

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

FACTORS AFFECTING ATTRITION AND RETENTION OF PUBLIC BASIC SCHOOL TEACHERS IN THE SOUTH DAYI DISTRICT OF GHANA



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UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

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SCHOOL TEACHERS IN THE SOUTH DAYI DISTRICT OF GHANA**



**A THESIS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION, FACULTY OF
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DEGREE OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY IN BASIC EDUCATION OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA.**

JANUARY, 2016

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

EPHRAIM KIRKSON LUMOR

DATE

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Supervisor's Declaration

This thesis has been read and approved as meeting the requirements of the school of research and graduate studies, University of Education, Winneba.

DOMINIC DANSO MENSAH (PhD)

DATE

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my adorable wife, Mrs. Irene Akorfa Agbemeseli-Lumor and son, Caleb Elnathan Yesutor Lumor and my father, the late Rev. M.K Lumor. To my wonderful in-laws (Mr. Marshall Agbemeseli & Mrs. Lucy Selormey-Agbemeseli) for their love, patience, and sacrifices and support both physically and spiritually. I also dedicate this thesis to my erudite mentors Bishop Dr. David Olanyi Oyedepo, and the late Dr. Myles Munroe.

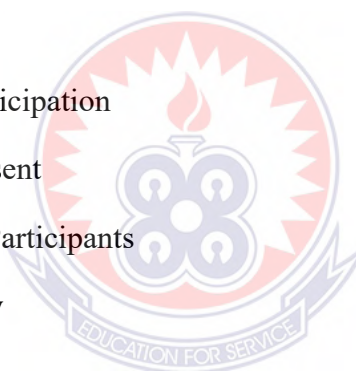


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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to investigate factors associated with the rate of teacher attrition in public Basic Schools in the South Dayi District. The study further sought to explore mechanisms put in place by stakeholders to help retain public Basic School teachers in the district. A mixed method concurrent triangulation research design was used in the conduct of this study. The study was guided by four research questions. Data for the study were collected through two methods: a survey structured questionnaire that was administered to 285 sampled teacher participants of public basic schools, and a semi-structured interview was administered to five educational office workers and five teachers in the South Dayi District. To analyze the quantitative data, descriptive statistics (means, percentage, and standard deviations) were used to explore the state of attrition and inferential statistics (Pearson product-moment correlation and independent samples t-test) were applied to examine the relation between attrition and quality of education as well as the difference between attrition and teachers' marital status. Qualitative analysis was applied to thematically interpret the data obtained from the semi-structured interviews with education office workers and teacher participants. The result of the study indicated that the most important factors associated with teacher attrition are: Socio-economic, Managerial, and Interpersonal factors. Finally, the study established that retention mechanisms such as: available opportunities for personal and professional development, leadership styles which empower teachers to participate in decision making process, and appealing relationship with fellow teachers on staff, and lastly, reasonable teaching workload were crucial in retaining teachers. The study recommends that teachers' salaries, incentives, management policies and teachers' professional status should be given an urgent attention.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The alarm for quality education, exceptionally in the developing nations is imperative because of the interdependence between education and productivity, between education and human capital development and between education and the demands of the labour market (Naidoo, 2006 cited in Ntim, 2013). It is for this reason that every member of a society needs some form of education. Education plays a vital role in the development of any nation and teachers are indispensable in this social function of the society.

Bame (1991) cited in Babel (2005) states that the role teachers play is very paramount and exclusive to the entire educational system of every country. As a result of this, anything which affects teachers has been, and continues to be of paramount interest to educational authorities, practitioners and researchers. Teachers are responsible for providing the individual learner with the fundamental knowledge, skills, values, attitudes and behavioural patterns necessary for the full development of his own potentialities and capabilities. Through this medium, the individual effectively participates in the development, advancement and improvement of the community in which he lives. Babel (2005:25) citing Drayer (1970) recognizes this fact and asserts that "classroom teachers are really the key to the quality of any educational system".

To Richey (1963) cited in Ackom (2004:43) "The future strength of any educational system depends upon the extent to which good teachers are recruited for and remain in the profession". Antwi (1992:119) also shares similar sentiments that "the solution to the

problem of quality in secondary school education in Ghana lies in educating and retaining qualified and dedicated teachers", and this assertion is applicable to basic education sector. Nacino-Brown, Oke, and Brown (1990:12) agree with the earlier writers and state that "The teacher is the king-pin of the educational situation, he makes or breaks the educational programmes". Aristotle has this to say "that those who educate children well are more to be honoured than they who produce them; for these only gave them life, those the art of living well' (Brainy Quotes, 2015). These various views by the renowned writers point to the crucial role that the classroom teacher plays in the achievement of quality education in this country.

Worth mentioning is that formal education in Ghana is dated way back in the late 18th Century, since the country's first contacts with the European merchants who brought the introduction of formal education in the Gold Coast, now Ghana. On their arrival, the European traders saw the need to have interpreters to help them in their mercantile interactions with the local people, thus the establishment of the Castle schools. McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh (1975) indicate that the Portuguese were the first to start providing formal education to the sons of European traders by their African wives, and some African boys in 1529. This was later followed by the following Missionaries: Basel, Catholics, Wesleyans and the Bremen in the early 19th Century. These missionaries also contributed to the expansion of formal education Antwi (1992). The problem of recruiting and retaining qualified teachers emerged with the introduction of formal education in the then Gold Coast. McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh (1975) note that the teacher shortage was so acute that Governor Major de Richelieu himself went to the classroom to teach in the then castle schools. These authors buttress that the problem of

shortage of qualified teachers escalated between 1913 and 1919. Between this period (1913-1919), there was a sizeable resignation of the more senior and experienced teachers. The reason assigned to this action was that salary and conditions of service were unattractive (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975). The flood resignation led to the formation of the Erzuah Committee. According to McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh (1975:91) the first recommendation made by the Erzuah committee to the government was:

On the general question of salaries, teachers should command salary scale higher than other persons with similar qualifications, experience and ability in other walks of life. We are aware that such high recognition as we propose is not accorded to teachers in most other countries, but we believe that it is necessary if this country is to develop rapidly and achieve its place among the nations.

The resultant effect of the Erzuah Report was the increment of salaries for Certificate A and B teachers respectively, as well as pupil teachers who had a few years of teaching experience, were raised. Responsibility allowances were also paid to head teachers, Bambel (2005) citing Mc William and Kwamena-Poh (1975).

Following this development, was the institution of the first Ghanaian political party into power, the CPP (Convention People's Party) in 1946; which saw Kojo Botsio as the country's first Minister of Education. Knowing well the role education plays in national development, the Minister reiterated Guggisberg's words that "Education is the keystone of a people's life and happiness". The new government's earliest proposals included the Accelerated Development Plan for Education. The initiative saw striking features such as

the rapid expansion of primary education, unified teaching service where all categories of teachers came under one umbrella with streamlined salaries, and there were no more government and nongovernment teachers (Mc William & Kwamena-Poh, 1975: 87).

Despite this major work done by the Erzuah Committee and the new government under CPP administration, the problem of teachers leaving the teaching service continued to plague the delivery of education in the country (Bambel, 2005). It is reported by McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh (1975: 97) that "between 1956 and 1960, nearly 3,000 teachers resigned to take up other jobs, and the annual loss from the teaching service by resignation was 8.7%". Following this shortfall in the number of teachers, the government, through the then Minister of Education, Dowuona-Hammond, again proclaimed salary increase for teachers. The issue was whether after this new salary structure, the number of qualified teachers increased significantly or otherwise. Bambel (2005) reports that in five years, whilst the number of pupil teachers went up by 165%, the proportion of trained teachers fell from 53% to 35%. The 18% proportional difference in the reduction of the trained teachers was a reflection of the abysmal situation of the profession then. McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, highlight that in January 1967, the government of Ghana again, set up a Commission on the Structure and Remuneration of the public services in Ghana, under the chairmanship of Justice G. C. Mills-Odoi.

The commission noticed the loss in the teaching service and remarked that "Even allowing for the possibility that a number of teachers resign to take up appointments in private schools, these figures reveal an appalling wastage of extensive investment in specialized education". The commission suggested that something had to be done to induce teachers to remain in the teaching profession. The main draft of Commission

according to McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh was upward review of salary for all categories of teachers. This stride by the government, was to alleviate the rate of attrition of teachers and to beef-up retention in the teaching service in 1969. Antwi (1992) confirms that following the Mills-Odoi Commission review of salary structure, there was an implementation of the commission's report in 1969 and this culminated in improved financial and job prospects for teachers. From the time of the implementation of the report of Mills-Odoi Commission, many salary review committees and commissions were inaugurated and several attempts have been made to raise the salary level of teachers in the public sector but the problem of teachers leaving the teaching service continues to linger on (Bambel, 2005:6). There were major efforts by successive governments to address the salary disparities, and the poor conditions of service that existed in the public service. Following the Mills-Odoi Commission, were the emergence of: Issifu Ali Committee- 1973; Azu Crabbe commission- 1979; The National Committee for Wage and Salary Rationalization-1983; The Gyampoh Salary Commission-1992; Ghana Universal Salary Structure (GUSS) – 1997, instituted with the specific aim of resolving the deepening inequities in pay within and across the public sector; and finally, the Single Spine Pay Policy (SSPP), equity and fairness salary structure, instituted recently in 2009.

Considering these numerous attempts to arrest employee attrition, specifically teachers, one still wonders why teachers continually leave the teaching service for other jobs while many benefits accrue to the teacher of Ghana Education Service such as study leave with pay for teachers who accept posting to deprived areas and the retention premium introduced under the Single Spine Pay Policy for teachers. These initiatives and efforts by

the government were to attract and retain teachers in the service and to improve the quality of education, nonetheless the desired result is however, still not attained.

The issue of lack of teachers in the classrooms and schools in Ghana was revisited by the Anamuah-Mensah Commission on Education Review (2002). The commission attributed the falling standards of education in the country to lack of teachers in most rural schools and the declining prestige in the teaching profession. It was realized that about 652 schools located in various parts of the country had been identified as having no teachers. The identified reasons were: teachers are poorly motivated and suffer from chronic prestige, deprivation, though teachers are expected to develop children as the future leaders of the country (Anamuah-Mensah, 2002:1).

Professor Kobina Yankson notes in his 45th National Conference of the Principals of Teacher Training Colleges (PRINCOP) address that there were vacancies for 43,876 qualified teachers. This was reported in the Daily Graphic on 25th September, 2003. He adds that "the shortage of qualified teachers, coupled with the absence of motivation has contributed to the falling standard of education in first and second cycle schools" (p. 1). Within this spectrum of challenges facing education, he enunciated teacher shortage, which is largely associated with low rate of teacher training and high level of teacher attrition, as some of the most intractable problems facing the education system in Ghana.

The draft report of a survey commissioned by the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) and the Teachers and Educational Workers Union (TEWU) in 2009, revealed that the Ghana Education Service (GES) estimates that about 10,000 teachers leave the classroom every year for various reasons. This has culminated to over 33,000 of the nation's teachers have left the profession in recent years discouraged by low salaries,

large class sizes, and poor infrastructure, and rural community schools have been the most affected. Apparently, in our quest to become a middle income nation by 2015, fully achieve the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (fCUBE), Education for All (EFA), and also to eradicate poverty, it is important and indispensable that the human resources in both urban and rural areas is properly trained and managed through quality education.

It is imperative to mention that these goals cannot be achieved without keeping properly trained, goodwill, well-motivated, efficient and effective teachers who would constitute a valuable human resource base for such an agenda. It is in this assertion that the researcher sought to investigate factors affecting attrition and retention of basic school teachers in the teaching profession.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In an era of increasing pressure and demands on teachers, the principal factors that determine whether a teacher remains in the profession or leaves is worthy of investigation. Teacher attrition continues to be an increasing problem for school systems across the nation (Ntim, 2013). There is no doubt that improving the quality of education requires the recruitment of more and better trained teachers, and instituting measures of retaining them. About half of all teacher attrition is due to teachers seeking better career opportunities with more satisfaction and higher salaries (Adams & Dial, 1994; Boe, Bobbitt, Cook & Whitener, 2008; Shen, 1997). This rapid attrition is known in the educational community as the “revolving door” (Ingersoll, 2001).

What even exacerbates the situation is the inverse relationship between students’ enrolment and teacher retention. While students’ enrolment is increasing, the number of

teachers in the profession continues to deplete. For example, it is estimated that preprimary pupil/teacher ratios (PTRs) are high in Sub-Saharan Africa, PTR was above 31:1 on average in 2005 and it has increased since 1999 (UNESCO, 2013). In Ghana specifically, pupil-teacher ratio is alarming. The PTR was 32.98 in 2012 and the highest value over the past 38 years was 35.39 in 2006 (UNESCO, 2013). There has been a considerable access to education in recent years, the justification for the hike in enrolment figures. The Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2006-2011 report showed that the number of out-of-school children, aged 6 to 11 fell by 46% from 513,000 in 2006 to 278,000 in 2011. In percentage wise, access to Kindergarten education increased from 92.9 in 2008/2009 academic year to 113.8 in 2012/2013 academic year. At the Primary level, it elevated from 94.9 to 105.0 in 2009, and at the JHS level, it swelled from 80.6 in 2009 to 82.2 in 2013 (Education Sector Performance Report, 2013). These surging figures in the access of education are indications of pressures mounting on teachers.

However, Ntim (2013:274) annotates that “we have a situation where either the supply of teachers grew, but not enough to commensurate with the large increase in enrolments in countries like Ghana”. The shortage of teachers observed in many countries on the continent of Africa such as Ghana, is compounded by a low percentage of trained teachers. The shortage of trained teachers worsened between 1999 and 2005. Regardless the significant stride in primary enrolment growth on the average from 57% to 70% in the Sub-Saharan regions, teacher production growth was less than 25% (UNESCO, 2008). The dichotomy between the above figures is a mismatch between pupils’ enrolment and teacher production, and retention. According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2009), a global total of 10.3 million teachers have to be recruited between 2007 and

2015. Looking at classrooms in 96 countries, between 2007 and 2015 at least 1.9 million more teachers will be needed to provide Universal Primary Education of good quality (Pitsoe, 2013). UNESCO (2000) notes that the fulfillment of the Education for All commitment shows that sub-Saharan Africa countries have by far the greatest need for additional teacher recruitment.

In Ghana, it is estimated that basic education sector alone needs fifteen thousand (15,000) teachers annually to fill vacancies (Anamuah-Mensah & Benneh, 2006). On the contrary, the thirty-eight (38) public Teacher Training Institutions at any given year supply an average of eight thousand five hundred (8,500) teachers (Ntim, 2013). This means, there is a shortage of 6,500 teachers to fill these vacancies. This is a reflection of demand exceeding supply and could pose a grappling economic and educational hurdles to the nation's educational system. Despite this insufficient supply, though it is difficult to estimate the exact figures, teacher attrition persists to be on the increase (Mereku, 2000). In a joint survey conducted by the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) and the Teachers of Education Workers Union (TEWU) in 2009, ninety percent (90%) of teachers interviewed have plans for further studies and this exacerbates the rate of attrition. Meanwhile, most of these teachers who leave for further studies do not come back, only a few returned to the service. For instance, in 1999, 5,918 teachers left for further studies only 2,581 returned for posting, representing 56.387% loss of teachers in the service. In the year 2000, 9,814 left and only 2,527 returned, a 74.25% loss. In 2001, 6,033 were granted and 4,602 returned, a loss of 23.72%. 6,085 left in 2002, and 2,888 returned, representing 52.54% loss. 5000 teachers left in 2003 and 4,870 returned for

reposting, a 2.6% loss (MOESS, 2005). Analyzing the trend, the highest loss was recorded in the year 2000. This trend highlights how teacher attrition continues to plague the educational sector.

However, the situation is not different in the South Dayi District. There is an attrition of teachers in the district. Records show that in a five academic year intervals, that is between 2009/2010 to 2013/2014 academic years, three hundred and sixty-one (361) teachers were posted to the district and three hundred and five (305) left in the same year interval for various reasons. The table below throws more light on the situation in the South Dayi District.

Table 1.1 Number of teachers posted and those who left between the years 2009 to 2013.

