questions deal with this factor.

45. What services have you computerised in your library?.....

.....

45.1 What other computer related activities are available (e.g. networks etc.).....

.....

46. What sort of hardware is available to support your technological ambitions?.....

.....

47. What have been your major problems in using information technology?.....

.....

Discuss IT in relation to planning, computer use and impact on services, investments etc.)

What other physical facilities will be required for your new tasks? Probe specific facilities mentioned (e.g. usefulness, space, durability etc.)

48. Do you use the computer for planning your activities (MIS)

No

Yes



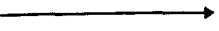
What activities specifically (recruitment, budgeting etc.).....

.....

49. Do you do performance evaluation of your library?

Yes

No



Go to Q50



Card 49 (hand card to respondent) has some of the indicators that may be used in evaluating performance. Which of them do you use?

Which of the following indicators do you use?

- a. Size of building/size of catchment population.
- b. In library use (head count)
- c. Opening hours/per population
- d. Enquiries received/population
- e. No. of staff/population.
- f. Enquiries received by type
- g. No. of items of stock/population
- h. Enquiries satisfied/total enquiries received
- I. Additions to stock per annum/total stock
- j. No. of study places available/population
- k. Discards of stock per annum/total stock
- l. No. of promotional activities/population
- m. Loans/active lending stock
- n. Consumer surveys
- o. Registered users/population
- p. Community groups and societies supported/catchment
- q. Active users/population population.
- r. Reservations satisfied in given time/total reservations record.
- s. Other(s).....

50. General comments.....

.....  
.....  
.....

**Thank you very much for your patience and co-operation.**

## APPENDIX B

### BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS, KNOWLEDGE OF SOME ASPECTS OF STRATEGIC PLANNING IN UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA AND EXTERNAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL INFORMATION

#### BACKGROUND

*QUESTIONS 1-4 SEEK THE BACKGROUND OF ALL RESPONDENTS. PLEASE COMPLETE AS BEST AS YOU CAN.*

1. What institution do you work for?

Response.....

2. What is your formal job title?

Response.....

3. How long have you been at your present position?

Response.....

4. What exactly does your work involve?

Response.....

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

#### STRATEGIC PLANNING

5. Are you aware that your library has a strategic plan?

yes..... no..... other response(please state).....

6. If your answer is Yes to Q.5 please tick the statement(s) that best describes your use of the planning document:

- I have looked over the whole document briefly.

- I have read the whole document.

- I have read the parts that apply to my establishment.

- None of the above.

7. Did you take part in drawing up the library's strategic plan?

yes.... no....

8. If your answer to Q.7 is yes what aspect of it were you involved ?

Response.....

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

## **THE ENVIRONMENT**

One aspect of this study is the external environment, which consists of all the outside factors considered in every strategic plan. These factors I have placed under 5 broad categories namely,

POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, INTERNATIONAL, TECHNOLOGY and SOCIO-CULTURAL

Please circle the number best representing the following features of the library's external environment in the last 15 years.

9. To what extent do you think these factors have had impact on libraries in Ghana?

	very little	about middle	very much		
a. Political	1	2	3	4	5
b. Economy	1	2	3	4	5
c. International	1	2	3	4	5
d. Technology	1	2	3	4	5
e. Socio-cultural	1	2	3	4	5

10. To what extent do you think these factors have become more favourable to university libraries?

	very little	about middle	very much		
a. Political	1	2	3	4	5
b. Economy	1	2	3	4	5
c. International	1	2	3	4	5
d. Technology	1	2	3	4	5
e. Socio-cultural	1	2	3	4	5

11. To what extent do you think these factors have become predictable?

	very little	about middle	very much		
a. Political	1	2	3	4	5
b. Economy	1	2	3	4	5
c. International	1	2	3	4	5
d. Technology	1	2	3	4	5
e. Socio-cultural	1	2	3	4	5

12. In each sector how much change have you observed in the last 15 years?

	very little	about middle	dramatic change		
a. Political	1	2	3	4	5
b. Economy	1	2	3	4	5
c. International	1	2	3	4	5
d. Technology	1	2	3	4	5
e. Socio-cultural	1	2	3	4	5

13. In each sector, how many factors does the library need to deal with?

	very few	about middle	very many		
a. Political	1	2	3	4	5
b. Economy	1	2	3	4	5

c. International	1	2	3	4	5
d. Technology	1	2	3	4	5
e. Socio-cultural	1	2	3	4	5

## APPENDIX B2

### QUESTIONNAIRE ON FACTORS AFFECTING THE STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES: STAFF PERSPECTIVES

I am trying to develop a strategy for providing information in university libraries in Ghana.

I am therefore investigating:

The sort of planning in vogue in the university libraries.

The awareness of the process among library staff and

the factors that may affect long range planning in university libraries in Ghana.

Please complete this questionnaire as best as you can. Strict confidentiality is assured.

Thank you.

E.BADU

#### ***STAFF AWARENESS AND PARTICIPATION***

1. Has your library got a formal strategic plan?

- a. yes
- b. no
- c. don't know if library has. (go to q6)

2. If you answered 'yes' to q1 which of the following best describes your use of the planning document

- a. I have read the entire document
- b. I have read the parts that apply to my section
- c. I have looked through the document
- d. I have not seen the document
- e. none of the above.

3. Did you take part in drawing up the library strategic plan?

- a. yes
- b. no

4. If you answered 'yes' to q3 which of the following planning activities did you personally participate in?

- a. informal discussion
- b. planning conference and training sessions
- c. staff survey
- d. writing of goals and objectives
- e. library group discussions

- f. writing memos to strategic committee
  - g. production of planning document
5. Which of the following groups participated in the strategic planning process?
- a. senior members
  - b. chief-senior library assistants
  - c. library assistant and junior library assistants
  - d. library administrators
  - e. some members of the university community but not librarians
  - f. government officials
  - g. others (please specify).....

**ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND CLIMATE**

The following statements Q6-Q13 describe some aspects of your organisational culture. To what extent do you agree with the statements?

6a. Decisions are taken by staff at all levels

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

6b. Jobs in the library are properly described and logically structured.

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

6c. Supervision in the library is setting guidelines for subordinates who take responsibility for their actions.

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

6d. In the library, library assistants have to go through the proper channel if they have suggestions pertaining to work.

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

7a. In the library all workers can speak their minds, even if it means disagreeing with superiors.

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

7b. Subordinate staff are afraid to express disagreement with superior officers (HODs, senior members)

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

7c. Subordinates fear the authority of senior members.

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

8. There is obedience to rank.

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

9. With regard to operational matters in the library, every individual's ideas are accepted and truth does not come from only senior members.

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

10. Subordinates can approach senior members and contradict them.

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

11. A particular tribe dominates the work force in the library

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

12. Subordinate staff are afraid to express disagreement with superior officers (HODs, senior members)

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

13. Lateness to work is one of the worst habits of library staff.

strongly disagree      disagree      uncertain      agree      strongly agree

14. Which of the following explains why some staff are sometimes late for work (you may tick as many as applicable)

- a. lateness is a national culture (African punctuality)
- b. senior officers do not set a good example and are often late themselves
- c. family problems
- d. transportation problems
- e. lack of job satisfaction
- f. other (pls. state).....

15. Which of the following explains why some staff do not remain at their desks (may tick more than one)

- a. to communicate with colleagues in other departments in the library.
- b. to communicate with colleagues in other faculties
- c. to get away early to see to other non-library activities.
- d. to get some snack
- e. to attend to some non-library activities
- f. other (pls. specify).....

### ***POLITICS AND FUNDING***

16. Which of the following political features exists in your library? (you may tick more than one)

- a. influential groups
- b. informal leaders
- c. departmental conflicts
- d. individual conflicts
- e. none
- f. other (pls. specify).....

17. Which of the following have had adverse consequences on library development in universities in Ghana? Please use the following scale by writing the number beside each of the answers provided. 1= very significant 2= significant 3= quite significant 4= not at all significant.

- a. government interventions in university education (e.g. closures)
- b. strike action by UTAG
- c. strike action by students
- d. strike action by workers
- e. change in government educational policies
- f. government disregard for university education
- g. none

18. In your opinion, would you say the present government's funding of university education has been:

- a. very adequate
- b. adequate
- c. inadequate
- d. extremely inadequate
- e. uncertain



19. Would you describe the government's relationship with universities in Ghana as :

- a. highly favourable
- b. favourable
- c. unfavourable
- d. highly unfavourable

20. Would you describe the funding of your library as :

- a. highly unstable
- b. unstable
- c. stable
- d. highly stable

21. Do you think your library must embark on fund raising activities to supplement government efforts?

- a. yes
- b. no

22. If your answer to q21 is 'yes' which of the following do you believe the library must do? (may tick more than one)

- a. charge fees for some services
- b. get assistance from foreign donors
- c. get assistance from alumni
- d. appeal to general public for funds
- e. take up non-academic commercial ventures
- f. other (s) (pls. specify).....

23. If your answer to q21 in 'no' please state very briefly your reasons.....  
.....

**TECHNOLOGY**

24. Which of the following services have been computerised in your library?

- a. all housekeeping services
- b. part of cataloguing
- c. on line public access (OPAC)
- d. part of circulation
- g. none
- h. other (please specify).....

25. To what extent do you use the computer (s) in your library?

- a. a great deal
- b. sometimes
- c. never

26. Which of the following has been a problem with the use of computers in your library (may tick more than one)

- a. irregular electricity supply
- b. lack of expertise

- c. insufficient computers
- d. maintenance problems
- e. lack of all staff exposure
- f. other (s) (pls. specify).....

**27. Which of the following computer related activities exist in your library (may tick more than one)**

- a. e-mail services
- b. networking
- c. MIS (management information system)
- d. electronic document delivery
- e. CD-ROM services
- f. other (s) (pls. specify).....

***BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION***

**28. University you work for.....**

**29. Department (in library) you work.....**

**30. Male..... Female.....**

**31. How many years have you worked for your present library.....**

**32. Which of the following categories apply to you? Please fill in your qualifications.**

**qualification**

- a. senior member .....
- b. para-professional .....
- c. non-professional .....
- d. other (pls. specify)..... .....

## APPENDIX C

**QUESTION 29 IS MADE UP OF MANY SUBQUESTIONS. PLEASE COMPLETE AS BEST AS YOU CAN. THANK YOU.**

**29.** The following statements relate to your library's working climate. How far do you agree with the statements?

**1.** Decisions are taken by staff at all levels.

Strongly	Agree	Not	Disagree	Strongly
Agree		Sure		Disagree

**2.** Jobs in the library are properly described.

Strongly	Agree	Not	Disagree	Strongly
Agree		Sure		Disagree

**3.** Supervision in the library is setting guidelines for subordinates who take responsibility for their actions.

Strongly	Agree	Not	Disagree	Strongly
Agree		Sure		Disagree

**4.** In the library, library assistants have to go through the proper channel if they have suggestions pertaining to work.

Strongly	Agree	Not	Disagree	Strongly
Agree		Sure		Disagree

**5.** In the library all workers can speak their minds, even if it means disagreeing with their superiors.

Strongly	Agree	Not	Disagree	Strongly
Agree		Sure		Disagree

**6.** Subordinate staff are afraid to express disagreement with superior officers.

Strongly	Agree	Not	Disagree	Strongly
Agree		Sure		Disagree

**7.** Subordinates fear the authority of Senior officers of the library.

Strongly	Agree	Not	Disagree	Strongly
Agree		Sure		Disagree

**8.** In the library every individual's ideas are accepted and truth does not come from only high ranking officers.

Strongly	Agree	Not	Disagree	Strongly
Agree		Sure		Disagree

**9.** People are capable of loyalty and discipline in carrying out instructions.

Strongly	Agree	Not	Disagree	Strongly
Agree		Sure		Disagree

**10.** There is deference and obedience to rank.

Strongly	Agree	Not	Disagree	Strongly
----------	-------	-----	----------	----------

Agree

Sure

Disagree

11. The library is characterised by a hush in the air(people quiet and going about their duties), closed doors and formality.

Strongly

Agree

Not

Disagree

Strongly

Agree

Sure

Disagree

12. The library is characterised by a relaxed easy going working climate.

Strongly

Agree

Not

Disagree

Strongly

Agree

Sure

Disagree

# APPENDIX D

## SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONNAIRE ON FACTORS THAT AFFECT STRATEGY FORMATION IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES IN GHANA

Dear Colleague,

It may be recalled that you took part in a similar exercise by completing a questionnaire to help find some answers to information provision problems in our libraries.

This supplementary questionnaire has become necessary because some more hypotheses that have been generated from the interviews held in your institution in February/March have to be tested.

Please note that the variables that have been used in the questionnaire have emerged from previous interviews. All the questions therefore may not apply to your particular circumstance.

I shall therefore be grateful if you will co-operate by completing the questionnaire to the best of your ability. I thank you for your usual co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Ellis Badu(University of Sheffield)

\*\*\*\*\* PLEASE NOTE THAT FOR ANY OF THE RESPONSES YOU CAN TICK AS MANY AS POSSIBLE

### BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. NAME OF YOUR UNIVERSITY.....
2. DEPARTMENT (IN THE LIBRARY) YOU WORK.....
3. NUMBER OF YEARS OF WORK IN LIBRARY.....
4. WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING APPLIES TO YOU?
  - a. professional librarian
  - b. para-professional librarian
  - c. non professional.
  - d. other (please specify).....
5. PLEASE STATE YOUR QUALIFICATION(S) (E.G. A'LEVEL, BA+DIP).....
6. SEX MALE.....FEMALE.....

### GOALS/MISSION OF UNIVERSITY/LIBRARY

7. FROM YOUR POINT OF VIEW WHY DOES A UNIVERSITY EXIST?(PLEASE TICK AS MANY AS APPLICABLE)
  - a. to educate people
  - b. to provide manpower for national development
  - c. to conduct research for society
  - d. for individual development
  - e. other(pls. specify).....