Year	Posted	Transferred	Further Studies	Retirement	Others	Total
2009	78	29	11	15	-	55
2010	74	23	12	25	-	60
2011	90	34	16	27	-	77
2012	50	9	10	30	1	50
2013	69	24	12	25	2	63
Total	361	119	61	122	3	305

Source: South Dayi District Directorate – SDDD, 2014

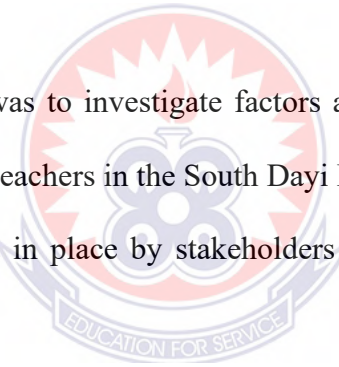
Precisely from the table, one hundred and nineteen (119), forming 39.0%% were transferred from the district, sixty-one (61), representing 20% were on further studies, one hundred and twenty-two (122), 40% retired from the service, and three (3), representing 0.98% left the profession entirely. The total number of teachers who were in active service but left the district in relation to transfer, further studies and leaving entirely was 183, approximately representing 60% (59.98) and 40% retired from the service. Inferring from the table one (1), the rate at which teachers are leaving the district

is very alarming, and this could have negative repercussions on the quality of education in the district.

In the light of this, what bothers the mind of the researcher was what factors actually propel teachers to leave the district, how their abrasion influence quality of education and what factors can help retain teachers who agree to teach in the district? Finding answers to the questions that border on attrition and retention of basic school teachers in the district, and how these influence the quality of education has become the concern for the researcher.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate factors associated with the rate of attrition among public basic school teachers in the South Dayi District. It further sought to explore mechanisms have been put in place by stakeholders to help retain public basic school teachers in the district.



1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study sought to:

1. Investigate the factors affecting teacher attrition in the South Dayi District.
2. Identify solutions that can help retain basic school teachers in the South Dayi District.
3. Examine how teacher attrition influences the quality of education in the South Dayi District.
4. Identify how retention support systems can be improved in the South Dayi District.

1.5 Research Questions

The following questions sought to guide the conduct of this study

1. What factors are responsible for teacher attrition in the South Dayi District?
2. What solutions exist for retaining teachers in the South Dayi District?
3. What are the influences of teacher attrition on the quality of education in the South Dayi District?
4. How can the retention support systems be improved in the South Dayi District?

1.6 Hypothesis

The main hypotheses tested were:

H_0 There will be no significant relationship between teacher attrition and quality of education in the south Dayi District.

H_1 There will be a significant relationship between teacher attrition and quality of education in the south Dayi District.

H_0 There will be no significant difference between teachers' marital status and attrition.

H_2 There will be a significant difference between teachers' marital status and attrition.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The study is important because in recent years, according to (Barney & Wright 1998; Holland, Sheehan & Cieri 2007) attraction and retention of employees have become an

increasingly significant aspect of building organizational capabilities, in view of ensuring sustained competitiveness. In the light of this, it will assist school leaders in defining what causes teachers to leave their job and thereby help them in identifying strategies to encourage and retain teachers in the schools they are posted to. Maintaining teachers who are capable in their positions build sustainability in schools. Such sustainability will most likely, as research has shown (Sabbagh & Megbali, 2008; Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2007; Han, 1994) lead to a safer and more secure student environment which helps raise their achievements. In addition, this study is significant since it highlights the importance of schools retaining their manpower (Teachers) because failing to do so, will result in high attrition costs incurred by organizations (Ghana Education Service) in recruiting and training new employees (Laudon & Laudon, 2011).

Furthermore, insights from this study will help educational management teams to consider innovative ways of retaining teachers within their sections. The retention of teachers should be a strategic priority, since according to Simmons (2002), it is difficult to replace the knowledge, skills and experience of quality teachers because their skills are acquired over a long period of time and are accompanied by extensive experience.

The findings of this study will be applicable to all educational institutions that might find themselves grappling with attraction and retention issues. Policy-makers will also benefit from suggestions presented in this study so that they can contribute meaningfully towards stabilizing the issue of high staff attrition in educational institutions.

Finally, the study will identify and notify other areas for research related to teacher attrition, motivation and retention.

1.8 Delimitation

The study is delimited to South Dayi District and does not cover teachers in all basic schools in the Volta Region. Its focused attention, was on factors affecting attrition and retention of teachers in public basic schools only, and the influence attrition has on quality of education in the South Dayi District. Since the study is restricted to South Dayi District, the findings would be generalized to only that district.

1.9. Brief Description of the Study Area

The South Dayi District is one of the twenty-five Administrative Districts of the Volta Region. It was established in the year 2004 under the legislative instrument (LI 1753) from the then Kpando District. It was inaugurated on 19th August 2004. The South Dayi District lies within latitudes 3020'N and 3.5005'N and on longitude 0017 and 0027'E. Its Administrative Capital is Kpeve which is located about forty kilometers (40km) from the Regional Capital – Ho. The district covers a total land area of 358.3 square kilometers, which is 1.7 percent of the total land area of the Volta Region. It is bounded by the North Dayi and Afadjato South Districts, in the West by Ho West District, in the East by Asuogyama District and in the South by the Volta Lake. It has a total population of 51,509 people. The main forms of occupation in the district are farming, trading and fishing. Trading is the predominant occupation. The district is strategically located, linking four major roads, Ho the Regional Capital, Hohoe, Kpando and Accra. This makes the district capital an ideal place for trading.

It is also located about two Kilometers from the Volta Lake. It therefore attracts migrants other than indigenes to undertake fish farming and fishing. Farming is carried mostly at

the suburb towns predominantly on subsistence basis. The district has ninety two (92) basic schools. Sixty (60) are public schools and thirty two (32) are private schools. There are six (6) circuits with a total enrolment of eight thousand six hundred and twenty four pupils (8,624).

(Source: South Dayi District Assembly (SDDA) and SDDD, 2014.)

1.10 Operational Definition of Terms

Motivation: Any reward or incentive, given to a teacher working to influence positively his/her behaviour and performance at work. It includes energizing or causing people to act, and directing a behaviour towards the attainment of specific goals.

Retention: A term that represents a method of maintaining teachers within the schools in a teaching area or the field of education using innovative retention programmes.

Attrition: The collective term referring to teachers leaving their current schools, teaching district and the teaching service. It encompasses leaving the employment, teaching area transfer that is, switching or migrating from one teaching area to another, be it voluntary or involuntary transfers. It also includes all teachers who leave the classroom and do not continue teaching, whether for short or long periods of time such as further studies or whatever the reason behind it might be. In this definition, even those teachers who are promoted to a higher position in a school (away from

teaching), such as principals, district education schedule officers, circuit supervisors, are considered part of the teacher attrition populace.

Basic School Teachers: Individuals, professionals and non-professionals who are engaged to impart knowledge in a recognized discipline(s) in the basic schools. They are classroom practitioners, the ones who translate educational philosophy and objectives into knowledge and skills.

Quality of Education: The stability of quality human resources of the school (teachers) devoid of out-of-field teaching, breaking staff cohesion and recruitment cost, to provide healthy, safe, protective, gender sensitive, child-centered and cooperative environment to enhance students learning for quality outcomes; and translating these outcomes into personal, social and national benefits.

1.11 Organization of the rest of the Study

The rest of the chapters are organized as follows: Chapter Two dwells on the review of relevant literature related to the study; Chapter Three focused on the Methodology which includes the population, sampling and sample size, instruments for data collection and the procedures used in data analysis; Chapter Four dealt with data presentation, analysis and discussion of findings; and finally, Chapter Five highlights the summary, conclusion and recommendations for further studies.

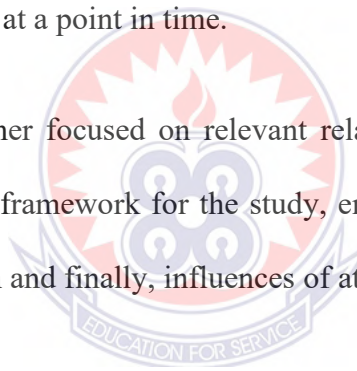
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

The aim of literature review is to place the study into scholarly context by reviewing the main contributions made by researchers with regards to teacher attrition and its impact, motivation and retention. Neuman (2000) identifies six main types of literature review two of which are of importance to the study include: Theoretical reviews which compare how different theories address an issue and empirical or integrative reviews which summarize what is known at a point in time.

In this study, the researcher focused on relevant related literature under the following headings: the theoretical framework for the study, empirical evidence/review of causes and strategies for retention and finally, influences of attrition on quality of education.



2.2. Theoretical Framework

The theories providing a framework to this study are Khatri, Budhwar and Fern's Employee Turnover Model, Grissmer and Kirby's Attrition Model, The Appeal Theory, The Human Capital Theory.

Khatri, Budhwar and Fern's study of employee turnover (1999) employs a model that posits three groups of factors influencing employee turnover, namely, demographic, uncontrollable and controllable factors. Demographic factors include age, gender, education, and tenure, and income level, managerial and non-managerial positions. Uncontrollable factors are the perceived alternative employment opportunity and job-

hopping. Controllable factors include pay, nature of work, supervision, organizational commitment, distributive justice and procedural justice (Institute of Management, 1999, Special Reports, 1999). The theory is relevant to this study because it explains why a teacher will stay or leave the teaching profession.

Ingersoll (2001a) cited in Ntim (2013) draws from theories advocating teacher turnover as a function of ageing and increasing student numbers. He postulates that teacher turnover can be understood by examining the school organizational characteristics and conditions. His exposition asserts that improvement in organizational conditions such as salaries, increased support from the school administration, reduction of student discipline problems and enhanced teacher input in decision-making would all contribute to lower rates of teacher turnover. The foregoing theoretical exposition of factors influencing turnover seem to confirm school organizational factors as being critical in teacher turnover. These factors include the teaching job itself, supervision, incentives and rewards, which relate to compensation and recognition, career development, advancement and employment, security, poor job performance, which relates to lack of skills, low motivation, bad performance and lack of resources (Ntim, 2013) citing (Jackson & Schuler, 2000: 280).

Grissmer and Kirby's (1987) teacher attrition model identifies voluntary and involuntary attrition decisions. They opine that voluntary attrition decisions include (a) degree of occupation, location, and organization-specific human capital; (b) informed nature of original job commitment and job search; (c) previous work and teaching experience; (d) Changes in marital status, family composition, and location after employment; (e) salary

and working conditions; and (f) job characteristics and wage and employment opportunities inside and outside of teaching. The involuntary attrition decisions include (a) performance expectations of the school district, (b) teacher layoffs, (c) mandatory retirement rules, and (d) illness and death. To them, patterns of attrition will vary based upon a teacher's career stage and life cycle. Grissmer and Kirby's model notes that, teacher attrition patterns follow a U-shaped curve over the life cycle. Attrition possibilities tend to be high for younger teachers, low for middle-aged teachers, and high again for teachers nearing retirement. These theories are relevant to the study because they explain why teachers leave or maintain teaching as a profession.

2.2.1. The Appeals Theory

Lortie (1975) cited in Alkaabi (2005) argues that in teaching there are certain intrinsic and fundamental appeals to teaching that attract people to work as teachers. He theorizes that when these “appeals” do not exist, teacher attrition occurs. King (1993) also asserted in a study of African American teachers that there are some luring factors in teaching. Lortie opines that teaching is special, and it has some exceptional traits that make it appealing for some people to choose as their profession. It was revealed that teaching as a career offers “opportunities for services and for personal satisfaction which are equaled by very few professions” (Gould & Yoakam, 1947 quoted in Lester, 1986:7). The reasons for leaving teaching are closely related to the original decision to become a teacher. Researchers such as Lortie (1975), in investigating what seems to lure people to teaching, have discovered some reasons for making this choice of profession. Lortie referred to these reasons as “appeals”. The “appeals” include:

Interpersonal appeal: this refers to individuals who wish to work with young people who are not ill or extremely disadvantaged. In this case, the individual may wish to take up teaching as a profession based on the joy of working with young people.

Service appeal: some teachers believe that teaching is not just a profession, but they see it as a special mission for their society. These teachers believe that they are doing a valuable service to their country, participating in “protecting” the culture of the society, and playing their role in helping mankind. This perception may appeal to an individual to take up teaching as a profession.

Continuation appeal: Lortie (1975) cited in Al Kaabi (2005) notes that some people enjoy the environment of the school and they choose to remain in the environment they like.

Relating to material appeal, Lortie exposed that some people are attracted by the unique features that teaching offers, compared to other professions, such as working hours and period of the school year (e.g., no school in the summer). These are considered material

benefits that attract some people to teaching. Socioeconomic appeal: Lortie cogitates that the socio-economic constraints make teachers' college economically accessible for many, thereby increasing the number of teachers. “Safety net” appeal: this appeal makes the teaching profession to be as a plausible choice without loss of status for those who cannot access a preferred line of profession. Second career appeal: this talks of the teaching as a “back up” plan. Some individuals after working in another field, teaching appeals to some as a second career in which there always seems to be positions available.

King (1993) cited in Alkabi (2005:14) gave evidence that “there are significant initial luring factors for those teachers to select teaching as a profession. These luring factors are ordered (from highest to lowest) as follows: The opportunity to work with young

people, the feeling that their abilities are well suited to teaching, the belief that teaching contributes to the betterment of society , the feeling that teaching provided one with the opportunity to be creative, the perception that teaching provides the opportunity to work with students of diverse backgrounds and with diverse needs, the intellectual challenge that teaching provides and the desire for a long vacation”. As Lortie (1975) cited in (Al Kaabi, 2005:14) opined, “there are some special attractions in teaching that do not exist in other professions, and these attract some people to select teaching as a profession”

2.2.2. The Human Capital Theory

Kirby and Grissmer (1993:10) in the theory of occupational choice, advanced that individuals make logical assessments of the benefits and costs of entering and staying in a profession. They note that:

The fundamental tenet of the human capital theory of occupational choice is that individuals make systematic assessments of the net monetary and nonmonetary benefits from different occupations and make systematic decisions throughout their career to enter, stay or leave an occupation.

Monetary benefits include the stream of likely income in that profession, promotion opportunities, and value of benefits. Nonmonetary benefits include working conditions, support of peers and superiors, compatibility of hours and schedules with family and leisure needs, availability of adequate materials, learning attitudes of students, parental support” (Al Kaabi, 2005:17).

According to Al Kaabi (2005) the human capital theory ascribes meaning to the decisions of people whether to stay or to leave their profession. Inferring from the theory, younger teachers are more likely to leave, and attrition is more likely to occur early in the career

stage. The more twisted the beginning training and the longer one has held a position, the less likely one is to see leaving it as a plausible option. This is why a doctor, for example, is improbable to quit to become something else and why a teacher who remains in the classroom past the initial years is less likely to leave the profession with every additional year (Al Kaabi, 2005:17). In attempt to find meaning to the phenomenon of teacher attrition in most researches, the human capital theory has been extensively used. Essentially, this theory ascribes teacher attrition to economic decisions made by the teacher (Al Kaabi, 2005). The theory is relevant to this study because it explains why a teacher determines whether to stay or to leave drawing extensively on avenues that provide better for him economically.

2.3. Attrition defined

Grissmer and Kirby (1987) argue that there is “no single appropriate definition of teachers’ attrition. Indeed, one cannot define teacher attrition until one defines the policy or research context in which a particular definition will be used” (Grissmer & Kirby, quoted in Billingsley, 1993:138). Billingsley (1993) described two types of attrition. Transfer attrition includes those teachers who take transfer to other special education positions within or outside a particular school or district, as well as those who transfer to general education either in the same or a different school or district. He notes that in the former case, the transfer represents a loss to the school or district, but not to the field of special education. Conversely, exit attrition as he termed it, includes those who leave teaching altogether, those who retire, return to school, stay home with young children, or take non-teaching positions in education, for instance, counseling or administration. Boe, Bobbitt and Cook (1997:377) state “the most troublesome component of turnover is exit

attrition, because it represents a reduction in the teaching force, requiring a compensating inflow of replacement teachers”. Many researchers combine more than one of the categories identified in above in their study. Examples include Boe, Bobbitt, Cook, Whitener, and Weber (1997) and Miller, Brownell, and Smith (1999). These researchers included teachers who moved from one district to another as well as those who left teaching entirely in their studies. Ingersoll and May (2012) opine that research on teacher attrition focuses normally on teachers who stay in the profession but move to different schools, and/or on teachers who leave the profession altogether.