**8. WHAT SORT OF BUSINESS IS THE UNIVERSITY LIBRARY IN? (PLEASE TICK AS MANY AS APPLICABLE)**

- a. education/acquisition of knowledge
- b. information provision(books, journals i.e., printed material)
- c. provide right environment for learning
- d. promoted campus wide access to information resources
- e. document supply
- f. national and international resource provision
- g. provision of entertainment facilities.
- h. training the university community the skills of information retrieval and management.
- I. other.....

**9. WHO ARE THE USERS OF YOUR LIBRARY?(PLEASE TICK AS MANY AS APPLICABLE)**

- a. undergraduates
- b. postgraduates
- c. university workers
- d. members of general public
- e. other.....

#### **VISION FOR UNIVERSITY/LIBRARY**

**10. WHAT IS YOUR VISION FOR YOUR UNIVERSITY IN THE NEXT 5 YEARS? IN OTHER WORDS WHERE WOULD YOU LIKE TO SEE THIS UNIVERSITY IN THE NEXT 5 YEARS?**

- a. expanded facilities
- b. progress in education
- c. improvement in curricular
- d. dissemination of information
- e. promotion of external linkages
- f. achieve self sufficiency
- g. cut down on some courses in order to save money for more important courses
- h. attract employment opportunities
- i. other.....

**11. WHERE WOULD YOU LIKE TO SEE YOUR LIBRARY IN THE NEXT 5 YEARS?**

- a. improvement in services
- b. full technology application
- c. ease of use of library
- d. expansion of entire facilities
- e. staff development
- f. strategic management of library

**EXTERNAL FACTORS THAT AFFECT LIBRARY**

**12. WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING ECONOMIC FACTORS DO YOU THINK AFFECT YOUR UNIVERSITY?**

- a. government wrong priorities
- b. weak economy
- c. inadequate funds for university
- d. poor salaries
- e. depreciation of cedi
- f. budget cuts
- g. quarterly payment of university subvention
- h. other.....

**13. WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING POLITICAL FACTORS AFFECT YOUR UNIVERSITY/ LIBRARY?**

- a. bad educational policies
- b. lack of opposition to bad policies
- c. government playing politics with education
- d. teachers strikes.
- e. government interference in running of universities
- f. lack of freedom of expression
- g. government disregard for education.

**14. WHAT PARTICULAR POLICY OF THE PRESENT GOVERNMENT HAS HAD THE WORST IMPACT ON UNIVERSITIES?**

- a. increase in student numbers without corresponding increase in funding
- b. bad remuneration(salaries and wages)
- c. government control of universities
- d. cutbacks in subvention
- e. quarterly payment of subvention
- f. other.....

**15. HOW DOES THE LEVEL OF BUDGET(FUNDING) NOW COMPARE FOR UNIVERSITIES WITH THE FUNDING POSITION IN THE PRE-RAWLINGS ERA?**

- a. budget today less than pre-Rawlings era
- b. budget today higher than pre-Rawlings era
- c. budget today same as pre-Rawlings era
- d. don't know

**INTERNAL FACTORS**

**16. WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING ACCOUNTS FOR THE POOR DISTRIBUTION OF FUNDS TO YOUR LIBRARY BY YOUR OWN UNIVERSITY FINANCE OFFICE?**

- a. faculty and administration have a low regard for librarians.
- b. funding from government is inadequate
- c. library is not represented on the financial committee

- d. library management is not influential enough to lobby or 'force' for more money.
- e. bad leadership.
- f. other.....

**17. WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING WORK HABITS AFFECT YOUR LIBRARY SERVICES?**

- a. lax supervision
- b. lateness to work
- c. laziness on part of workers
- d. loitering when supposed to be at post.
- e. other.....

**TECHNOLOGY**

**18. TO WHAT EXTENT HAVE YOUR HOUSEKEEPING SYSTEMS (acquisition, circulation, cataloguing) BEEN COMPUTERISED?**

- a. partially
- b. all or nearly all
- c. none
- d. other.....

**19. DOES YOUR LIBRARY MONITOR SYSTEMATICALLY WHAT GOES ON IN THE ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT IN THE COUNTRY?**

NO YES

if NO go to q.20. If yes DOES YOUR LIBRARY HAVE THE TECHNOLOGY TO MONITOR THE ENVIRONMENT?

NO YES

If yes what technology does it use?.....

.....

**20. WHAT NEW SERVICES WOULD YOU LIKE TO SEE IN YOUR LIBRARY IN THE NEXT 5 YEARS?**

- a. internet connection
- b. electronic publishing
- c. expansion of CD-ROM services
- d. SDI services
- e. audio visual facilities
- f. other.....

**21. DO YOU THINK THE LIBRARY WILL HAVE ENOUGH MONEY FOR THE NEW SERVICES?**

NO YES

If yes please state how the library will get the money.....

.....

**22. COMMENTS**.....  
 .....  
 .....



# APPENDIX E

## OUTLINE FOR ANALYSIS OF PLANNING DOCUMENTS

1. Name of library issuing plan.....
2. Planning document.....
3. Who was responsible in its development?.....
4. For what purpose was plan developed?.....
5. Who formally approved of plan?.....
6. Adequacy of details (rating 1-4)

Full mission

goals.....

objectives.....

history of institution/library.....

organisational structure.....

7. Does the plan address the environment? To what extent? (rating 1-4).....
8. What are the library key issues that have been addressed in the plan? What are the areas needing greater effort?

collections

services

personnel

facilities

financial support

technology

9. What alternatives have been considered for action. Does the plan consider alternatives in making its recommendations? (rating 1-4).....
10. Does plan make specific recommendation for action? Does it include timetables and measurements for determining success? (rating 1-4).....
11. Documentation (Does the plan include documenetation to support recommendations?) E.g., staff requirements, cost estimates, growth projections etc. (rating 1-4).....
12. Review (Does the plan include mechanisms for measuring progress toward achieving goals on regular basis?) Does it provide formal periodic updating (rating 1-4).....

Rating system 1 - 4

The rating system measured the extent to which the plan addressed the areas of concern.

1. No information provided on areas of concern
2. Very little information provided
3. Plan provided adequate consideration of a factor
4. Plan provided extensive consideration of a factor.

# APPENDIX F

## ANALYSIS OF PLANNING DOCUMENTS

The planning documents were analysed using the outline for analysis in Appendix E.

The first two questions on the form identified the institutions that submitted plans and the kind of plan drawn-up.

For the Ghanaian case studies, UnivA, UnivB, UnivC and UnivD submitted strategic plans. Five strategic plans from the UK case study libraries were also received. For this analysis the UK university libraries were described as UK1, UK2, UK3, UK4 and UK5.

### *Question 3*

Who was responsible for the development of the planning document?

Library	Responsibility for plan.
UnivA	All professional librarians in post
Univ B	A committee made up of the University Librarian and a section of the other professionals.
UnivC	All professional librarians.
UnivD	Only the University Librarian.
UK1	University Librarian and Deputy but draft document was passed on to the rest of the staff for comments.
UK2	The Director and Deputy Director.
UK3	University Librarian and some other professionals but document was passed on to every member of staff for input.
UK4	Director of Library but document was passed on to every library staff member for input.
UK5	University Librarian and deputy but with comments on draft by a cross section of library staff.