Kang and Berliner (2012) differentiate voluntary attrition which occurs when a teacher leaves his or her post willingly, while involuntary attrition occurs when the teacher is reassigned to a new school or leaves the profession because of circumstances beyond his or her control, such as a budget cut. Voluntary teacher attrition, according to Kang and Berliner (2012) is either avoidable or unavoidable and explain that avoidable teacher attrition is the negative consequence of factors like job dissatisfaction, which are within schools’ control. Nevertheless, literature note that “the general term “turnover” is used as an umbrella term to describe the departure of teachers from their teaching jobs” (Ingersoll, 2001:500). However, Johnson et. al. (2005) note that policy implications are different when large numbers of teachers leave their jobs for other teaching jobs as opposed to when they leave teaching profession altogether. However, researchers many a time, use the term attrition to refer to the phenomena of teachers leaving the profession and the term migration to describe the transfer of teachers from one school to another (Ingersoll, 2001:503) cited in Johnson et. al. (2005).

Following the assertions of (Grissmer and Kirby, 1987; Billingsley, 1993; Boe, Bobbitt, Cook, Whitener, & Weber, 1997; Miller, Brownell, & Smith, 1999; Ingersoll & May, 2012; Kang & Berliner, 201; Ingersoll, 2001; & Johnson et al., 2005) the researcher refer to attrition as the collective term referring to teachers leaving their current schools, teaching district and the teaching service. It encompasses leaving teaching employment, teaching area transfer that is, switching or migrating from one teaching area to another. It encompasses voluntary and involuntary transfers and retirements. It also includes all teachers who leave the classroom and do not continue teaching, whether for short or long periods of time such as further studies or whatever the reason behind it might be. In this definition, even those teachers who are promoted to a higher position in a school (away from teaching), such as principals, district education schedule officers, circuit supervisors, are considered part of the teacher attrition population. Based on this, the terms “turnover and attrition” was used interchangeably in the study.

2.4. Models of Teacher Attrition

Al Kaabi (2005) in his study of factors influencing teacher attrition in the United Arab Emirates, identified four models of teacher attrition. He named them as: Model 1- the three factor model which he also called Bellingsley model; Model 2- the four factor model; also known as the Human Capital Model propounded by Kirby and Grissmer; Model 3-the four major category model and Model 4, which he also named the multiple factor model.

This study looks more into model three: the Four Major Categories Model; drawing more extensively on monetary, social and work condition factors which reflect the factors affecting teacher attrition in the setting of this study.

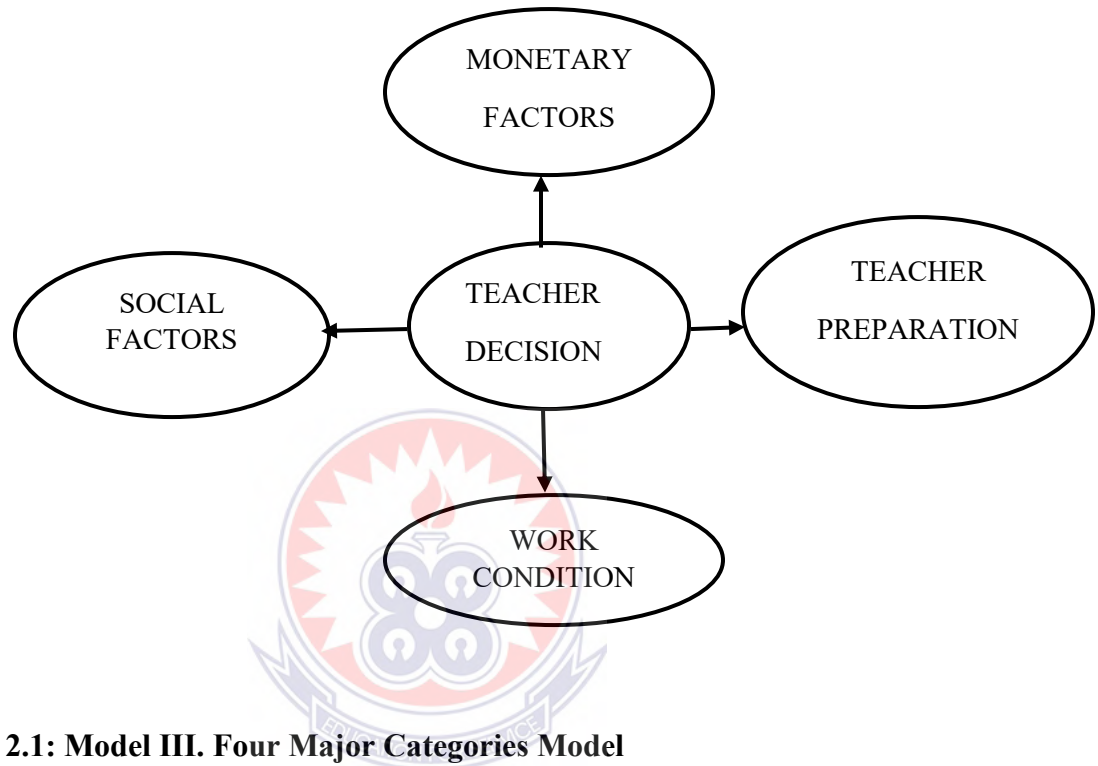


Figure. 2.1: Model III. Four Major Categories Model

Source: Al Kaabi (2005)

Literature of many studies identified issues pertaining to attrition among teachers. These studies Hargreaves, Cunningham, Hansen, McIntyre, and Oliver (2007) made many attempts to identify what pushes teachers to leave the teaching profession. Factors such as prestige, work load, work environment, wages among others are most notable in these studies as causing attrition. According to Al Kaabi (2005) these factors can be divided into four categories: monetary, work conditions, teacher preparation, and social factors.

These four categories include the factors found to be most important for teachers' decision to leave the profession, and many studies have so classified them.

2.4.1. Monetary Factor

Studies over the years have indicated that the issue of compensation can be considered as one of the most crucial factors that forces teachers to leave the profession. However, some researchers think that improving teachers' financial status could solve the problem of teacher attrition. One of such researchers is Darling-Hammond (2003).

Darling-Hammond (2003) provides the basis that there are four major factors which strongly influence whether teachers leave specific schools or the education profession utterly. These factors are: salaries, working conditions, preparations and mentoring support in the early years. Referring to salaries as one of the main factors that instigates teacher attrition, Darling-Hammond (2003) cited in (Al Kaabi, 2005:27) found that "teachers' salaries are about 20 percent below those of other professionals with comparable education and training". For instance, averagely, teacher's salary in 2001 was \$44,040 which is below other professions such as registered nurses and accountants (NCTAF, 2003) cited in (Al Kaabi, 2005:27). It was discovered that teachers are more likely to give up on their job when they work in sectors that offer meagre wages and when their salaries are low relative to alternative wage opportunities available, especially teachers in a high demand fields such as math and the sciences. Twenty-nine (29%) percent of the teachers in a study conducted by Ingersoll (2003) mentioned job dissatisfaction as a paramount reason for leaving the job. Probing further into the issue,

Ingersoll gave teachers the option of listing up to three reasons why they quit, more than three-fourths linked their quitting of the teaching profession to low salaries.

International Labour Organization (1991a:98) argues that low salaries “ may be the root causes of brain drain” in some less developed countries where salaries are too low to support a family and teachers feel it necessary to take a second job. Macdonald (1999) also argues that in developed countries such as the USA and Britain, 65 and 89 percent of teachers, respectively, cited pay as the primary motivation for leaving the profession. Theobald (1996) asserted the same finding in his study. It was reported that in the USA, all male teachers and more experienced female teachers’ decision to remain in teaching was most influenced by the comparison of teaching with non-teaching salaries.

Stinebrickner (2002) examined in his research the timing of exits from the teaching profession and the reasons for these exits. The study realized that there are many reasons why teachers are pushed to leave teaching, the most important is wages. It was validated that teaching is a profession that is “time consuming” and requires a fully committed person. When teachers compare the work they do with the money they receive, they are often coerced to rethink their decision to become teachers. Stinebrickner found that teachers with high wages were significantly less likely to change occupations than those who were less well-paid.

Participants in a similar study conducted by King (1993) shared the same viewpoint concerning salary issue. Al kaabi quoting King (1993:485) notes that one of the participants stated that the low salaries push teachers out of school: “I think minorities are not choosing teaching because many choose to work where they can support themselves. Teaching is rewarding, but garbage men and women start at \$31,000 ”.

The study of Kirby and Girissmer (1995) extensively followed teacher mobility for more than 20 years (1965 - 1987). They concluded that former teachers do not consider that increase in salary would make a difference in their decision to leave teaching. With regard to this discovery, Kirby and Grissmer interviewed a proportion of math and science teachers to ascertain the above assertion. Interestingly, when asked on factors that would encourage them to stay in the profession, over 50 percent of these teachers mentioned salary as the first factor.

Chapman (1994) made a case that increasing salaries is the “single most direct and effective way to reduce attrition”. The study of Murnane and Olsen (1989) braced Chapman’s argument. They concluded that beginning teachers who are paid more, stay in teaching longer. The exact same thing was found by Grits and Theobald (1996) that increasing salary was a very important factor in dissuading attrition. They draw a conclusion that an increase in salary of US \$3000 would reduce the attrition in a very obvious way. Macdonald (1999:843) declared that “monetary rewards and incentives to selected teachers on the basis of location, hardship, qualifications, specialist areas, performance and over time appear to be gaining acceptance in developed and less developed countries”. Thompson (1995) buttressed the finding of Macdonald. In Thompson’s study in Sierra Leone, findings showed the additional allowances paid to science and mathematics teachers proved hardly enough to retain those teachers in the profession. Metais (1991) came out with the same finding in England and Wales where the local authorities have claimed to successfully use monetary incentives for outstanding performance and those teaching in subjects where there are teacher shortages.

However, some researchers such as Macdonald do not see in the increased salary as the perfect solution to teacher attrition. Macdonald (1999:844) argues that “there is little evidence that increased salaries and monetary allowances alone can have a high and long-term impact on attrition”. In order to underpin this opinion, Eritrea was cited as an example. Government granted a 40 percent increase in allowances for teachers notwithstanding that teachers are still leaving the teaching profession. In a study conducted by Benham and O’Brien (2002) on why experienced teachers leave the profession, it was found that teachers who had already left the profession ranked the reasons in the following order, number 1 being the most important and number seven (7) the least important: (1) accountability, (2) increased paper work, (3) student attitudes, (4) no parent support, (5) unresponsive administration, (6) low status of the profession, (7) salary considerations. But those teachers who are still in the profession (potential leavers) ranked the reasons for leaving as follows: salary, increased paperwork, accountability, low status of the profession, unresponsive administration, student attitudes, no parent support. In Ghana, Bame (1991) found that both male and female Ghanaian teachers cited poor remuneration as the most compelling factor for leaving the teaching profession. This was confirmed by several other studies that teachers leave teaching as they are not satisfied with the salaries they receive (Cobbold, 2007; Aglomasa & Avoke, 2013) and this militate against teacher retention in public Senior High Schools (Sam, Effah, & Osei-Owusu, 2014). Benham and O’Brien (2002) concluded that the variance in the important factors between teachers who had left the profession and those who were still in it illustrates that salary is the most important factor for those currently in the profession.

2.4.2. Work Condition Factor

Darling-Hammond (2003:9) notes that “working conditions play a major role in teachers’ decisions to switch schools or leave the profession”. She found that the high attrition of teachers who work with students with low income or who are lower achieving appears to be influenced by the poorer working conditions. Teachers in high minority, low income schools are reported to have a significantly worse working conditions, including poorer facilities, less access to text books and supplies, less administrative support, and larger class sizes (Harris, 2002).

Ingersoll (2003) found that the 29 percent of the teachers who listed job satisfaction as a major reason for leaving, when placed under duress to be specific about their job satisfaction, enunciated the following reasons, which almost come under the heading of working conditions: student discipline problems, lack of support from the school administration, poor student motivation, and lack of teachers’ influence school wide and in the classroom. “In most countries, there is a strong sense that conditions within schooling and those shaping schooling have deteriorated and consequently are causing increasing levels of teachers’ dissatisfaction and stress, if not attrition” (Macdonald, 1999:839). ILO-UNESCO Joint Committee (1994) accounted on an international survey which divulged that 25 to 33 percent of teachers endure significantly stress and the report concluded that stress was a major issue for teachers’ attrition.

Pressures of increased accountability has been identified as a reason for teachers’ attrition. Increased accountability such as high stakes testing, testing preparations and defamations as their number-one reason for leaving the profession (Benham & O’Brien,

2002). The experience of an eight year teacher as quoted in (Huberman, 1993:6), throws more light. “I have too many hours, I have invested too much, I dream of a less difficult job that ends at the end of the day that does not give me the impression of having never finished”. This excerpt shows how accountability puts pressure on teachers.

Macdonald (1999:841) states that “The substandard conditions in which many teachers work, generally in less developed countries, affect attrition”. It includes classroom disrepair, poor sanitary facilities, lighting, and furniture. The findings of Huberman (1993) Oliveria and Farrell (1993) confirmed the assertion of Macdonald. They assert that schools need to improve the work conditions of teachers. Improving the physical, social and professional dimensions of teaching, together with enhancing teachers’ living standards and relationships with the community is laudable. They included issues that relate to women, such as a shorter work day and flexible work hours to accommodate other personal business.

Theobold (1995) and Huberman (1989) corroborate that work conditions cause frustration for beginning teachers, specifically such factors as student management, lesson planning, alienation, isolation, denigration of personal interest and dependence on outside opinion and observation. Working conditions affect a teacher’s decision to stay or leave the career King (1993). The participants in King’s (1993) study enumerated the following factors relating to “work condition” that make teaching not an attractive career. These include: disciplinary problems, fear, inadequate working conditions and materials, inadequate preparation time, and nonparticipation in decision making. Brownell (1995) stipulated that working conditions often hastens a peeved leaver’s decision to leave the special education classroom. Her findings revealed that teachers feel overwhelmed by

class size, student behavior, insufficient administration support, and a lack of personnel and material resources.

The aforementioned assertions are not less in evident Ghanaian context. Respondents in a study conducted by GNAT (2009) agreed that poor and non-implementation of conditions of service are among the major causes of teacher attrition in Ghana. Other studies in Ghana (Cobbold, 2006; Aglomasa & Avoke, 2013; Sam, Effah and Osei-Owusu, 2014) confirmed that poor conditions of service for teachers, is one and the most determining factor that militates against teacher retention in public schools in Ghana.

2.4.3. Social Factor

Among other factors, “the most important social factors that push teachers to leave teaching is social prestige” Stinebrickner (2002) cited in Al Kaabi (2005:33). Teachers’ perceptions of how they are regarded by people or peers outside the field of education that is, professional prestige, has a direct link with attrition. Tamakloe (1991) in finding out the image of teaching among secondary school students in Cape Coast, identified that teaching profession was ranked next to medical doctor in terms of importance but with regards to socio-economic status teachers were categorized as the poorest among eight occupations in their study. This implies that since teachers are generally poor they are not respected (Tamakloe, 1991). Aglomasa and Avoke, (2013:33) are of the view that “feelings regarding professional prestige are generally a direct result of teachers’ perceptions of how they are regarded by people outside the field of education”.

Marlow and Inman's (1997:3) findings show that social pressure pushes most begging teachers to leave teaching. They reported "that teachers who do not feel supported by the community are likely to become disillusioned with their chosen profession, they often feel pressure to improve in some undefined and sometimes unrealistic way, a feeling that can contribute to the decision to leave teaching".

Quoting Macdonald (1999:839) "the perceived decline in the status of teachers is of concern in most countries from the perspective of how teachers are seen by others as well as how they see themselves". It was noted that while teachers may have high expectations for themselves and their profession, the recognition for teachers' work by communities and governments is poor Chapman (1994). He further postulates that for some, teacher education is ladder to the university when few other opportunities for direct entrance exist. For instance, Al Kaabi (2005) mentioned that in India, the talented people who happens to join the profession by accident, quitted it at the first opportunity.

Thomson (1995) sees that in some countries, teaching is an alternative avenue and is abandoned when is needed elsewhere or conditions are right to use their skills. Marlow and Leslie (1997) find out that the reason why beginning teachers leave the profession has little to do with inadequate salaries but lack of professionalism, collegiality, and administrative support. These researchers discovered that professional prestige is one of the vital factors that pushes teachers, especially beginning teachers, to quit teaching and look for another job. It was indicated by about two-fifths of the respondents in the study that the lack of prestige was severe than they had expected.