The results indicate that for all the university libraries in Ghana the planning documents were prepared by the very top management personnel without the participation of the para-and non-professional staff. In the UK, a similar trend is shown. However, for the plans of UK1, UK3, UK4 and UK5, other staff members provided inputs to the draft plans. None of the nine case study libraries used outside consultants and with the Ghanaian university library plans, the para-and non-professionals were entirely excluded. These are landmarks of non-participative library planning.

**Question 4**

For what purpose was plan developed?

Library	Purpose of plan
UnivA	Required by university management
Univ B	Required by corporate body for entire university planning.
UnivC	Required by university for inclusion in university plan.
UnivD	Required by university
UK1	Library is required by university to draw-up a plan
UK2	Required by university for budgeting
UK3	To meet the educational objectives of the university
UK4	Required by the university
UK5	Required by the university

All the university libraries in Ghana and four of the UK university libraries developed their strategic plans to institutional requirements for university planning purposes. For UK3 however the Director of Library Services commented that he initiated the drawing- up of the plan to meet his institutional objective but not as a response to his corporate requirement.

**Question 5**

Who formally approved of plan?

The plans were not formally approved by any body or organisation or agency or the university administration. The responses for all nine libraries suggest that the strategic plans were submitted to university authorities after completion without any formal approvals. It appears that the documents were all informational and the authors did not seek formal approval.

**Question 6**

*Adequacy of details*

Statement of mission, goals and objectives (Rating 1-4)

Library	Mission statements	Rating
UnivA	No mission statement	1
Univ B	Extensive mission statement	4
UnivC	Adequate statement	3
UnivD	No mission statement	1
UK1	Extensive mission statement	4
UK2	Extensive mission statement	4
UK3	Extensive mission statement	4
UK4	Extensive mission statement	4
UK5	Extensive mission statement	4

UnivA UnivD had no mission statements while UnivB and UnivC had extensive and adequate coverage of mission statements respectively. All the UK case study libraries had extensive coverage on mission statements.

*Goals and objectives (Rating 1-4)*

Library	Goals/Objectives	Rating
UnivA	No goals/objectives stated	1
Univ B	Document has extensive statements of objectives	4
UnivC	Document has extensive statements of objectives	4
UnivD	Little information provided	2
UK1	Document has extensive statements of objectives	4
UK2	Extensive statements of objectives	4
UK3	Extensive statements of objectives	4
UK4	Extensive statements of objectives	4
UK5	Extensive statements of objectives	4

*History of institution/library-(Rating 1-4)*

Library	Historical Review	Rating
UnivA	No historical information	1
Univ B	Adequate historical information	3
UnivC	No historical information	1
UnivD	No historical information	1
UK1	No historical information	1
UK2	Little historical information	2
UK3	Extensive historical information	4
UK4	No historical information	1
UK5	Little historical information	2

UnivA and UnivD included little or no statements of goals and objectives respectively. The rest of the case studies however, included either adequate or extensive statements of goals and objectives. In Ghana, only UnivB provided adequate historical information, with the other case study libraries providing no historical information. A similar situation arose with the UK analysis where only UK3 provided extensive historical information whilst the others provided little or no information. This is unfortunate because it may be assumed that some of the staff of the libraries are familiar with the history of their institutions and their libraries and are in agreement about the directions the libraries' development has taken over time. In reality, in the Ghanaian case studies, many librarians are not adequately familiar with the histories of their institutions and may not be aware of, or may have forgotten, many of the historical factors that explain why apparent idiosyncrasies may exist in facilities, resources or services.

*Organisational structure (Rating 1-4)*

Library	Organisational structure	Rating
UnivA	No information on organisational structure	1
Univ B	Little information on organisational structure	2
UnivC	No information on organisational structure	1
UnivD	No information on organisational structure	1
UK1	No information on organisational structure	1
UK2	Adequate information on staffing structure	3
UK3	No information on organisational structure	1
UK4	Little information on organisational structure	2
UK5	No information on organisational structure	1

The overall analysis of staffing structure information indicates that the case studies did not have organisational structures in their plans. UK2 however has adequate information on its present staffing structure and future changes in accordance with the new strategy.

**Question 7**

Does the plan address the external environment? To what extent? (Rating 1-4)

Question 7 sought to discover if the plans addressed the external environments such as politics, economy, social and technology context within which the plan is developed and in which the plan is to be implemented.

Library	Environmental analysis	Rating
UnivA	No discussion of environment	1
Univ B	Little discussion of environment	2
UnivC	No discussion of environment	1
UnivD	No discussion of environment	1
UK1	No discussion of environment	1
UK2	Little discussion of environment	2
UK3	Adequate information on environment	3
UK4	No discussion of environment	1
UK5	No discussion of environment	1

Almost all the Ghanaian case studies had no information about the external environment. The plan of UnivB had little information on the external environment. UK2 and UK3 had some information too. Even the plans that had some information failed to analyse the environment. UnivB just mentioned the country's educational reforms without recommending any changes in the light of the reforms. It failed to review its assets and liabilities in view of the country's changing environment. The plan of UK2 mentioned weaknesses and

opportunities with regard to changing internal/corporate environments but also failed to place these in the context of the macro environment of the United Kingdom. The plan of UK3 had adequate information which was not discussed under the heading 'External Environment' but dispersed under various headings. It also failed to discuss monitoring and analysing of the environment in line with the strategies put forward.

### Question 8

What are the library key issues that have been addressed in the plan? What are the areas needing greatest effort? The key issues that were looked for in the plans were : 1. Collections 2. Services 3. Personnel 4. Facilities 5. Technology 6. Financial Support.

#### Collections (Rating 1-4)

Library	Collections	Rating
UnivA	No information on collections	1
Univ B	Little information on collections	2
UnivC	No information on collection	1
UnivD	Little information on collections	1
UK1	Adequate information on collections	3
UK2	Extensive information on collections	4
UK3	Extensive information on collections	4
UK4	Extensive information on collections	4
UK5	Extensive information on collections	4

Only two of the Ghanaian university libraries' plans have some information on collections. The document for UnivD had a brief history of collections and relates expected bookstock to projected increase in student population. It has a target number for books that will be needed to match increases in student population. The document of UnivB discusses the topic better than that of UnivD. It states the desire of the librarians to examine the library's acquisitions policy in the light of varying needs of undergraduates and researchers in different faculties, with a view to establishing the optimum balance between books and periodicals. It also proposes a centralisation of the acquisition process, based on a participative selection process. It calls for faculty participation in the selection and acquisition processes.

However, mention was not made of any co-operative arrangements by the document of UnivB as was found in the plans of all the UK university libraries. There was also no mention of a link between collection management policies and changes in academic programmes and priorities. There was little mention linking collection numbers with increase in student numbers.

Collection management was not linked with technological ambitions. It appears the estimates made for computer and other equipment were not done with the intention of providing greater access to information resources in electronic media and machine readable formats. All the UK university libraries with the exception of UK1 provided extensive information on collections. UK1 provided adequate information on machine readable materials but very little on other media.