Murphy (1993) in his opinion does not see teaching as having real professional status. To him, teachers do some jobs that make their work less prestigious than other jobs. Murphy

gave this as an example, they must schedule all breaks such as lunch and bathroom and they must sign in and out of the workplace. They also do not have access to the school building unless the children are there and must conduct buses, playground, hall, and lunchtime duty. Worse is that, only a few of them have private offices or access to telephones for private calls. These factors drastically denigrate the prestige of teachers. In a study of African-American teachers, King (1993) found that only just over 50 percent of the teachers felt respected as a teacher in today's society. A participant in King's study has this to say "in this society, teaching is not a respected field. The government does not value teachers, which makes the students not value them too. Therefore, minorities who are on the lower economic scale tend to seek or choose careers that are more respected, glamorous and richer" (King, 1993: 485)

2.5. Factors Affecting Teacher Attrition

Webb (1983) states that in the National Education Survey Association, survey of teachers indicate that factors and forces that have negative effect on their job are little opportunity for advancement in chosen profession; salaries not keeping up with inflation, status damaged by the decline in public confidence in education; negative students attitude towards learning. He stated further that, teachers were becoming increasingly estranged from their work. He further added that many feel they have given up an essential part of themselves to pursue a task that provide little professional recognition, profession that is not fulfilling their needs or tapping their potential and that the teaching profession is not providing individuals with financial and psychological support required to sustain them in their work. As a result, many teachers are leaving the profession.

However, in this study, the empirical review of literature on factors affecting teacher attrition include:

2.5.1. Socio – Economic Factors

The existing research investigating reasons for mobility-related turnover conclude that teachers move from one school, district, or region to another based on their preferences about salary, class size, workload, student characteristics, facilities, and socioeconomic context of the school (Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2005a; Clotfelter, Glennie, Ladd & Vigdor, 2008; Hancock & Scherff, 2010; Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004; Loeb, Darling-Hammond & Luczak, 2005; Swars, Meyers, Mays & Lack, 2009). Adelabu (2005) notes that a major source of teacher dissatisfaction arises from disparities between the teaching profession and other professions with respect to the time, mode of payment of salaries, fringe benefits, promotion prospects and working conditions. This dissatisfaction invariably results in brain drain, Shinn (2002) cited in Semela & the Institute of Education, Research & Training (2011). This is confirmed by (Clotfelter et al., 2008; Feng, 2009). It was noted in their findings that salary differences, particularly compensation and bonuses, play an important role in teachers' decisions to move or stay.

Mengistu (2012) notes according to Herzberg et al. (1959) that salary was viewed as a maintenance or external factor that influences job satisfaction, hence, attrition. A considerable number of research reports have reported that the teachers' job satisfaction was related positively to the teachers' salaries (Gates & Mtika, 2011: 430-431; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Liu & Meyer, 2005; Perie, et al., 1997; Shann, 1998). According to these

studies, an increase in salary was followed by a considerable raise in the teachers' job satisfaction, hence retention.

Other studies show that the provision of low salaries can seriously impair the teachers' job satisfaction. A study by Jyoti and Sharma (2006) in India, indicated that many (more than 90%), of the teacher participants' level of satisfaction with their pay was below average, and most of them believed that they were not earning what they deserved. Thus, teachers had to turn to providing additional private tuition to meet their financial needs. The negative impact on their job satisfaction is explained by the Expectancy Theory that states that individuals are dissatisfied if the outcomes are low in comparison to their perceived efforts. This may also be applicable to the present study in South Dayi District.

Garrett and Ssesanga (2005) study reveals that inadequate and irregular salary was one of the most frequently mentioned factors causing the job dissatisfaction of academics. Seventy six percentage (76%) of the participants expressed the view that inadequate salary was the main source of their discontent. Garrett and Ssesanga (2005) postulated that Ugandan academics were forced to take on other jobs because of their inadequate salaries, thereby limiting their allegiance to their employer, and reducing their commitment to their organization. Thus, the provision of inadequate salaries to teachers may hinder their efforts in striving towards higher-order needs such as achievement, responsibility, or their esteem-needs (Jyoti & Sharma, 2006). This is in line with Maslow's Theory of hierarchy of need. Maslow postulates that if basic (physiological) needs are not met, the individual will not think of self-actualization.

Akiri and Ogborugbo (2009) examined the teachers' satisfaction with their careers in public secondary schools in Nigeria found that the majority of the teachers (about 72%),

were generally dissatisfied with their salaries. The researchers also indicated that the rate of increase in the teachers' salaries and allowances was low in comparison to the rate of inflation in the country. Employees' perceptions of inequity with respect to salary may result in dissatisfaction (Kim, 2005). This is explained by Adam's Equity Theory that "if the employees of an organization, such as a school, perceive the different levels of their salaries as unfair, they may be dissatisfied" (Kim, 2005:668). If this perceived by teachers, it may lead to their attrition.

In a paper entitled 'The wrong solution to teacher shortage', Ingersoll and Smith (2003:32) pointed out that "about 29% of the sample's participants indicated dissatisfaction with teaching as a career". "More than three-quarters (75%) of the teachers who quit teaching because of their dissatisfaction with their jobs mentioned their low salaries as the main cause" (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003:.32). Gates and Mtika (2011) observed that trainee teachers in Malawi perceived the teachers' salaries as low, with no other incentives. The trainee teachers argued that the teachers' low salaries and the lack of incentives would cause teachers to become engaged in other income-generating activities, which may limit their commitment to their schools. Moreover, it would lead to absenteeism, and would motivate teachers to leave the profession finally. Accordingly, Wole (2002) in a local survey, finds out that salary inequalities between teachers and non-teachers were the most predominant source of dissatisfaction with teachers in Addis Ababa senior secondary schools. As argued by VSO (2008) the level of low pay provisions as compared to other professions, such as lawyers, was a major cause of teachers' job dissatisfaction. The report also indicated that even when the starting salaries

were compared, it was clear that if employees changed to other professions they would receive higher salaries.

In South Africa, Mampane (2012) asserted that attrition rates in any profession are invariably linked to the issue of remuneration. Beardwell and Holden (2001) explained that the salary of a particular job reflected beliefs about the worth of jobs based on scope, level of responsibility, skill requirements, and objectionableness of duties, commercial worth and strategic relevance. Over and above that Bull (2005:22) postulates that “job satisfaction is an important area of research because it is correlated to enhanced job performance, positive work values, high levels of employee motivation and lower levels of absenteeism, turnover and burnout”. According to Mampane (2012) Footprint Recruiting Agency in South Africa, reported that they receive up to 250 calls a month from teachers interested in being placed on their waiting list for possible opportunities to teach abroad where they are likely to receive up to three times the salary they receive in South Africa. A reflection of how abysmal teachers’ salary is in South Africa.

Haffajee and Bisseker (2002) point out that teacher widespread demonstrations, picketing and strikes has been the order of the day in South Africa. Almost every year teachers in the public service engage in organized and rampant strikes over the conditions that they find themselves in. More often than not, the strikes end not because teachers are happy with the outcome of salary negotiations, but rather because they feel the pinch of the salary deductions that are to be effected on their salaries in line with the principle of no work, no pay as enshrined in the Labour Relation Act (Act 66 of 1995). This could be mirror of the situation in Ghana, for that matter, South Dayi District.

A study conducted by International Task Force on Teachers for Education for all (ITFTEFA) for UNESCO 2010, referred to most of the socio-economic factors as Pull factors. It was identified that there is clear evidence that the relationship between teacher remuneration and the alternatives available in the labor market has an important influence on attrition UNESCO (2010). Studies in the US have demonstrated that higher salaries are associated with lower teacher attrition Guarino et al (2004). A longitudinal study showed that a significant pay rise for teachers (relative to local pay scales) was associated with an increase of more than four years in the median teaching spell duration (Murnane & Olsen, 1989; & 1990). However, the opposite happened in some African countries. With the expansion of access to education in low-income countries, teacher salaries have often fallen in real terms (OECD, 1998). Between 1985 and 2000, teacher salaries in Africa fell from 6.3 times GDP per capita to 4.4 times GDP per capita Lambert (2004). For instance, Ghana had primary education teacher salary (ratio per capita GDP) as 3.6 in the year 2000 Lambert (2004) from Mingat (2002) in UNESCO's 2010 report on International Task Force on Teachers of EFA). Levels of remuneration perceived to be low can result in hidden attrition, as teachers leave their posts to engage in additional income generating activities. For instance, in Malawi, students interviewed during the inquiry also reported that most of their teachers were engaged in moonlighting activities in order to generate extra income Kadzamera (2006).

The second factor in this domain was the teacher exodus from primary (basic schools) to secondary schools (UNESCO, 2010). In sub-Saharan Africa, generally, secondary teachers are better paid than basic school teachers, have a higher status, are more likely to have timetables free periods, and are more likely to work in schools near to centers of

population (UNESCO, 2010). With the rapid expansion of secondary education in many African countries, there is a shortage of secondary school teachers, resulting in a flow of basic school teachers into secondary teaching. These flows result in significant attrition of basic school teachers Mulkeen (2010).

The third factor was the notion of teaching being a stepping stone (UNESCO, 2010). Some teachers deliberately enter teaching with a view to moving out of the profession as quickly as possible through study leaves. In Ghana, for example, teachers become eligible for study leave after three years of teaching if they pass the university entrance exam in an education related subject (UNESCO, 2010). They can then attend university for three years on full pay. In general, study leave is not seen as an opportunity to develop one's skills as a primary teacher, but a way to leave the sector altogether or become a secondary teacher (Hedges & Mereku 2002). In interviews with 23 newly qualified teachers in Ghana, Hedges (2002) found that all of the teachers interviewed mentioned study leave as an incentive to enter the profession. These opportunities may encourage the view of teaching as an occupation you pass through, rather than a career in itself.

International Migration was identified as the fourth factor (UNESCO, 2010). Arends (2007) notes that there are an estimated 8,812 South African teachers working in the UK, approximately 5% of the number of trained teachers in South Africa. Type and O'Brien (2002); Gritz and Theobald (1996), Maicibi (2003) and Kayizza (1990) discovered that pay was the most important influence on the decision by experienced male and female teachers to remain or leave the profession. On average, teachers earn 12% less than other careers that require similar college credits (Allegretto, Corcoran, & Mishel, 2004). The

same finding was reported in a survey carried out by Dolton and Klauw (1995) on teacher attrition in the United Kingdom. It is a wonder if anyone can entirely depend on a teacher's salary alone especially in Africa, for that matter, Ghana, to meet living standard stipulated by UNESCO (Rebore, 2004).

Mengistu (2012) identified fringe benefits as a socio economic factor contributing to teachers' attrition. Herzberg, et al. (1959) note fringe benefits are seen as hygiene or maintenance factors that influence job satisfaction. Fringe benefits, such as housing and transport allowances, pension, sick pay, holidays, health insurance, compensation for after-hours' work, and employer-provided training, which are the concern of the present study, can have an impact on job satisfaction and go a long way to arrest attrition in several ways. These benefits are considered an important component of worker compensation (Artz, 2010). Fringe benefits have the potential to increase the job satisfaction of employees (Artz, 2010). Mengistu (2012) identified benefits such as maternity leave for about three months (one month before delivery and two months thereafter); sick leave with payment for a maximum of three months but with a doctor's certificate provided; vacation (a very common benefit for all government employees); and pension after retirement at the age of 60 years, based on the employee's salary scale and years' teaching experience, will minimize job dissatisfaction. The above-mentioned fringe benefits are important for the teachers' motivation, morale and satisfaction.

Loss of prestige is also a reason leading to the rampant attrition from the profession. A substantial studies reveal that the prestige the teaching profession enjoyed in the period before 1990 has largely degenerated (Mampane, 2012). Kayuni and Tambulasi (2007) point out that in the 1940s' to 1970s' teachers were seen as the torch bearers of progress,

modernity and development and were rewarded and respected accordingly. The profession which produced prominent people, has now become the last resort amongst students when they enroll at institutions of higher learning, Mampane (2012). “Teachers were the considered the crème de la crème of society” Mampane (2012:7). Unfortunately the professional prestige associated with teaching has declined at an alarming rate. It would not be surprising when you enter classrooms in Ghana and ask pupils about their dream careers, only a negligible number of students will choose to be teachers.

A study conducted in South Africa by Mampane (2012) reveals that an effort to arrest the above situation, South Africa’s Department of Basic Education has made available the Funza Lushaka Bursary Scheme to entice students to enroll in teaching programs at universities in South Africa. Recipients of the bursary are required to teach at a school for the same number of years that they receive the bursary (Department of Basic Education, 2008). However, findings reveal that a number of students apply for the bursary scheme not because of the attraction to teaching as a profession but rather as a result of the broader socio economic situation in South Africa and in Ghanaian situation, such initiatives are seen as a stepping stone for making to further their education (Mereku, 2002). So to avoid the likelihood of sitting at home without any prospects of employment, young people consider enrolling for a teaching qualification as better than nothing. “At least you are guaranteed that you will find work after completion of your studies” is a popular mantra amongst young South Africans (Mampane, 2012:12).

Disrespect of teachers by the public or community is an attributing factor to attrition in the education sector, mostly at the basic school levels. Jones (2001) opines that overall, teachers find a professional paradox in teaching. Their community has great expectations

from education but teachers are accorded low social status and held in low esteem. Difficulties with payment contribute to the perception of teaching as a low status occupation as well (Hedges, 2002; Francis et al., 1990). In line with this, many professionals therefore leave teaching because of public pressure which regards them as the poorest, disrespect them and devalue the teaching profession. Teachers repeatedly battle public stereotypes that their jobs are easier than most other professions, all these reduce their commitment and morale to teach, and in a nutshell, leave, Candle (2004). Finally, when the service loses its human resources, replacing these exiting employees is not only costly to the organization but it is destructive to service delivery as a whole (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). This study thus set out to establish whether this is true or not.

2.5.2. Managerial /Administrative Factors

An organization's current and potential human resources are an integral part of its strategic business plan (Agarwala, 2003; Huselid, 1995). Therefore, management must find, recruit, and retain highly productive workers in order to increase organizational performance. Mampane (2012) citing Barney (1991) notes, in contemporary management literature, human resources are treated as an organizational asset rather than as a cost, and turnover has become a critical issue in management. Poor management has been recorded as by many researchers as a factor for labour attrition. Maicibi (2003) reported that when employees work under poor management conditions, they tend to behave like caged animals looking for the slightest opportunity to escape, in such a situation when an opportunity opens, whether less than the present job, the employees could leave without looking behind. Maicibi (2003) notes that poor supervision and a highly centralized

administration may lead to decline in motivation and morale of the staff which sometimes results into attrition.

Workload is one of Herzberg's hygiene or maintenance factors, to either facilitate or impede job satisfaction. For that matter, to be a teacher is hard work, and requires coping with a considerable amount of adverse effects of the profession (Mengistu, 2012). Educator workload is one of the main challenges facing the teaching fraternity today. Hurren (2006) supported this argument by saying that teaching is an extremely stressful job. The teaching profession expects from the teachers to provide different professional services, including the professional caring of learners, the central task for many teachers (Butt & Lance, 2005). The advent of the new curriculum of education, the outcomes based on education and the National Curriculum Statement (NSC) has implied the erosion of instructional time into the programs of teachers and schools (Chisholm, Hoadley, Kivulu, 2005). Teachers are now burdened with additional administrative responsibilities that in the past were the preserve of clerks employed by schools. These administrative responsibilities amongst others include the capturing of learner marks (Continuous Assessment), filling of learner portfolios without the attendant provision of office space, preparing learner reports, compiling data on learners progress on a quarterly basis which form the basis of the progress reports, preparing reports on learners social and family background, pastoral duties, professional duties like meetings, workshops, seminars, conferences and countless other responsibilities (Mampane, 2012).

Additionally, Mmpane (2012) notes that the amount of time that teachers spend on planning for lessons is disproportionate to the time spent presenting lessons in class. Department heads occasionally check teacher files with the main focus being whether the

teachers has daily, weekly and quarterly lesson preparation forms for his/her subjects. In Ghana for instance, management lays much emphasis on lesson note preparation. They go by the popular mantra that when you write lesson note, 70% of the work is done. This may be the reason why most teachers in Ghana are concerned mostly with writing notes than lesson presentation/delivery. Most educators feel stressed because their inability to cope with this workload. Mampane (2012) notes that studies reveal that a significant number of teachers are absent from work as a result of psychological factors, fatigue, physical illness necessitated by being overworked. Till now, evidence from previous research (Buwalda & Kok, 1991; Mwamwenda, Monyooe & Glencross, 1997) in Milner and Khoza (2008) reveal that teachers stress level is extremely high and little appears to be done in the education sector to combat of this issue.

Other critical factors leading to increased workload is the historical inequality in pupil teacher ratios. At one stage it was reported that Kwazulu Natal Provincial Department of Education had the highest teacher pupil ratio at 38:1 (Jarvis: 1999). In Ghana, the pupil-teacher ratio was 30.08 in 2014 and the highest in 40 years was 35.39 in 2006 (World Bank, 2015). The increased demand for basic education has contrasted with limited number of basic schools. This has resulted to an increase in the teacher-student ratio, especially with the introduction of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE), the Universal Primary Education (UPE) and the Educational for All (EFA). The result of this is an increase in class size and elsewhere in the Sub-Saharan Regions. The phenomena has led to teaching loads through double shifts and multi subject specifications for some teachers which is a cause of grievance especially when the salary scale does not match the work load (Kajubi, 2001). Some teachers are fatigued, lose

morale and when the situation is not corrected or made more bearable, such teachers will seek employment in other schools or elsewhere (Kajubi, 2001). This may be the current pressure mounting on teachers in Ghana.

Westat (2002) agrees with this by arguing that in a study of personnel needs in special education mentioned unmanageable workloads, the interference of paper work with teaching and teaching children from four or more disability categories caused discontent and later results in attrition. In Ghana, teachers are not only experiencing increasing workloads, but in a more difficult school environment (Bennell & Akyempong, 2007). Williams and Robertson (1990) cited in Kayuni and Tambulasi (2007:92) “convincingly argued the teaching profession heightened a lot of stress. They considered the following as potential stress factors: meeting deadlines, workload, limited time, continuous change, records of achievement and organizational restructuring”. These findings were asserted by Sutton and Wheatley (2003) in their work titled *Teachers’ Emotions and Teaching*. Finlayson (2003) finds out in Scotland that stress was the major cause of ill health, teacher attrition/turnover, absenteeism and other related problems which cost the government about 43 million pounds a year. Finlayson (2003) attributed teachers stress to the workload, change, conflict at work and pupil discipline. Finlayson (2003:1) citing Ruskin suggested a more fitting remedy to the problem of stress among teachers. That they must be fit for it; they must not do too much of it; and they must have a sense of success in it”.

Mengistu (2012) states that inadequate administrative support for teachers could result in teacher dissatisfaction, de-motivation, decreased commitment and attrition. As indicated by Ingersoll and Smith (2003) and Baker (2007), inadequate administrative support was

one of the primary reasons for teachers leaving the profession early in their careers. Choi and Tang (2009) also found that teachers' decreased commitment was related to their perception of the lack of administrative support at their schools. If teachers perceive their administrators as supportive and cooperative, their job satisfaction, the quality of the instruction they provide, and their intent to stay on in the profession come into play (Mengistu, 2012). Inadequate administrative support for teachers could result in teacher dissatisfaction, de-motivation, decreased commitment and attrition. As indicated by Baker (2007) inadequate administrative support was one of the primary reasons for teachers leaving the profession early in their careers. Lehman and Stockard (2004) argue that by promoting a safe and orderly school, by assigning teachers to positions for which they are qualified, by providing teachers with a sense of control and influence over their work, and by providing a context in which teachers can feel supported by their colleagues and the students' parents, and where they can be more efficacious in their teaching, for school administrators positively influenced teachers' job satisfaction. A study report by (Center for British Teachers, 2008; & Voluntary Service Overseas, 2008:56) reveal that "to create a school environment which is favourable for good teaching, high-quality school, teacher management policies should be in place. This is because efficient and effective teacher and school management policies are crucial in ensuring quality education, and achieving stated educational objectives.

The quality of school leadership serves as an important indicator of the teachers' intent to leave their profession (Ladebo, 2005; Weiqi, 2007). It was found that the probability of the teachers leaving their profession negatively correlated with their perceived quality of leadership: if the teachers had a high regard for their leadership, they were less likely to

leave the profession (Ladd, 2009). However, “teachers in developing countries, suffer the same plight” Evans (2001:291). Voluntary Service Overseas (2008) identified in general that workers (teachers) experience poor management and leadership. Ranking demotivating issues in Ethiopia, poor school management was ranked as the most demotivating issue in the teaching profession. Ethiopian teachers indicate that the authoritarian management style employed by school directors who have not received any management training has a profound impact on teacher motivation and school effectiveness and, therefore, on the quality of education. As documented by Voluntary Service Overseas (2008) and Center for British Teachers (2008), poor teacher management leads to the following, namely rural-urban disparities, disparities in class size, high levels of teacher attrition and turnover, low teacher motivation and morale, has a negative economic and quality impact, leads to a lack of job satisfaction, and to teacher absenteeism. These symptoms are well explained in the theory by Herzberg, et al. (1959). Also ample evidence points to the fact that teachers are dissatisfied with much of the paperwork induced by performance-driven education reforms, (Hargreaves & Goodson, 2006; Choi, 2005).

Hedges (2002), Francis et al., (1990), note that “teachers are further demotivated by a perception of little control over their posting, transfer or promotion”. Effective system of deploying teachers is curtailed by poor management practices, thus teachers are deployed arbitrarily. A report for VSO in Ghana notes that “reports can be made against a person and they will be moved immediately”. Decisions appear to be made arbitrarily, rather than on the basis of a fair and transparent appraisal system, and teachers lack awareness of any appeals procedure to allow them to dispute the decisions. The feeling was

expressed that at times, teachers suffer as a result of politics within postings issues VSO (2007). Lack of management training for head teachers can result in poor management practices, a lack of teacher involvement in decision making, and hence to lower teacher morale and increased attrition (Quartz et al 2008; Mpkosa & Ndaruhutse et al 2008).

The general decay in the moral fiber of society has to a larger extent also contributed to the degeneration of the teaching profession invariably contributing to too many educators leaving the profession. The profession is generally perceived to have gone to the dogs (Mampane, 2012). Learners at schools are generally disobedient, ill-disciplined and have no regard for authority and this has attributed to dissatisfaction with the teachers job.

2.5.3. Interpersonal Factors

Naylor and White (2010), identified stressors such as unpleasant relationships with colleagues and administrators, lack of resources, lack of professional autonomy and, for substitute teachers and early-career teachers, and lack of job security, attributing to attrition. Relationships at work places is key determinant in employees' productivity and stay. In a study conducted by Alberta Teachers Association (2013), one of the participants revealed in an interview that "It's key to be in a supportive staff environment where people are working as a team instead of opposing one another. I've experienced both, and it really affects your day-to-day life". This shows the degree how interpersonal relationship issues are of importance to workers in an organization.

Interpersonal relationships are grouped under extrinsic factors, which either decrease or increase the job dissatisfaction of workers (Herzberg, et al., 1959). It is for this reason, Choi and Tang (2009) argue that teachers who work in a positive environment, who work

under and with cooperative and supportive leaders and colleagues, carry out their responsibilities effectively. In the school environment, the following types of interpersonal relationships can be identified, namely interpersonal relationships with the students, the teachers, the principals/superiors, and with the parents. These interpersonal relationships attribute to whether a teacher will stay or leave.

Findings of a study conducted by Kloep and Tarifa (1994) reveal perhaps at a time when teachers were more highly valued, that since the teachers were respected by the community in which they lived, highly positive parent-teacher relationships existed. This situation enhanced the teachers' job satisfaction and retention. However, according to Mengistu (2012), many studies found that the teachers were not satisfied with their relationships with parents. In relation to this, Shann (1998) study on professional commitment and satisfaction among teachers in urban schools, found that the teachers' satisfaction with parent-teacher relationships ranked the lowest of the given variables. So do (Shann, 1998; Jyoti & Sharma, 2006) found that the teachers were dissatisfied because of the under-estimation of the value of the teaching profession by society in general, and by the parents in particular. This means that the status of the teaching profession, as it is valued by parents and the community, will strongly affect, either positively or negatively, the parent-teacher relationships. Perie, et al. (1997) found that 46% of the secondary school teachers who participated in a study reported that they were least satisfied with the parental support received.

To nurture teachers as a valuable resource of any school organization, the relationship of the teachers with the rest of the school community is a vital factor to be considered. This is because the interpersonal relations of teachers within the school community influence

both job satisfaction and the probability of teachers remaining in the school and in the profession, (Leithwood & McAdie, 2007). A longitudinal study conducted by Alberta Teachers' Association (2013) revealed the followings on interpersonal relationships. Participants in the study stressed the importance of developing supportive relationships with colleagues. Such relationships, according to participants, can mitigate the stress of working with demanding administrators and parents or with high-needs students. As one teacher noted, "I think that's why we all work so well together: we understand the challenges that we're all facing." Some participants who had changed schools during the course of the study were struck by the dramatic difference in the quality of collegial relationships that exists in one school as opposed to another, an observation that supports one of the major findings of this study: namely, that school cultures play a highly significant role in shaping teachers' feelings about the profession..

However, the study suggests that one-to-one relationships of this kind are probably more significant in smaller schools and play a bigger role during the first couple of years of a teacher's practice. The study concluded that administrators played a huge role in determining whether participants perceived their school as a positive place to work. Whether participants depicted the climate of their school as negative or positive was closely related to the extent to which they perceived work in the school as being fairly distributed among various members of staff. Participants who had good leaders described their entire school as positive, supportive, friendly, innovative and open. Participants who worked in schools where the leadership was weak or absent, by contrast, described the school climate as negative. To cope with a negative culture, they resorted to such strategies as withdrawing to their own classroom or forging supportive "subcultures"

with grade-level partners, friends or department colleagues. Failure to create group cohesion - camaraderie and esprit de corps by employers among workers can be an attributing factor in explaining why employees depart from their organizations. There are incidences when the school management takes decisions without considering the effects on the other school members. The move can be interpreted as a malicious action by the affected staff. This can cause friction and loss of group cohesion and regrettable decisions can be taken and the whole school might be affected in the long-run (Everand & Morris, 1985) as cited by (Smith, 1995).

Maicibi (2003) in agreement shows that lack of group cohesion makes employees feel isolated and unhappy which might make them leave their schools. In line with this, Maicibi (2003) contends that a common reason for resignation from the organization is the feel that management or specific supervisors are not providing the leadership they should or are treating employees unfairly, inequality or are bullying others. Some supervisors do not even orient new members who later become disgusted and leave the school. There is a good reason why positive relationships with colleagues are so important. Papanastasiou and Zembylas (2006) pointed out that positive social relationships with colleagues are important sources of the teachers' emotional health, because colleagues are seen as important sources of friendship, and of social and emotional support. The absence of such positive collegial relationships in the school environment they will therefore, negatively influence teacher support, emotional health and job satisfaction and in a nutshell trigger attrition.

2.5.4. Demographic and Personal Factors

According to UNESCO (2004) the demographic factors that affect attrition include retirement age and policies, and age profile of teaching force. UNESCO (2004) notes that a part of attrition is a result of retirement and is driven largely by the age profile of the teaching force and the retirement policies in place. Secondly, some teacher attrition is a result of personal or family factors, including teachers leaving because of marriage, child care responsibilities or ill health. The report has identified voluntary resignation as the single greatest cause of attrition in most African countries where data were available (UNESCO, 2004). Retirement, illness and death accounted for only 24% of teacher losses. As much as teacher resignation is likely to be for the purposes of taking up other employment, resignation rates are likely to be related to the alternative opportunities available to teachers in the labor market (UNESCO, 2004).

Retirement has been a major demographics factor depleting the teaching force. Report indicates that many Organization for Economic Co-operation Development (OECD) countries express concern about the "graying workforce" in teaching, with a large proportion of teachers in the older age groups. In 2000, about 50% of teachers in German and Italian lower-secondary schools and 40% of teachers in Swedish and German Primary schools were over 50 years old UNESCO (2010). This ageing workforce is likely to result in increased retirement rates. In France, in 2001, 78% of secondary school teachers were expected to leave within the 2000-2009 period due to retirement (OECD 2002). In African countries where data were available, there were varied age patterns, but more young teachers than normal in Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, reflecting the recent expansion of enrolment. In Eritrea,

almost 50% of elementary school teachers were under 30, and in Lesotho and Zanzibar half were under 40. In Liberia the teacher profile included a greater proportion of teachers over 40, reflecting the lack of recruitment during the period of conflict. As a result of these relatively young teacher populations, attrition from retirement on age grounds is likely to be unusually low, but will tend to rise as the teacher age profile normalizes.

While some studies have found commitment to teaching higher among females than males (Ingersoll & Alsalam, 1997) research on teacher attrition has generally found females more likely to leave teaching than male teachers (Adams, 1996; Gritz & Theobald, 1996; Ingersoll, 2001b). This finding has also been consistent across primary and secondary levels (Heyns, 1988). Theobald (1990) reported that female teachers in the 20s to 30s age range were significantly less likely to return to teaching than males of the same age range. A finding likely explained by childbearing and rearing. Croasmun, Hampton and Herrmann (2000) also found out in their study that marital status is related more strongly to attrition from teaching than is any other variable on which data are available. The finding reveals that ninety percent of the unmarried teachers surveyed left, but only 45.8% of the married teachers, were still working. Marso and Pigge (1995) found that women married to men in higher status business occupations may work temporarily while their husbands were recuperate from the financial strain of graduate or professional school or establishing a clientele or business. Bloland and Selby (1980) cited in Croasmun, Hampton, & Herrmann (2000) note that the earlier research indicates that the preference of the spouse leaving or staying the teaching profession is one of the most important factors for staying in the field of education. Kirby and Grissmer (1993)

theorize that the decision to accept and keep a teaching job depends on life cycle factors (existing family status and change in family status). Data from the US suggest that the attrition of female teachers is higher than that of male teachers (Guarino et. al. 2004). This may be due to female teachers being more likely to leave their posts because of pregnancy and child care (almost 25% of teacher attrition in the US is influenced by pregnancy and child care responsibilities (NCES, 2007)). Second, there are indications that men remain more likely to be promoted than women, which may contribute to lower retention of female teachers, Quartz et al (2008).

In sub-Saharan Africa the picture is not varied. There are some suggestions that attrition of female teachers may be higher than that of males. Female teachers are often reluctant to take up posts in remote areas, which may lead to greater attrition early in their careers. In some areas of the Gambia, communities may resist the arrival of an unmarried female teacher, making it difficult for female teachers to accept rural postings, World Bank (2007). In addition, female teachers may be more likely to leave their jobs if unable to find a post near their husbands' place of work, or to migrate to another school (Boe et al., 1997; Henke, Chen, & Geis, 2000). On the other hand, in some communities there are fewer alternative labour market opportunities for women, which may result in lower attrition of female teachers Mulkeen (2010).

2.6. Approach to Managing Attrition

Shaw (1999) outlines a model for developing an employee turnover and retention strategy. The model is prepositioned on assumptions that: turnover is rarely due to one, easily-fixed cause and thus solutions require organizational focus and commitment;

executive accountability and responsibility are critical; a successful retention strategy must be built bottom-up, that is, identifying causes of voluntary turnover, reason for retention and addressing identified causes of turnover and reasons for retention; reducing undesired turnover takes time and effort, no quick fixes; and an ongoing focus and measurement of retention/turnover is integral to sustaining low voluntary turnover levels.