#### Services

**UnivA-** The plan of UnivA proposes the automation of traditional services of acquisition and cataloguing, reader services, periodical control etc. Its long term ambition is to computerise every library operation. It provides a short term ambition of acquiring a list of equipment and costs to start off. It also provides the costs of computerisation of individual services which it discusses under 'medium' and 'long term' plans. Proposals are for mainly individual PCs for different services without due consideration of an integrated approach to automation.

**UnivB-**The plan proposes the automation of house keeping functions and the provision of Local Area Networks to assist the dissemination of information. Very little detail on proposed services is provided. It provides a cost budget for equipment for operations.

**UnivC-** The plan says very little about services. It provides information on the expansion of existing traditional library services. Mention is made of an automated acquisition process. There is very little on the costs of proposed services.

**UnivD-**The plan does not discuss services. Mention is made of the expansion of facilities for book acquisition and storage. There is some information on the establishment of an audio visual department which is not linked to the plan's overall objective. The entire plan appears to call for the expansion of physical facilities without any new ideas such as current development in library service provision using Information Technology.

**UK1-** The plan of UK1 provides extensive information on service provision. Service provision emphasises wide access to information through development of its printed materials and extending electronic availability of primary and secondary research materials. Inter library loan for documents not held locally and navigational support and expertise in information resources discovery are discussed. It provides means of improving on service provision within the duration of the plan. Co-operation with existing partners at all levels (local, regional, national and international) would be increased and improved.

The service recommendations in the document of UK1 were found to be common to nearly all four documents of the other libraries in the UK. They all emphasise an increased provision of networked access to full text and bibliographic databases, electronic journals, datasets etc. The document of UK2 goes a step further to address the provision of access to digitised images to update its slide collection and to participate in a 'Knowledge Gallery' project.

In addition to these services the plan of UK3 recommends improved facilities for users with special needs and putting policies in place to deter conversation in reading areas together with separate areas for group project discussions. Greater emphasis on the reconfiguration of library space for more users by reducing holdings of printed materials and emphasising access to electronic information are discussed.

### *Personnel*

All the libraries in Ghana had some information on personnel except UnivA. Those who had information on personnel were unanimous on new recruitment policies and in-service training. UnivB and UnivC's documents recommend in- service training in specific areas of library development such as IT. The plan of UnivD recommends general in-service training without being specific about the areas needing change. The plans of UnivB and UnivD recommend local or overseas workshops, seminars and meetings as a means of giving further training to staff. The plan of UnivB provides more information on further formal training for professionals and proposes to employ more graduates and spend more money in their further training in acquiring higher degrees: this plan also presents a comprehensive package for staff development for professionals only, and emphasises overseas training and exchange programmes.

The three Ghanaian planning documents left out other important aspects of personnel development such as support for research and publications by library personnel. Most of the recommendations are not set out as well developed policy guidelines. They appear to be a mere listing of encouraging words to future employees. There is no mention of any criteria for the evaluation of performance of all the staff and little is also said of the use of part-time staff and the continuous use of student support.

There was complete unanimity amongst all the UK libraries about considering staff as part of grand resource allocation mechanism. This may have been because of this particular recommendation in the Follett (1993) report. The documents of UK1, UK4 and UK5, however, had little on personnel and it appears the plans did not give human resource management as much attention as the plans for UK2 and UK3. For example, the UK2 document recommends more support for human resource management. Specific forms include staff development and training particularly in IT (as emphasised in the Follett report); on enlarged management team, staff motivation and quantifiable growth in certain activities such as routine issue/enquiry desk work, acquisition/cataloguing of materials. The plan of UK3 recommends a staff development strategy, emphasising staff quality, review of services to users and quality working practices. It also includes strong support for a formal review of library services and the personnel, by external assessors.

### *Physical Facilities*

Physical facilities particularly receive the greatest attention in all the plans of the Ghanaian university libraries which is an indication of the importance the libraries attach to the needs for such facilities as buildings and equipment. With the exception of UnivA's plan, which did not provide information on space and building, the plans had information on the construction of new buildings and the progress made in construction, expected seating capacities and the provision of library equipment. They fail, however, to indicate how they will complete the projects. Recommendations for repairs and maintenance of present buildings were also made .

UnivB and UnivD recommend the improvement of telecommunications systems and installation of telephones to facilitate inter-and intra- departmental communication. UnivD proposes the construction of a conference hall and the provision of more bookshelves, racks, trolleys, cupboards and chairs. It also recommends the acquisition of a 15-seater bus to transport workers and books between sites. This plan has information on security of resources, e.g. book detection systems, security lighting etc. It is the only plan, as far as Ghanaian university libraries are concerned, that provides some information on access by disabled users as it proposes ramps for wheel chairs and guides for the blind. Preservation of library materials is recommended in the plan of UnivB and is also mentioned in that of UnivD. In house binding and the regular spring cleaning of the premises and the provision of fire extinguishers are cited as some of the preservation practices.

The upgrading and purchasing of new equipment was given detailed coverage in the plans of all the Ghanaian university libraries. Among the equipment proposed are electric generators, computers, minigraph catalogue machines, photocopiers, typewriters, air conditioners and CD-ROM readers and scanners.

The plans of the UK university libraries do not have many recommendations on facility needs and two of the libraries do not provide any information on these. This could be because they did not have any significant physical facility needs. UK2 and UK3 provide more information than UK1 which only recommended an improvement in the quality of its existing estate and in particular improving the provision and condition of study furniture, improving the decorative state and signage of all service points, improving security for users, staff and materials and improving access for the disabled. The plans of these libraries also make recommendations for the new construction of new or major renovations of existing buildings. They also make specific recommendations about security, storage, preservation, equipment and overall space allocation and utilisation and improved facilities for users with special needs. General upgrading of equipment is given prominence. Computers, printers, A/V equipment, microfilm readers, photocopiers, etc. are all to be upgraded.

Particular points common to all the UK libraries' plans are the need for disaster preparedness and also facilities for persons with disabilities.

### *Technology*

The plans of all the Ghanaian university libraries have information on the use of computer technology to address problems of library operations. All four plans have recommendations for automating house keeping routines. Two of the plans reject the continuing use of card catalogues and recommend automation of catalogues as the first section to be computerised in the order of automation of library processes. None, however, recommends adopting an integrated approach to computerisation. No mention of OPACs was made in any of the plans nor do the plans mention the use of Internet, World Wide Web and other national and international networks. There was no support for MIS and there was no information at all on using computers for library management operations.

The planning documents of all the UK university libraries call for greater use of computer technology in improving future library operations. UK1, UK2, UK3 hope to maximise the availability of electronic resources in support of research, teaching and learning, paying attention to the coverage of subjects in which the universities are research-active. The libraries hope to move very soon to delivery of full text documents in electronic format pending resolution of intellectual property and market issues. UK4, UK5 and UK1 hope to provide IT connectivity at the study desks as central to integrated use of traditional and electronic information sources. As in the Ghanaian case study libraries, the plans of the UK libraries did not have information on computer generated information for management decision making though plans for UK2, UK4 and UK5 recommend integrated technology and other library resources.



### *Financial support*

The plan of UnivA has no information on financial support and UnivC and UnivD have little information. The plans that provided little information on financial support did not provide any new ideas for financing the libraries. The only information they provide is the continuous reliance on government funding and donor support.

The plan of UnivB, however, has extensive discussion on how the library will address the attainment of goals and objectives in relation to its financial plans. The plan recommends a range of alternative sources of financing the library's intended strategies and at the same time hopes to obtain an increase in the university's budget allocation. It suggests an encouragement of the academic and administrative staff of the university to use the library so as to be able to have an increase in the library's allocation of the university budget. At the same time it hopes to improve its documentation of the need for increase in the library's budget in the context of the university as a whole. It recommends a policy of charging registration fees and imposing reasonable fines for overdue books. It also recommends a series of income-generating activities such as photocopying, microreproduction of documents and slide preparation.

Other recommendations include fees for use of telex, fax and e-mail services, word processing, desk top publishing and CD-ROM searches. It also hopes to let part of the building for conferences and to provide a snack bar for users of the library. The plan proposes to mount deliberate campaigns to attract income to the library. Among some of the activities it hopes to undertake are an appeal for funds from alumni and the general public and the setting up of an endowment fund.

All the UK university libraries provide information on financial support. They all recommend that the libraries seek alternative sources of funds. Specific examples were however not cited by UK1, UK2 and UK3. The plans of UK4 and UK5 cite specific examples, such as seeking funds from philanthropists and private companies. Other recommendations dealt with: developing resource allocation mechanisms which reflect the university's priorities (UK1, UK4 and UK5); exploring opportunities for new revenue-generating services and reviewing charges for existing services (UK1, UK2, UK4 and UK5) and extending charging for ancillary services where appropriate marketing services to external users, including the business community, if there is sufficient capacity to undertake this without detriment to the service to university staff and students (UK2, UK3 and UK5).

### **Question 9**

Does the plan consider alternatives in making its recommendations? (Rating 1-4)

Library	Alternatives	Rating
UnivA	No discussion of alternatives	1
Univ B	Very little discussion of alternatives	2
UnivC	No discussion of alternatives	1
UnivD	No discussion of alternatives	1
UK1	No discussion of alternatives	1
UK2	No discussion of alternatives	1
UK3	No discussion of alternatives	1
UK4	Very little discussion of alternatives	2
UK5	Very little discussion of alternatives	2

The implementation of strategy involves weighing alternative courses of action and projecting the long term consequences of using different approaches to solving a problem. Question 9 examined whether the library planning documents collected revealed considerations of alternative choices in making recommendations on how to address key issues.

With the exception of UnivB, UK4 and UK5, whose plans had very little discussion on alternatives in making recommendations for action, the plans did not discuss any alternatives. One possible reason why the UK

university library plans did not discuss alternatives is probably due to the fact that the planners believe that their recommendations would work out considering the availability of facilities coupled with a more stable macro environment. This cannot be said about the Ghanaian libraries. In a situation when UnivD relies solely on government funds for projected programmes alternative recommendations for funding of programmes is a necessity in case the government funds do not materialise. The plan of UnivB however discusses some choices that will be made when the construction of its building is completed. The plans of UK4 and UK5 also discuss alternatives reaffirming choices or revisions of decisions on new resources, new problems, or technological advances which affect the feasibility of some options.

**Question 10**

Does the plan make specific recommendations for action? Does it include time tables and measurements for determining success? (Rating 1-4)

Library	Specific Recommendations	Rating
UnivA	No recommendations for action	1
Univ B	Many recommendations for action	3
UnivC	Many recommendations for action	3
UnivD	No recommendations for action	1
UK1	Very few recommendations for action	2
UK2	Many recommendations for action	3
UK3	Many recommendations for action	3
UK4	Very few recommendations for action	1
UK5	Many recommendations for action	3

The plans of UnivA and UnivD do not demonstrate any real understanding of the problems facing university libraries. The plans of UnivB and UnivC have many recommendations for action. However, recommendations of UnivC do not appear to relate to how those 'actions' are going to be taken to achieve the goals and objectives of the plans and do not charge any body with doing anything to advance its recommendations. They appear to be extensions to stated objectives. For example, for the objective- 'systematic selection of materials, organisation of all types of information records', the recommended action is the 'selection of materials covering all subjects with emphasis on taught courses'.

By contrast the plan of UnivB directs specific individuals or offices to take clearly defined steps toward achieving goals. Some of the steps include an adoption of an aggressive means to develop the collection to acceptable levels set out in the plan by making representation to the university authorities for an increase in library budget. They hope to appoint a committee to be responsible for the whole process. To boost self-instruction for users, the plan recommends the creation of more video facilities on user instruction as well as other photographic facilities. The library hopes to market to a target user group information packages as a means of publicising the library's services and to create user awareness. It recommends the mounting of exhibitions on topical issues such as World Health day, World Aids day etc. to inform the university community and to draw attention to the availability of relevant materials in the library.

In general, the plan of UnivB demonstrates an appreciation of the importance of making the plans an active component in the library administration and of assigning responsibilities for initiating actions that could lead to implementation. The plan for UnivB is the only one of the Ghanaian university libraries that includes timetables for specific actions.

The plans of two of the UK university libraries have very few recommendations for action. The plans do not assign responsibilities for appropriate actions. They mention only a few steps toward achieving goals. Steps towards improved co-operation have also been written about. The libraries, particularly UK1, would like to build on existing collaborative arrangements locally, by working with another institution in the same city. It hopes to co-ordinate collection and access policies and to co-operate on staff training initiatives. It does not go very far in explaining the steps to be followed and does not charge anyone with any responsibility to advance this recommendation.

For UK2, UK3 and UK5 the plans show steps towards the attainment of goals. Some of the steps include undertaking continuous review of all services to users, consideration of working practices for their delivery, developing and sharing responsibility for services and for decisions throughout the staffing structure, senior library staff serving school-based library user-groups and ensuring adequate linkage between their deliberations and a preparing cost-benefit analysis of various approaches to handling operations. However, only the plans of UK2 and UK3 include timetables for completion of programmes and also provide some information for determining the success of programmes.

**Question 11**

Documentation- Does the plan include documentation to support recommendations?, e.g. cost estimates, growth projections, staffing requirements, etc. (Rating 1-4)

Library	Documentation supporting recommendations	Rating
UnivA	No documentation	1
Univ B	Adequate documentation	3
UnivC	No documentation	1
UnivD	Very little documentation	2
UK1	Very little documentation	2
UK2	Very little documentation	2
UK3	Very little documentation	2
UK4	No documentation	1
UK5	Very little documentation	2

Comprehensive documentation of trends, problems and alternative solutions is an essential element of effective planning. Types of documentation sought included growth projections for collections and clientele, effects of inflation on purchasing, costs of continuing current levels of service patterns, costs of computerisation and projected staffing requirements of continuing existing patterns and of implementing recommendations.