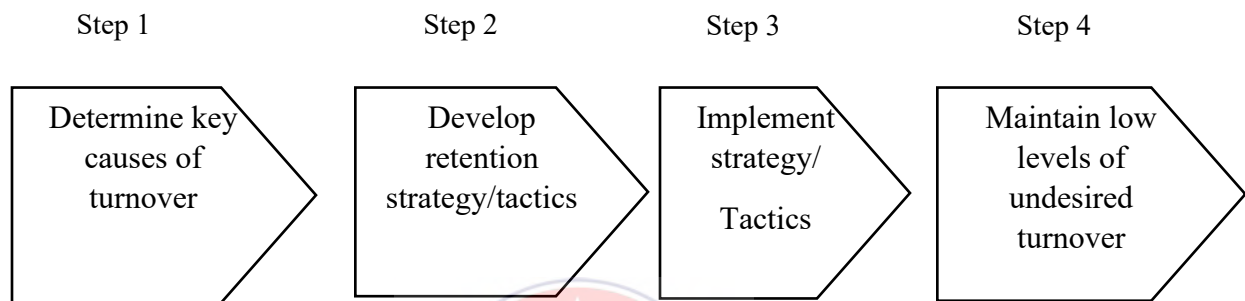


Figure 2.2: Managing turnover Shaw (1999)

Step 1: In determining the key causes of attrition, Shaw (1999) outlined the following sub-steps. The first step is to conduct analyses of the situation, reach a conclusion of the situation, present and involve leaders. In this regard, the point of departure is the analysis of the impact and extent of turnover/attrition. According to Shaw (1999: 2) “the impact of turnover is manifested in increased costs, lower productivity and profitability and lower customer satisfaction”. Shaw (1999) cites recruitment and selection practices, the work itself, compensation, career opportunities and the work environment as the notable causes of attrition.

Step 2: Identify and engage team, develop potential solutions to address causes of attrition, define implementation of plan, present implementation plan, involve leaders to approve and gain commitment to plan. Institute of Management (1999) advocates the

analysis of both hygiene and motivation factors, employees' needs, from the physical to self-fulfillment needs.

Step 3: Begin executing implementation of plan, communicate positives, continuously measure, monitor retention effectiveness and maintain ongoing leadership focus.

Finally, Shaw (1999) ascertains that the strategy to address attrition problem involves, among other things, setting turnover/attrition benchmarks and selected retention practices, which include holding executives accountable for employee retention and satisfaction, recruitment and selection practices, providing opportunities for input to operating decisions, allowing significant autonomy in job responsibilities, measuring pay competitiveness and satisfaction consistency, providing career opportunities, creating a work environment that is preferred by top employees with a propensity to stay and analyzing turnover by tracking reasons for leaving. A team should be established to develop possible solutions, define implementation plans and gain approval and commitment of the organization's executives to the solutions".

“Implementation of the strategy requires constant and rigorous measurement and monitoring of the strategy's effectiveness and the maintenance of leadership focus on the implementation of the strategy (Shaw, 1999:8; Institute of Management, 1999:58). Schools including teachers are managed from various levels in the education system. In particular, the management roles of school based managers (Head teachers) regarding teacher attrition are limited to instructional leadership and motivational processes while issues like compensation, service conditions and entry requirements into teaching are located in the education departments' (GES) domain. Managing teacher attrition thus requires an approach primarily involving the education department Xaba (2003). Xaba

posits that it is clear that managing teacher attrition requires a concerted effort from all stakeholders in the education system. The department of education obviously has a major role to play in this regard. However, conditions that lead to high teacher attrition are mostly situated in schools as organizations. Therefore, the strategy to address teacher turnover should be holistic and take a two-pronged shape, that is, address those causes of attrition that are located at the school as an organization and those over which the department has control.

“Teacher attrition at school level relates to organizational characteristics, in particular those factors that influence teacher job satisfaction” (Ingersoll, 2002; Ingersoll, 2001b:501; Jackson & Schuler, 2000:280). “This entails the work itself, recognition, opportunities for growth and advancement as well as hygiene factors like better salaries, teaching resources, smaller classes and more non-contact time (Tortora, 2002:1; European Trade Union Committee for Education, 2001:28). Addressing these factors needs school managers who are well-equipped to create conditions that instill intrinsic motivation for teachers. This implies that the Department of Education (Ministry of Education, specifically, GES) must ensure that support is proffered to schools through management development support programmes aimed at capacitating school managers in this regard. Department of Education (GES) officials must be capacitated to give realistic and benchmarked support to schools. (UNESCO, 2004).

2.6.1. Retention of Teachers

Jacobson, Reavis and Logsdon (1963:348) and Bamber (2005) state that after competent teachers have been located and appointed, the problem arises of how to retain them for a

period of years. Numerous methods have been identified to induce teachers of high quality to remain in the system; and among these are retirement and pension provisions, provisions for tenure salary schedules, leaves of absence with full or part pay and reasonable teaching loads. Jacobson et al. contend that all professionally minded teachers prefer to work where stimulating educational experimentation is in progress, and they tend to remain in such school system.

Bambel (2005) citing Rebore (1982) reveals that to keep or retain employees in an organization or a job, certain strategies are embarked upon for the retention rate to be very high. Among the strategies are staff development, staff appraisal, reward provision and opportunity for collective bargaining. For instance, Rebore (1982) maintains that the main purpose for the establishment of a reward policy is to attract and retain qualified employees who will provide the type of service expected by the public. Rebore (1982) stipulates that a school system must commit human and physical resources to undertake staff development exercise so as to maintain a viable and knowledgeable staff. He maintains that it is not possible these days to employ individuals for a long time and not making available opportunities for individuals to update their skills. On appraisal, Rebore contends that all organizations need to evaluate their working force. He maintains that establishment and implementation of an appraisal process are aimed at fostering the self-development of each employee, helping to improve performance and to determine if an employee should be retained on the job, and helping to determine the placement, transfer or promotion of an employee. Relating to the question of the institution of rewards, Rebore (1982) mentions five variables that must be taken into consideration in a reward programme. These include employee performance, employee effort, seniority, skills and

job requirements, with emphasis on performance. He identifies intrinsic and extrinsic rewards whose provisions retain personnel in the job. As regards intrinsic reward he mentions that they are the employee's satisfaction he receives on the job and which are increased through participation in the decision-making process, greater job direction, increased responsibility and opportunity for personal growth. Under extrinsic rewards, he states direct, indirect and non-financial rewards, like salary, overtime pay, holiday pay and merit pay for performance. To him indirect rewards may include protection programmes, other fringe benefits and services, while non-financial rewards may include a job title, a reserved parking place, or a paneled or carpeted office. Rebores (1982) cited in Babel (2005) cautions that these rewards should be flexible so that individual employees' expectation will be met.

According to Mussazi (1985) cited in Babel (2005) retention of teachers is the ability of the school system to keep its staff in their jobs and make them want to stay and get committed to the vision and mission of the school. Mussazi (1985) explains that when a teacher feels unhappy about what goes on in the school his sharpness is lost, morale is low and attrition becomes high and initiatives lack. Based on these observations, he (Mussazi) suggests the following guidelines that can encourage teachers to stay long in the profession and in their schools: establish clear staff policy on the principles of justice and fair play, establish clear channels of communication, encourage teacher participation in decision-making process, encourage and welcome teachers' initiative, provide facilities and equipment needed by teachers, avoid dictatorship and unnecessary hostility and antagonism, defend the teachers when they are unfairly treated, attacked or criticized, and assign reasonable duties and teaching loads to teachers.

Adesina (1990) also sees retention of teachers as improving the salary and income conditions of teachers and making the profession more attractive. He states further that retention should treat the teachers' salary issue in the light of overall changes in the public sector and improve the administration of the salary budget. He agrees with Rebores in saying that the role of incentives should not be overlooked as they make room for introducing more flexibility in the salary scales in some societies and also create room for making rural areas more attractive in particular by achieving better integration in the community they live. Adesina (2000:116) asserts on a situation which is not different from the Ghanaian context that "a most serious dilemma facing the Nigerian education system is keeping the school system staffed continuously with competent teachers and retaining them in service". He conducted two studies in Lagos and former Midwest State on demand and supply of secondary school teachers, and the following were among answers respondents gave as regards certain variables that are negative in nature and thus account for low retention rate of teachers: Underpayment compared with private sector, No promotion prospects, Poor conditions of service, Teachers' low respect and recognition by the "society", and Lack of encouragement by the government.

Adesina (2000) admonishes that unless the just-mentioned negative factors are rectified the full aim of retention exercise cannot be realized in the education system in Nigeria.

Stone (1990) in discussing retaining rural teachers, emphasizes that colleges must take more of a role in recruiting students who demonstrate the characteristics of successful rural teachers. He stresses that the degree to which a rural teacher becomes involved in community educational and cultural programmes influences his or her decision to remain, therefore; retention requires a coordinated school-community effort.

Still on the question of rural teacher retention, Stone agrees to Rebores point of staff development. Stone (1990) suggests that universities can play role by offering cost effective distance-learning courses to keep rural teachers abreast with time. This necessary because according to Kim's (2005) study, intrinsic motivation in individuals and personal development were positively correlated. This ensures that the annual ritual of exodus of elementary school teachers leaving for further studies at the expense of the classroom work will be reduced.

Bame (1991) in Bamel (2005) posits that the highly significant positive relationship that is found to exist between teacher's job satisfaction and their length of certificated teaching is explainable in two ways. Firstly, Bame notes that a teacher who has remained in teaching for a long time is more likely to like it and will tend to express satisfaction with it. Moreover, Bamel (2005) contends that, since the number of years of teaching counts towards pension benefits and promotion, teachers who have taught for a long time will more likely remain in teaching and earn promotion and pension benefits. With this point in view, Bame (1991) is supporting Rebores (1982) that the question of reward institution should never be overlooked if educational administrators mean to retain their employees for a longer period of time.

Nyoagbe (1993) in looking at the impact of the 1987 Education Reform on the teacher's job performance at the basic education level recommends certain widely-known strategies in an attempt to keep teachers in the profession and also contribute effectively to the teaching-learning process. He recommends that: teachers should be given the necessary respect and recognition in mailers that involve the business of education and granting them and their unions a consultative status on national, regional, district and

community bodies dealing with educational issues. This recommendation is in support of a point made by Farrant (1980) that too little initiative is allowed to teachers, for all important decisions affecting teachers' work are taken by administrators and politicians. For this reason, meritorious awards should be instituted and beneficiaries be selected by representatives of the employer, the professional association and the community. Qualities to be sought should include diligence, commitment to duty and community service. Living accommodations should be provided for teachers, especially those in the rural areas.

.McNergney and Herbert (1998) quote Darling-Hammond and Dilworth (1996:31) and state that "greater intellectual and financial incentives to stay in teaching may be needed to attract and retain talented teachers from minority groups, as well as European-American teachers, in the profession".

Parry (1991) and Asmah (1999) cited in Bambel (2005 explain that retaining staff is about ensuring that their long term wealth potential in the organization is greater than it would be elsewhere. If this is not there, their particular set of skills is worth more to them somewhere else, and they would leave. They explain that long term wealth potential means more than simply what they are paid in salary. Parry (1991), (1999) and Bambel (2005 state that more realistic salary needs to be given the employee as well as training too as a way of retaining personnel. This affirms Rebore's (1982) staff development exercise for employees. There is also the need to find out what actually causes staff turnover in an organization.

Asmah (1999) also outlines the following major responsibilities to the employees: provision of job security; provision of professional support like training and commitment;

compensation issues taken seriously; and employee special services like counselling, financial and economic planning, retirement planning, career counselling, investment programmes and stress counselling.

Bame (1991:105) in his contribution on retention of teachers states that the more a group of teachers agree that MoE officials do what they are expected to do during supervision and the more favourable the teachers' feelings are about what the officials do in schools, "the more satisfied the teachers will tend to be with teaching".

Weasmer and Woods (2004) conclude that collegiality in the form of support meetings, mentoring, and shared leadership in the workplace is a strong contributor to the job satisfaction of teachers. Ting (1997) agrees, and indicates that cooperative and supportive relationships with colleagues are very important, and contribute to higher levels of employee job satisfaction. Weasmer and Woods (2004) confirm that collegiality aids teacher retention, and improves the school climate. The principal holds the formal authority to supervise the teachers' work, and serves as the link between the school and the community, as well as with the district offices (Johnson, 2006). The principals are viewed as the instructional leaders of their schools (Edgerson & Kritsonis, 2006). Mingistu (2012) states that the principal should create and maintain good relationships with the teachers, so that a healthy school environment, in the form of effective teaching and learning, will prevail. This healthy relationship and support are especially important for those teachers who are at the start of their teaching careers.

Tekleselassie (2005) argues that the teachers' willingness to participate in all areas of decision-making will come to the fore, if they perceive their relationships with their principals as being open, collaborative, facilitative, and supportive. In addition,

supportive principals will also determine the teachers' rate of attrition. "It can therefore be concluded that teachers will be successful, motivated, and inspired to do their best if there exist a healthy relationship between them and the school principals" (Edgerson & Kritsonis, 2006:4).

2.6.2. Teacher Motivation

Teacher motivation naturally has to do with teachers' attitude to work. It has to do with teachers desire to participate in the pedagogical processes within the school environment. It has to do with teachers' interest in student discipline and control particularly in the classroom (Ofoegbu, 2004). Therefore it could underlie their involvement or non-involvement in academic and non-academic activities, which operate in schools. Teacher motivation could therefore be referred to as those factors that operate within the school system which if not made available to the teacher could hamper performance, cause stress, discontentment and frustration all of which would subsequently reduce classroom effectiveness and student quality output. This implies that teacher motivation includes factors that cause, channel, sustain and influence teachers' behavior towards high management and academic achievement standards in schools (Ofoegbu, 2004).

According to Dörnyei (2001), the following factors among others affect teacher motivation: the school's general climate and the existing school norms; the class sizes, the school resources and facilities; general expectations regarding student potential; the school's leadership and decision-making structure. Also, without discovering and acquiring new knowledge, skills and abilities, many teachers teach the same subject so they can "lose spark". The prescribed requirements and fixed, imposed course content do

not let teachers have leeway to create “variations” and “intellectual detours”. Restricted autonomy is believed to be one of the negative influences on teacher motivation Dörnyei (2001). Pelletier et al. (2002:193) also maintained that there are three types of pressure that affect teachers’ self-determined motivation and these include the following: “being responsible for students’ behaviour and students performing up to standards, being forced to follow colleagues’ teaching methods or involvement in school activities and, having limited freedom in determining the course’s curriculum or following a certain curriculum decided by the school’s administration”.

The findings of EFA report (2005) revealed that teachers in developing countries such as Ghana often receive earnings that are insufficient at providing them with a reasonable standard of living. Bennell (2004) also remarked that teachers’ pay and other material benefits were too low for individual and household survival needs to be met in developing countries such as Ghana. Indeed, careful analyses of the literature seem to suggest that salary is crucial in teacher satisfaction among the developing countries. This is so because a study conducted by Tansim (2006) also found Bangladeshi teachers to be dissatisfied with their salary levels.

Also, Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004) in their study of Cyprus teachers found that salary was one of the issues which dissatisfied teachers. These findings point to the fact that the issues of teachers’ salary must not be joked with since it is the only source of income to majority of them. The key finding of a study by Kazeem (1999) cited in Adelabu (2002) is that teachers and other school workers tend to remain contented and reasonably motivated as long as salaries are paid on time and they are promoted regularly. Earlier, Eton (1984) also identified the payment of salaries, allowances and

promotion as the key factors that shape teacher attitudes towards their work. Not surprising, Akinwunmi (2000) and Ejiogu (1983) cited in Adelabu (2005) found that what the typical low-income earning teacher yearns is a sizeable salary increase, and they conclude that the payment of a living wage would significantly enhance their commitment and performance.

Next to pay, the social status of teachers has been identified as an important factor impacting teacher morale and motivation (Baikie (2002), Obanya (1999) and Francis (1998)). Where teachers feel society is dismissive of the profession, their commitment is undermined. Promoting teachers “en masse” without basing it on an evaluative mechanism linked to job performance, has also been found to de-motivate many teachers in Nigeria (Sanusi (1998), Obilade (1989) and Yisa (1975)). School leadership and management style are also important factors, which can either motivate or lower teacher morale and commitment. Nwankwo (1984) cited in Adelabu (2005) found that teachers feel highly motivated when they are consulted about decisions regarding their work. Unfortunately, many people in the leadership positions in the education services including some heads of schools at all levels are highhanded and autocratic in their dealings with teachers (Ayeni (2005)). The attitude of inspectors towards teachers in supervising their work is another important work related motivational factor. Facilities in most schools are dilapidated and inadequate (Adelabu 2005; Sanusi 1998). Kazeem (1999) has recommended that greater attention should be given to improving work-related conditions of teachers to improve the quality of education. In particular, there should be improvements in the supply of teaching and learning materials and general classroom environment to improve student learning. Kazeem (1999) and Akinwumi

(2000) found that private school teachers appear more motivated than teachers in public schools. Regular payment of salaries and much lower pupil-teacher ratios are key reasons for this. Muheeb (2004) found that the conditions for teaching are more conducive in private secondary schools in Lagos State especially because the maximum class size is only 30 in private schools compared to well over 80 public schools. Voluntary Service Overseas VSO (2002) “policy research” on teacher motivation in developing countries, such as Malawi, Zambia and Papua New Guinea focuses on factors in four areas: the conditions of employment of teachers, their situation as educators, their relationship with the local community, and their voice in educational policy.