For the Ghanaian university libraries such demographic documentation is very necessary as a basis for future projections and to help update future plans because these are their first strategic plans.

The plans of UnivA and UnivD have no documentation. In the case of UnivA this is not surprising because the entire plan appears to be a list of budget estimates for automation of some library processes. It appears the library did not conduct a careful analysis of the library's problems and did not weigh options in selecting courses of action to recommend when planning goals and objectives were originally established. The plan of UnivC gives little information on student population projections but does not relate this to service provision. It fails to show costs of technology applications and corresponding staffing requirements. In contrast, the plan of UnivB has adequate documentation, providing enough information on the country's educational reform and linking this to projections in student numbers. It has statistics on the user population and relates these to expected- growth rates in library development. It discusses the effects of inflation on purchasing power, the increasing costs of maintaining current levels of staffing and changes in the volume and nature of library publications. It discusses the need for computerisation of almost all house keeping activities in order to cut down on repetitive duties and to manage large volumes of transactions.

In the UK university case study library plans, the libraries present little or no documentation. The plans of UK1, and UK2, for example, just provided some basic statistics on reader places and access to electronic information. The absence of documentation in the UK university plans could be explained by the availability of much demographic data in other non-planning documents. It would have been more appropriate for the plans to have made references to these other sources.

**Question 12**

Review - Does the plan include mechanisms for measuring progress toward achieving goals on regular basis? Does it provide formal periodical updates? (Rating 1-4)

Library	Review Mechanisms	Rating
UnivA	No evaluation mechanisms	1
Univ B	No evaluation mechanisms	1
UnivC	No evaluation mechanisms	1
UnivD	No evaluation mechanisms	1
UK1	Very few evaluation mechanisms	2
UK2	Adequate evaluation mechanisms	3
UK3	Adequate evaluation mechanisms	3
UK4	Adequate evaluation mechanisms	3
UK5	Adequate evaluation mechanisms	3

None of the plans of the university libraries in Ghana has recommendations for evaluating progress toward achieving the goals and objectives identified.. There is no provision for formal updating of plans. The plan of UK1 lacks a specific evaluation mechanism though mention is made of the development of a systematic programme of annual surveys of key user groups as a feedback mechanism; the UK1 plan fails to propose formal annual review of progress in other areas that are not directly user-dependant. In the rest of the plans, proposals for formal annual reviews of progress toward meeting specific planning programmes are made. Specific performance indicators are described and there are indications that the annual reviews will include assessments by external groups and in conformity with the needs of HEFCE quality assessment.

#### *Conclusions*

All the planning documents were prepared by professional librarians either, by the heads of libraries and their deputies or members of a committee comprised exclusively of professional librarians. In the UK, however, some of the libraries received inputs from the other members of staff after the first drafts had been prepared by the heads and their deputies. This manner of drawing-up strategic plans typifies a top down approach to strategy.

The reason behind the planning efforts was also unanimous as almost all the libraries had to draw-up their plans as an institutional requirement. The only other reason given by one of the UK libraries was that it was a self-initiated effort to improve efficiency and overall management. None of the planning documents were formally approved by any external body (not even the corporate administration).

The UK university library plans provided adequate mission statements and statements of goals and objectives while only one case study library in Ghana provided comprehensive information on mission, goals and objectives of their institutions. Two libraries in Ghana did not provide such statements. The absence of this suggests that the two libraries are not guided by any philosophy for their libraries' strategists and consequently fail to describe the values and priorities of their libraries.

Only two of the libraries (one in Ghana and one in the UK) provided historical information: this rather low number indicates a need for greater appreciation of the importance of the historical approach to resources, facilities or patterns of service on planning.

The analysis also reveals that only one UK case study provided adequate information on organisational structure in its plan. The rest provided very little or no information on organisational structure. Planning needs to take into account the tasks and responsibilities that are allocated to individuals and the ways that individuals are grouped together into various divisions. The structure helps to designate formal reporting relationships and also defines the number of levels in the hierarchy. It is difficult to assess if the libraries have the right type of structures for their intended strategies when no information on staffing structures have been provided.

Only one plan demonstrated some appreciation of the importance of incorporating an environmental analysis to a strategic plan. Environmental issues need to be treated as an important section of every strategic plan. Political, economic, social and technology issues need to be properly discussed and the strengths and weaknesses of the libraries in relation to these issues must be placed in perspective. Methods of environmental analysis must be included.

A wide range of library operations were discussed. Though collections were hardly discussed in the plans of the Ghanaian university libraries, they were discussed comprehensively in the plans of the UK university libraries. Automaton was discussed extensively in relation to collections; nearly all the plans of the UK university libraries recommended increased access to databases and networking. Automation also featured significantly in future service developments in all the plans in the Ghanaian case studies. They all recommended significant investments in efforts to apply IT to all library operations. The need for co-operation in collection management was strategically dealt with by some of the libraries, particularly some of the UK libraries. The development of automated systems in the libraries was treated as a strategic management problem that leads to the development of co-operative bibliographic utilities.

#### *Remarks*

Many of the plans failed to meet the requirements and criteria established by writers in management and library planning literature. The plan of UnivA can hardly be described as a strategic plan; the writers would need to understand the components of a library strategy if they are to produce an acceptable planning document. The plans of the other three Ghanaian university libraries, with the exception of that of UnivB, were not comprehensive enough. Improvements in the details and quality of mission statements, staffing structure and library issues such as collections, services, IT and financial management are desirable. The plan of UnivB, however, demonstrated a sophisticated awareness of the value of effective planning by the librarians, though issues such as staffing structure, recommendations for alternative actions and performance reviews will have to be dealt with more comprehensively than presented in the plan.

The contrast between the planning documents of the Ghanaian university libraries and the UK university libraries was not as dramatic as one might have expected. The UK university library plans were also not comprehensive enough though the general quality of issues presented was of high standard. Overall, the UK university libraries appear to provide more services than they presented in their strategic plans. This suggests that some of the libraries do not use their plans. Their plans, however, have to include environmental analysis and must be comprehensive. They must be well documented incorporating all or most of the elements of effective planning described in management literature.

# APPENDIX G

## CODING SHEET FOR QUESTIONNAIRE ON FACTORS AFFECTING THE STRATEGIC PLANNING PROCESS

IDENTIFIER-Number of the case study institution

QUESTION	RESPONSE	CODE
<b>1</b>	yes	1
	no	2
	don't know	3
	no response	9
<b>2</b>	I have not read the entire document	1
	I have read the parts that apply to my section	2
	I have looked through the document briefly	3
	I have not seen the document	4
	none of the above	5
	response	9
<b>3</b>	yes	1
	no	2
	no response	9
<b>4</b>	For each response a-g	
	yes	1
	no	2
<b>5</b>	For each response a-h	
	yes	1
	no	2
<b>6</b>	strongly disagree	1
	disagree	2
	uncertain	3
<b>7-13</b>	agree	4
	strongly agree	5
	no response	9
<b>14-16</b>	Repeat coding of number 6	
	For each response a-f	
	yes	1
	no	2
	no response	9

<b>17</b>	For each response a-g	
	very significant	1
	significant	2
	quite significant	3
	not at all significant	4
<b>18</b>	no response	9
	very adequate	1
	adequate	2
	uncertain	5
	inadequate	3
	extremely inadequate	4
<b>19</b>	no response	9
	highly favourable	1
	favourable	2
	unfavourable	3
	highly unfavourable	4
<b>20</b>	no response	9
	highly unstable	1
	unstable	2
	stable	3
	highly stable	4
<b>21</b>	no response	9
	yes	1
	no	2
	don't know	3
<b>22</b>	no response	9
	For each response a-f	
	yes	1
<b>24</b>	no	2
	no response	9
	For each response a-h	
<b>25</b>	yes	1
	no	2
	no response	9
	a great deal	1
	sometimes	2
	never	3
	no response	9

<b>26</b>	For each response a-f	
	yes	1
	no	2
	no response	9
<b>27</b>	For each response a-g	
	yes	1
	no	2
	no response	9
<b>30</b>	male	1
	female	2
	no response	9
<b>32</b>	senior members	1
	para-professionals	2
	non-professionals	3
	other	5
	no response	9



## APPENDIX H

**FIGURE 7.1 MISSION/GOAL STATEMENTS PRIORITISED BY MAJOR STAKEHOLDER CATEGORY**

Priority Index	Abbreviated Statement	STAKEHOLDERS				
		University staff not librarian N=44		Library staff N=17		Total N=61
		no.	%	no.	%	no. %
Very high priority	Information provision	17	27.9	14	22.9	31 (50.8%)
Very high priority	Providing the right environment for learning	24	39.3	0	0.0	24 (39.3%)
Very high priority	Promoting campus wide access to information resources	3	4.9	4	6.6	7 (11.5%)
Very high priority	To assist in education and acquisition of knowledge	3	4.9	4	6.6	7 (11.5%)
Very high priority	Taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources	0	0.0	1	1.6	1 (1.6%)
Very high priority	Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	2	3.3	0	0.0	2 (3.3%)
Very high priority	Document supply	0	0.0	1	1.6	1 (1.6%)

High Priority	To assist in education and acquisition of knowledge	8	13.1	13	21.3	21 (34.4%)
High Priority	Inf. provision	15	24.6	3	4.9	18(29.5%)
High Priority	Providing the right environment for learning	14	22.9	4	6.6	18(29.5%)
High Priority	Promoting campus wide access to information resources	5	8.2	8	13.1	13 (21.3%)
High Priority	Taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources	0	0.0	9	14.8	9 (14.8)
High Priority	Document supply	2	3.3	5	8.2	7 (11.5%)
High Priority	Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	2	3.3	5	8.2	7 (11.5%)
High Priority	Provision of entertainment facilities	2	3.3	0	0.0	2 (3.3%)

Important	Promoting campus wide access to information resources	14	22.9	4	6.6	18 (29.5%)
Important	Providing the right environment for learning	5	8.2	11	18.0	16 (26.2%)
Important	Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	4	6.6	11	18.0	15 (24.6%)
Important	Document supply	3	4.9	11	18.0	14 (26.2%)
Important	Taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources	2	3.3	7	11.5	9 (14.8%)
Important	To assist in education and acquisition of knowledge	8	13.1	0	0.0	8 (13.1%)
Important	Information provision	6	9.8	0	0.0	6 (9.8%)
Important	Provision of entertainment facilities	2	3.3	0	0.0	2(3.3%)

Marginal	To assist in education and acquisition of knowledge	24	39.3	0	0.0	24 (39.3%)
Marginal	Taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources	20	32.8	0	0.0	20 (32.8%)
Marginal	Promoting campus wide access to information resources	17	27.9	1	1.6	18 (29.5%)
Marginal	Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	15	24.6	1	1.6	16 (26.2%)
Marginal	Document supply	16	26.2	0	0.0	16 (26.2%)
Marginal	Provision of entertainment facilities	5	8.2	5	8.2	10 (16.4%)
Marginal	Information. provision	3	4.9	0	0.0	3 (4.9%)
Marginal	Providing the right environment for learning	1	1.6	2	3.3	3 (4.9%)

Least important	Provision of entertainment facilities	35	57.3	12	19.7	47 (77.0%)
Least important	Document supply	23	37.7	0	0.0	23 (37.7%)
Least important	Taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources	22	36.1	0	0.0	22 (36.1%)
Least important	Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	21	34.4	0	0.0	21 (34.4%)
Least important	Promoting campus wide access to information resources	5	8.2	0	0.0	5 (8.2%)
Least important	Information provision	3	4.9	0	0.0	3 (4.9%)
Least important	To assist in education and acquisition of knowledge	1	1.6	0	0.0	1 (1.6%)

**Figure 7.1** Mission/Goal statements prioritised by stakeholder category

**FIGURE 7.2 RESPONSES ON AGREEMENT WITH MANAGEMENT ON MISSION STATEMENTS BY UNIVERSITY LIBRARY**

Mission statement	UNIVERSITY LIBRARY					
	UnivA		UnivB		UnivC	
	Agree no. %	Do not agree no. %	Agree no. %	Do not agree no. %	Agree no. %	Do not agree no. %
Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	23 25.84	12 13.48	18 20.22	4 4.49	10 11.24	4 4.49
Document supply	19 21.35	16 17.98	13 14.61	9 10.11	6 6.74	8 8.99
To assist in education and acquisition of knowledge	27 30.34	8 8.99	12 13.48	10 11.24	9 10.11	5 5.62
Provision of entertainment facilities	8 8.99	27 30.34	0 0.00	22 24.72	0 0.00	14 15.73
Inf. provision	33 37.08	2 2.25	20 22.47	2 2.25	13 14.61	1 1.12
Taking a leading	19 21.35	16 17.98	12 13.48	10 11.24	5 5.62	9 10.11

role in national and international library and information resources						
Providing the right environment for learning	27 30.34	8 8.99	14 15.73	8 8.99	8 8.99	6 6.74
Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	25 28.09	10 11.24	16 17.78	6 6.74	12 13.48	2 2.25

	UNIVERSITY LIBRARY				Total no. %
	UnivD		UnivE		
	Agree no. %	Do not agree no. %	Agree no. %	Do not agree no. %	
Mission statement					
Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	6 6.74	5 5.62	5 5.62	2 2.25	89 100
Document supply	3 3.37	8 8.99	2 2.25	5 5.62	89 100
To assist in education and acquisition of knowledge	6 6.74	5 5.62	4 4.49	3 3.37	89 100
Provision of entertainment facilities	2 2.25	9 10.11	1 1.12	6 6.74	89 100
Inf. provision	10 11.24	1 1.12	7 7.87	0 0.00	89 100
Taking a leading role in national and international library and information resources	4 4.49	7 7.87	4 4.49	3 3.37	89 100
Providing the right environment for learning	9 10.11	2 2.25	7 7.87	0 0.00	89 100
Training of the academic community in the skills of information retrieval and management	6 6.74	5 5.62	5 5.62	2 2.25	89 100

**Figure 7.2** Responses on agreement with management on mission statements by university library.