The report shows a plethora of negative factors in all these areas and not many redeeming features in the educational systems concerned. Teacher motivation is said to be “at best fragile and at worst severely deteriorating” in these countries (VSO, 2002) of particular concern is, firstly, the evidence from VSO about poor management at all levels, from the ministry of education to the school, and, secondly, teachers’ perception that the decline in their pay had adversely affected their status both nationally and locally. Other specific problems that are highlighted include delayed payment, housing shortages, insufficient upgrading opportunities, lack of learning materials, and a decline of inspectorate services and Insufficient involvement of teachers’ representatives in policy making. Stress was also found to a source of teachers’ de-motivation. A study of teacher stress by Gorrell and Dharmadasa (1989) showed certain factors that may be important “de-motivators” for teachers in a developing country. It shows that overcrowded classrooms, absent pupils and lack of teachers’ texts can be very stressful factors, especially for the less experienced teachers. Closely related to this is a pressure to produce examination passes.

Barrett's (2005) research on primary school teachers in Tanzania shows that they, as "second parents", have a great concern about whether their pupils will qualify for admission to secondary education. Czubaj (1996) states that the teachers with an internal locus of control are under less stress and more successful in teaching. Therefore, the students of these teachers feel less school related stress and take higher scores in their assessments. It is clear that teacher efficacy affects students directly. There is a tight correlation between teacher efficacy and students' performance (Czubaj, 1996).

2.7. Quality of Education Defined

"The myriad of definitions of quality of education that exist, testify to the complexity and multifaceted nature of the concept" Colby and Witt (2000:1). The terms efficiency, effectiveness, equity and quality have often been used synonymously by educators (Adams, 1993). Though a substantial unanimity exists around the basic dimensions of quality education today (Cosby & Witt, 2000) there is a room for understanding education as a complex system entrenched in a political, cultural and economic context. Cosby and Witt note that the dimensions of quality of education are interdependent, and are influencing each other in most at times unforeseeable ways. However, stakeholders typically judge the school system in terms of the final goals set for our children, our community, our country and ourselves (Beeby, 1966). In reference to Beeby's excerpt, Cosby and Witt (2000) suggest that the definitions of quality education must be open to change and evolution based on the information, changing contexts, and new understandings of the nature of education's challenges. Bernard (1999) cited in UNICEF (2000:4) is of the view that

In all aspects of the school and its surrounding education community, the rights of the whole child, and all children, to survival, protection, development and participation are at the center. This means that the focus is on learning which strengthens the capacities of children to act progressively on their own behalf through the acquisition of relevant knowledge, useful skills and appropriate attitudes; and which creates for children, and helps them create for themselves and others, places of safety, security and healthy interaction.

To this extent, in order to realize and authenticate the quality of education, it is exigent that the human resources of the school, the actors of the quality (teachers) are maintained. Without that the dream of quality of education, remains a mirage. Gleaning on the excerpts from Cosby and Witt (2000) and Bernard (1999) quality of education in the context of this study refers to the stability of quality human resources of the school (teachers) to provide healthy, secured, useful skills and appropriate attitudes devoid of out-of-field teaching, arbitrary deployment of quality teachers (experience teachers) across schools, irrational cost in teacher replacement and maintaining staff cohesion to promote students' achievement.

2.7.1. Influence of Teacher Attrition on Quality of Education

According to Utah Foundation (2007) cited in Pitsoe (2013:315) “high teacher attrition can cause problems of educational quality, equity and efficiency”. Teacher attrition negatively impacts teacher quality and limits children’s access to a high-quality education this is because in attempt to replace the shortages will lead to the influx of inexperienced teachers in classrooms (Utah Foundation, 2007). Another associated consequence of

teacher attrition is that it tends to contribute to the unequal distribution of teacher quality across student populations. Pitsoe (2013:316) notes that “the most disadvantaged students attend schools with the highest teacher attrition rates and the lowest quality teachers”. Educational researchers unanimously agreed that teacher quality has an enormous impact on students’ achievement than any other school related factor Pitsoe (2013). Also, the quality of individual teachers varies widely. Because of the large impact of teachers on student achievement, unequal teacher quality, conflicts most governments’ commitment to equal educational opportunity (Pitsoe, 2013). Findings reveal high teacher attrition results in increased reliance on inexperienced teachers. The use of unqualified or under-qualified teachers is extensively documented in related studies. For instance, in the Gambia, it is reported that student teachers sent to schools for practice teaching, are often placed in charge of full classes and take the same responsibilities and workload as qualified teachers (Voluntary Service Overseas, 2007). Similarly in Ghana, unqualified teachers often "hold the fort" in rural schools in the absence of suitable qualified teachers (Hedges, 2002).

According to VSO (2007) one head teacher reported that in one year all six teachers in his school had left, and only two of the six replacements were qualified teachers. High attrition schools are more likely to get inexperienced teachers (Rockoff, 2004; Rivkin, Hanushek and Kain 2005; Kane, Rockoff & Staiger, 2006) or under qualified teachers, who are likely to be less effective (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Even if the replacement teachers are fully qualified, significant management time is absorbed in recruitment Rosenholtz (1985) cited in (Darling-Hammond, 2000) and there is discontinuity in teaching with the change to a new teacher Quartz et al. (2008).

Teacher attrition is costly. It imposes costs on education systems. There are financial, organizational, and instructional costs associated with teacher attrition (TNTP, 2012; Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, 2010; Cooper & Alvarado, 2006; Johnson, et al., 2005; NCTAF, 2003). Taxpayers and school districts pay a huge price for teacher attrition (Cooper & Alvarado, 2006; Johnson, et al., 2005; NCTAF, 2003). Because teachers are crucial for students' success, many schools struggle each year to fill the positions left vacant by departing teachers (Utah Foundation, 2007). Notwithstanding how crucial they are to the quality of education, they continue to leave the profession every year, particularly in poorer, lower performing schools (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2008). Their leaving has severe implications for the quality of teaching (IALEI, 2008: 44). In the US, it is estimated that each teacher leaving costs the employer about 30% of the annual salary in costs of substitution, recruitment and appointment. In addition, there is the far greater cost of preparing newly qualified teachers to fill these positions. Xaba (2003) highlighted that the consequences of teacher attrition are too ghastly to contemplate. Institute of Management (1999) posits that the impact of attrition is by way of increased costs to the organization, broadly categorized as separation, replacement, recruitment, selection, induction and training costs as well as loss of productivity while the newly hired teacher comes up to speed (Carrel et al., 1998; Special Reports, 1999).

Ntim (2013) buttresses that teacher attrition also imposes significant costs on education systems. His findings suggest that first, there is the cost of training new teachers. Teacher training is often financed from public funds, and as training is normally residential, it characteristically costs a multiple of the per capita cost of primary or even secondary schooling. Secondly, the inability to train sufficient teachers in many countries results in

the widespread use of unqualified teachers, with consequent impacts on quality. Third, the loss of teachers often results in long delays before recruitment of replacements, resulting in unfilled posts, and loss of teaching time, sometimes for months. The negative impact of high attrition is well recognized.

In Malawi, one study found secondary school students complaining that they were taught by more than three teachers in one term (Kadzamira, 2006). This shows the frequency of teachers' departure from the classroom and may not be different at the basic school level in South Dayi District. Ingersoll (2002) postulates that staffing problems are created when employees leave the organization and have to be replaced, especially since teacher turnover is highest among new teachers mostly within the first five years. "But perhaps more important, high attrition has damaging impacts on the quality of schooling" (Mills, 2001:1). In addition, increased teacher attrition and consequent limited teacher supply increases the need for out-of-field teaching, where teachers teach subjects they have not been trained for, and certified to teach. They call it "education's dirty little secret" (Brodbelt, 1990:1). The number of instructors who are teaching outside of their field is considerable (Sambe, 2015). In the United States, 21% of English teachers and 28% of math teachers did not take English or Math as a major nor minor in college (Archer, 1999) cited in Sambe (2015). They have had no focused educational background in the course they are teaching. In 1996, more than half of public-school students in history classes were taught by a teacher who did not take history in college (Ingersoll & Gruber, 1996). And according to the U.S. Department of Education, 71% of students in physical science classes were taught by a teacher who did not come from a physical science background (Ingersoll & Gruber, 1996). These numbers are staggering. In areas where

poverty is high, out-of-field teaching is even more pervasive (Sambe, 2015). The problem of out-of-field teaching is one that definitely needs attention (Sambe, 2015). These out-of-field teachers display poor teaching skills in both content and method. Students who pass through the hands of such teacher who may wish to specialize in these subject areas are hindered. Teacher morale is affected and there is likely to be a loss of public confidence in these teachers and teachers in general (Pitsoe, 2013).

According to Rasmussen (2008) in Denmark a higher probability of out-of-field teaching is foreseen due to teacher shortages especially, in the areas of natural sciences and foreign languages. According to Ingersoll (2002) attrition influences the performance and effectiveness of the school since the school as an organization has production processes requiring extensive interaction among educators and is therefore disposed to suffer when subjected to high rates of attrition. Consequently, attrition disrupts the quality of school cohesion and performance. The disruptive effects of attrition are unequally distributed, as teachers in the most difficult schools (the least desired posts) are more likely to leave, and more likely to be replaced by newly qualified or under-qualified teachers. A substantial research base provides evidence that staff cohesion and community are related to student engagement and achievement (Bryk, Lee & Holland, 1993; Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Johnson, Berg, & Donaldson, 2005; Little, 1982; Louis & Marks, 1998) cited in Ronfeldt, Lankford, Loeb & Wyckoff (2012). According to Bryk and Schneider (2002) the quality of relationships and the trust between teachers, and between teachers and students, predicts student achievement. Likewise, Little (1982) finds “patterned norms” of interaction among colleagues that also predict student achievement. When teachers leave schools, previously held relationships and relational patterns are altered. To the degree

that attrition disrupts the formation and maintenance of staff cohesion and community, it may also affect student achievement.

Guin (2004) shows that teacher turnover indeed has a negative effect on staff interactions and school climate. Likewise, a recent study by Hanselman, Grigg, Bruch, and Gamoran (2011:27) indicates that teacher and principal attrition has a disruptive effect on the “development and maintenance of social resources” including staff collegiality, community, and trust in a school. Moreover, these authors find the impact of attrition to be initially detrimental to “high resource” schools and initially beneficial to “low resource” schools. In other words, the disruptive influence of attrition can have either positive or negative effects depending on a school’s initial conditions. School instructional program coherence has also been shown to predict student achievement (Newman, Smith, Allensworth, & Bryk, 2001). Since staff attrition presents significant challenges to the successful and coherent implementation of such instructional programs (Guin, 2004) it also may harm student achievement. When leaving teachers go, organizational knowledge important to the effective implementation of such programs is lost (Ronfeldt et al.; 2012; Abelson & Baysinger, 1984). Moreover, newly hired teachers initially lack essential knowledge and skills to implement an unfamiliar instructional program, so must be brought up to speed before institutional progress can be made.

Ntim (2013) notes that the impact of teacher attrition tends to fall disproportionately on the poorest and most disadvantaged teachers, for a number of reasons. First, teacher shortages tend to result in uneven teacher deployment, as the qualified teachers are able to find places in the more desirable locations and are able to avoid deployment to remote rural schools. The same is true when there are shortages of teachers with specific

qualifications or subject specializations. Secondly, teacher attrition tends to create opportunities for inter-school mobility, often resulting in empty classrooms at the least desirable postings. Empty positions in desirable urban locations are often filled quickly, as teachers in less desired locations are able to arrange a transfer. The resulting vacancies in less desired remote schools are less easily filled, and may remain vacant for an extended period, or be filled by an unqualified teacher.

It is noted that where teacher attrition and mobility are high, the most remote schools tend to experience a high attrition of qualified staff, as teachers posted to the school seek a transfer as soon as possible. As a result of the combination of these factors, the most remote schools are more likely to have more inexperienced teachers, more unqualified teachers, and longer periods with vacant teacher positions Mulkeen (2010). Papanastasiou and Zembylas (2006) are of the view that the emotional relationships that teachers build with their students are central to how the teachers educate their students.

Improving the quality of education increasingly preoccupies the minds of policy makers and others. If the quality of education is the value to be added to the education system, this will be done mainly by positive teacher-learner interaction (VSO, 2002). The teachers' interaction with the learners is the axis on which educational quality turns. This is why the most effective teachers place great emphasis on the student-teacher relationships (Gay, in Bogler, 2001). As Carr (2005:265) notes, effective teacher-student relationships cultivate engaging pedagogical conversations that "hold the interest and imagination of young people" and serve to enhance the students' lives.

2.8. Summary of Review

Literature indicated that many terms are used for the action of teacher attrition. Terms such as leaving, alienation, transferring, burnout, shortage, turnover, dropout, and others are widely used in the literature in this regard (Alkabi, 2005). Johnson, Berg, and Donaldson (2005) note that the literature differentiates between the terms “turnover,” which refers to teachers leaving a school, “attrition,” which describes teachers leaving the profession, and “migration,” which happens when teachers move from one school to another. However, some researchers refer to both terms as an “umbrella term” to denote any movement the teacher makes out of the organization either temporarily or permanently (Ingersoll & May, 2012; Croasmun, Hampton & Herrmann, 2002; Rohr & Lynch, 1995; Miller, Brownell & Smith, 1999; Kang & Berliner, 2012; Grissmer & Kirby, 1987; Billingsley, 1993; Boe, Bobbitt, Cook, Whitener, & Weber, 1997; Miller, Brownell & Smith, 1999; Ingersoll & May, 2012; Kang & Berliner, 2001; Ingersoll, 2001). Following the position these researchers hold on both terms, the researcher refer to attrition as the collective term referring to teachers leaving their current schools, teaching district and the teaching service. It encompasses leaving teaching employment, teaching area transfer that is, switching or migrating from one teaching area to another. It encompasses voluntary and involuntary transfers and retirements. It also includes all teachers who leave the classroom and do not continue teaching, whether for short or long periods of time such as further studies or whatever the reason behind it might be. In this definition, even teachers who are promoted to a higher position in a school (away from teaching), such as principals, district education schedule officers, circuit supervisors, are considered part of the teacher attrition population.

It is evident from literature that low salaries push teachers out of school (Theobald, 1996; Stinebrickner, 2002; King, 1993; Kirby & Girissmer, 1995; Chapman, 1994; Murnane & Olsen, 1989; Benham & O'Brien, 2002; Darling-Hammond, 2003). In some less developed countries where salaries are too low to support a family, teachers feel it necessary to take a second job and end up leaving the service (Al Kaabi, 2005; International Labour Organization, 1991a; Kirby & Girissmer, 1995; Chapman, 1994; Murnane & Olsen, 1989; Benham & O'Brien (2002). Other researchers also identify low salaries and status (socio-economic factors) as a fueling factor in teacher attrition. The socio-economic factors include inadequate salary, lack of incentives, fringe benefits, and low status or prestige. These are major sources of dissatisfaction leading to teacher attrition (Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2005a; Clotfelter, Glennie, Ladd, & Vigdor, 2008; Hancock & Scherff, 2010; Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004; Loeb, Darling-Hammond, & Luczak, 2005; Swars, Meyers, Mays & Lack, 2009; Gates & Mtika, 2011; Wole, 2002). Moreover, it was also identified that salary differences, particularly compensation and bonuses, play an important role in teachers' decisions to move or stay (Adelabu, 2005; Clotfelter et al., 2008; Feng, 2009; Gates & Mtika, 2011). And an increase in salary and incentives brought a considerable raise in the teachers' job satisfaction, hence retention (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Liu & Meyer, 2005; Perie, et al., 1997; Shann, 1998; Jyoti & Sharma, 2006; Akiri & Ogborugbo, 2009; Hedges, 2002; Mereku, 2002).

Darling-Hammond (2003), Harris (2002), Benham and O'Brien (2002), Huberman (1993), Oliveria and Farrell (1993) and Brownell (1995) note that working conditions such as poorer facilities, less access to text books and supplies, less administrative

support, and larger class sizes classroom disrepair, poor sanitary facilities, lighting, and furniture, pressures of increased accountability and lack of administrative support play a major role in teachers' decisions to switch schools or leave the profession. (Hurren, 2006; Butt & Lance, 2005; Chisholm, Hoadley, Kivulu et al. 2005; Mengistu, 2012; Bennell & Akyempong, 2007). For that matter, to be a teacher is hard work, and requires coping with a considerable amount of adverse effects (Williams & Robertson, 1990; Kayuni & Tambulasi, 2007; Buwalda & Kok, 1991; Mwamwenda, Monyooe & Glencross, 1997; Milner & Khoza, 2008; Choi & Tang, 2009; Baker, 2007).

Another identified factor affecting teacher attrition was interpersonal factors. It was noted in literature that lack of positive parent-teacher relationships, supportive relationships with colleagues, group cohesion, and school community is a great source dissatisfaction for teachers and consequently leads to attrition (Kloep & Tarifa, 1994; Shann, 1998; Jyoti & Sharma, 2006; Perie, et al., Leithwood & McAdie, 2007; Smith, 1995). It was therefore concluded that teachers who work in a positive environment, who work under and with cooperative and supportive leaders and colleagues, carry out their responsibilities effectively (Papanastasiou & Zembylas, 2006; Choi & Tang, 2009). The last attrition factor seen in literature was demography. Demographic factors found in literature include retirement age and policies, and age profile of teaching force, family factors including teachers leaving because of marriage, child care responsibilities or ill health (UNESCO, 2004; OECD, 2002; Adams, 1996; Gritz & Theobald, 1996; Ingersoll, 2001b; Croasmun, Hampton & Herrmann, 2000; Marso & Pigge, 1995; Boe et al., 1997; Henke, Chen & Geis, 2000).

On teacher retention, Babel (2005) and Adesina (2000) and Kim (2005) and Asmah (1999) and Bennell (2004) and Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004) and Tansim (2006) and Akinwunmi (2000) and Adelabu (2005) are of the view that improving the salary and income conditions of teachers and making the profession more attractive are very instrumental in retaining high quality teachers. It was also identified in literature that cooperative and supportive relationships with colleagues are very important, and contribute to higher levels of employee job satisfaction (Weasmer & Woods, 2004; Johnson, 2006; Baker, 2007; Edgeron & Kritsonis, 2006; Tekleselassie, 2005; Ting, 1997). Relating to influence of attrition on quality education, it was discovered from literature that teacher attrition leads to the influx of inexperienced or under qualified teachers in classrooms in attempt to replace the shortages (Utah Foundation, 2007; Pitsoe, 2013; Voluntary Service Overseas, 2007; Rockoff, 2004; Rivkin, Hanushek & Kain, 2005; Kane, Rockoff & Staiger, 2006) and contributes to the unequal distribution of teacher quality across student populations (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Secondly, it imposes costs on education systems (TNTP, 2012; Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, 2010; Cooper & Alvarado, 2006; Johnson, et al., 2005; NCTAF, 2003 Cooper & Alvarado, 2006; Johnson, et al., 2005; NCTAF, 2003; Xaba, 2003; Institute of Management, 1999; Ntim, 2013). Also, it increases the need for out-of-field teaching teachers as a result of teacher shortage (Pitsoe, 2013; Rasmussen, 2008; Ingersoll & Grubber, 1996; Sambe, 2015).

Finally, attrition disrupts the quality of school cohesion and performance (Bryk, Lee, & Holland, 1993; Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Johnson, Berg & Donaldson, 2005; Little, 1982; Louis & Marks, 1998; Ronfeldt, Lankford, Loeb & Wyckoff, 2012).

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the methods used in conducting the study. Themes such as the research design, population, sample and sampling technique are described. The research instruments and data collection procedure as well as the pre-testing of instruments are described. The chapter finally highlights the data analysis plan.

3.2. Research Design

Human behavior is dynamic, therefore, to help gain wide and an in-depth understanding of factors affecting attrition of teachers, adopting only one of the two traditional approaches (qualitative or quantitative) to research will only yield shallow information (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Therefore, in order to explore the factors affecting teacher attrition, it was important to combine qualitative and quantitative methodologies for data collection and analysis in the study.

In this study, a concurrent triangulation mixed method research design was used for data collection and analysis, which involves using numerical and verbal data in order to gather reliable and valid results. According to Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann and Hanson (2003) a mixed method design involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and/or qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority, and involve the integration of the data at one or more stages in the process of research. Elliot (2005) opines that the

fundamental principle of mixed method research is that the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches provide a better understanding of the problem than either approach can achieve alone. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) argued that the mixed method research design provides strength to the weakness of quantitative and qualitative research design. Thus, the design is able to offset the weakness of both quantitative and qualitative research design used separately in a study. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) further argued that the mixed method provide researchers the opportunity to draw on a wide range of tools of data collection in order to comprehensively study and understand a problem. In addition, mixed method research also helps to answer questions that cannot be answered by a single approach. It also encourages collaboration of researchers across the two fields of inquiry. Morse (1991) came out with two main types of mixed method research and they are: simultaneous and sequential. Subsequently, other researchers including Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) have also enumerated types of this design to include: sequential explanatory, sequential exploratory, sequential transformative, concurrent transformative, concurrent embedded and concurrent triangulation design.

When measuring and exploring the factors affecting attrition of teachers, where teachers have different background characteristics and various reasons for leaving, a mixed method concurrent triangulation design is best suited. The concurrent design was selected because the researcher used two different methods in an attempt to confirm, cross-validate, or corroborate findings within the study (Greene et al., 1989; Morgan, 1998; Steckler et al., 1992). This design generally uses separate quantitative and qualitative methods as a means to offset the weaknesses inherent within one method

with the strengths of the other method. In this case, the quantitative data collection and qualitative data collection are concurrent, happening during one phase of the research study and the results of the two methods are integrated during the interpretation phase (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003), either to note the convergence of the findings as a way to strengthen the knowledge claims of the study or to explain any lack of convergence that may result (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003). The design was advantageous because it resulted in well-validated and substantiated findings. Secondly, data collection period was short as compared to that of the sequential designs. On the opposite side, it required great effort and expertise to adequately study a phenomenon with two separate methods (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003).

Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, and Hanson (2003) note that concurrent triangulation design occurs in two parallel phases with the view of establishing congruence between quantitative and qualitative data where in many cases the same individuals provide both qualitative and quantitative data so that the data can be more easily compared. In this study, questionnaire and semi-interview guide were used to gather quantitative and qualitative data respectively. The questionnaire was administered by the researcher to seek the views, attitudes and opinions of teachers on the factors affecting their attrition and the semi-interview guide was also administered in order to cross validate the factors affecting teacher attrition in the South Dayi District.

3.3. Population of the Study

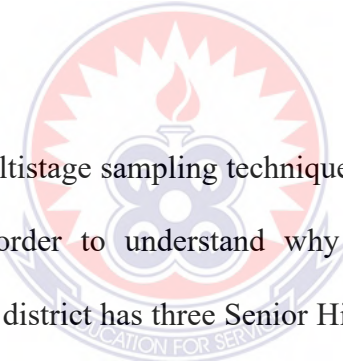
Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) define population as a larger group to which one hopes to apply the result of a study. It is an entire group of people or objects or events which all have at least one characteristics in common. A population thus refers to a group of subjects of interest to the researcher. Castillo (2009), differentiate between two types of population, the target population and the accessible population. The target population is the total group of subjects to which the researcher would like to generalize the result of the study, and the accessible population is the group of subjects that is accessible to the researcher for a study from which samples can be drawn.

The target population of study therefore, comprises all basic school teachers and District Directorate Officers in the Volta Region of Ghana. The accessible population consists of the basic school teachers and related District Education Directorate Officers in the South Dayi District. Per accessible population, the available statistics obtained from the District Education Office at South Dayi put the entire population of teachers in the basic schools at 566 in 2014/2015 academic year. Teachers were predominantly used for the study because they have various reasons for choosing and accepting postings into the South Dayi District, why they stay or do not stay in the district for long. They also have various reasons for leaving their respective schools or the district to another.

3.4. Sample Size and Sampling Technique

A sample is a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole (Webster, 1985). Field (2005) also opines that a sample is a

smaller but representative collection of units from a population used to determine truths about that population. When choosing a sample, there are two important issues that must be given attention. Firstly, will the sample be representative of the population? Secondly, will the sample be precise enough (Kulshreshtha, 2013). These two issues according to Trochim (2006) should be given a priority so that a fairly generalization can be made of the results back to the population from which they were chosen. Mugo (2002) notes that there are six main reasons for sampling instead of doing a census. These are: economy, timeliness, the large size of many populations, inaccessibility of some of the population, destructiveness of the observation and accuracy. These reasons underpin the need for sampling in this study.

The logo of the University of Education, Winneba, is a circular emblem. It features a central lamp with a flame, set against a background of a sunburst. The lamp is flanked by two open books. Below the lamp, the motto "EDUCATION FOR SERVICE" is inscribed. The entire emblem is surrounded by a decorative border.

The researcher used the multistage sampling technique. The South Dayi District was first conveniently selected in order to understand why teacher attrition phenomenon is rampant in the district. The district has three Senior High Schools, one vocational school, seventy two (72) public and twenty (20) private basic schools, totaling 92 basic schools. The 72 public basic schools composed of 40 Primary schools and 32 Junior High Schools. Secondly, using the list of schools in the district as the sample frame, a simple random sampling without replacement technique was used to select 40 public basic schools for the study. This was done by listing number against the name of each school on the sample frame on pieces of paper and placed in a box. The box was shuffled after each pick until the 40 schools were gotten. The researcher selected only the public schools because the scope of the study is centered on public basic schools.

However, to determine the sample size for the study, Hill (1998) notes that the calculation of an appropriate sample size generally depends upon the size of the population in question. On how large a sample should be, Gay and Diehl (1992) indicate that the correct answer to this question is "Large enough" they claim is indeed the correct answer. Several researchers indicate that to a point, the more data is collected the better, since statistical power is improved by increasing the sample size and thereby yielding statistically significant results (Martin & Bateson; 1986 Gay & Diehl, 1992)) Highlighting the similar assertion, Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2005) note that sample size is potentially the most influential element for studies using multiple regression analysis. The impact of sample size is seen in statistical power of the significance testing and generalizability of results (Hair et. al., 2005).

Roscoe (1975) is also of the view that in multivariate research, for instance, multiple regression, a sample size should be at least ten times larger than the number of variables being considered. However, Hill (1998) conducted a study which is related to the use of a specific IQ test where the population mean is known to be 100 and the population standard deviation is known to be 15. Hill (1998) subjected the scenario to seven different formulae found in the literature for establishing sample size. According to Hill (1998) the result produced seven different "required" sample sizes, with enormous spread that is from a sample size of 35 through to 400 for the same research scenario. Based on outcome of the study, Hill (1998:8) reinforces that "there is no one accepted method of determining necessary sample size".

Referencing (Gay & Diehl, 1992; Martin & Bateson, 1986; Roscoe, 1975; Hair et. al., 2005), Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) who emphasized that "it is comforting to have at

least 300 cases for PCA”, and Hill (1998) the researcher used approximately 50% (285) of the total population of teachers in the district with the aim of improving statistical power of the study. The 285 samples was arrived at using a simple mathematical formula $\frac{50.4}{100} \times 566 = 285$.

To obtain the 285 samples from the 40 schools, the probability proportional to size sampling technique was used. Probability Proportional to Size Sampling (PPS) according to Kulshreshtha (2013) is the procedure of sampling in which the units are selected with probability proportional to a given measure of size, in that larger units are given higher chance of selection than smaller units. Isabirye (2006:1) buttresses that “PPS reduces standard error and bias by increasing the likelihood that a sampling unit from a larger population will be chosen over a sampling unit from a smaller population”. The probability proportional to size sampling was used as a result of the unequal number of teachers in the sampled schools. The number of teacher respondents was arrived at using a simple proportion formula by dividing the number of teachers in a school (x) by the total number of teachers in the district, that is 566 and multiplying it by the total number of respondents 285, chosen as the sample size for the study. Mathematically, this is given as $\frac{x}{566} \times 285$, where x is the number of teachers in a particular school. This technique was used to determine the number of teachers to be given questionnaire in each school.

However, in each school, the staff list was used as the sampling frame. The number against each name on the sampling frame was written on a piece of paper and placed in a box. The box was repeatedly shuffled and the pieces of the papers were randomly picked by the researcher until the required number of samples to be given questionnaire to answer in the school was arrived at. A teacher whose number on the sampling frame

matches with the paper picked, is given a questionnaire to respond to. This method was replicated in each of the 40 selected schools until the 285 teacher respondents was reached. The reason for using simple random sampling method was to allow each and every member of the population an equal and independent opportunity of being selected for the study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). The fundamental requirement for the use of this method, is that, the population should be homogeneous (Neuman, 2000) and in this instance, teachers were involved.

Purposive sampling technique was employed in the selection of the personnel from the District Education Office of South Dayi. Purposive sampling technique is used when the researcher selects particular element from the population that will be informative about the topic under consideration McMillan (1996). Based on this, three (3) Circuit Supervisors, two (2) of the front-line Assistant Directors of Education (Human Resource and Supervision) and the District Director were purposively selected for the study. These personnel supervise, recruit, transfer and work with teachers in the district. It was therefore presumed that interviewing them would yield useful results. In totality, the sample population for the study stood at 291.

3.5. Instrumentation

The instruments used for data collection were structured questionnaire and semi-structured interview guide.

3.5.1. Structured Questionnaire

Structured questionnaire was used to gather data from selected participants for the study. The structured questionnaire was chosen because it guaranteed the confidentiality of the respondents and helped saved time (Radhakrishna, Leite & Baggett, 2003). Patton (2002) emphasizes that 90% of researches in social sciences are conducted using questionnaires. However, the questionnaires were found to be disadvantageous in the sense that some of the respondents who received them failed to return the questionnaire on time. Amin (2005) stipulates that the disadvantage of questionnaire is the low return rate. In order to ameliorate the return rate of the questionnaire, the researcher trained research assistants among the respondents to help retrieve the questionnaire within the stipulated time frame. The structured questionnaire was used to elicit the views of basic teachers on factors affecting teacher attrition and retention. The questionnaire consist of items that enabled the collection of numerical data for statistical analysis. Moreover, it was discovered that most of the respondents felt comfortable responding to the pre-determined responses than items that would require them to express their views and feelings (Kusi, 2012).

3.5.2. Attrition and Retention Questionnaire Instrument (ARQI)

A questionnaire on Factors Affecting Basic School Teachers' Attrition and Retention [ARQI] designed by the researcher (Appendix A) was used to gather data on factors that

affect attrition and retention of teachers. The questionnaire consisted of three sections; A, B, and C. Section A contained eight items that elicited information on the biographic data of the respondents. The items sought data on respondents' gender, professional status and qualifications, age, marital status, home district and region. The biographic data was in tune with the purpose of the study since information that would be generated from this would provide an insight into issues bothering on factors affecting teachers' attrition and retention in the district.

Section B consisted of twenty (20) items that elicited information on factors affecting attrition and retention of teachers. A 5-point Likert scale with options: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree, was used to ascertain the level of the respondents' view on factors affecting attrition and retention of teachers. Finally, section C consists of four (4) items, numbered from 21 -24, which principally measure the influence of teacher attrition on the quality of education.

3.5.3. Semi-Structured Interview

An interview is viewed as a method of field investigation which involves person-to-person interaction between researchers and respondents during which specific questions are asked for specific answers (Creswell, 2007). This method is applicable when respondents are willing to talk and have knowledge of the research problem. An interview can either be structured, semi-structured and unstructured (Karma, 1999; Twumasi, 2001). In the context of this study, semi-structured interview guide which allows new ideas to be brought up during the interview was administered to elicit information from teachers and district education office workers respectively. The purpose

of the semi-structured interview was to enable the researcher probe the respondents on the questionnaire for further clarification and to obtain in-depth information. The interview was conducted on the District Director, her two frontline Assistant Directors in charge of Human Resource and Supervision, and three Circuit Supervisors. Five teachers who formed part of the 285 teachers selected for the questionnaire, were also interviewed. The conversation was taped and later transcribed by the researcher manually and themes were drawn from it (see Appendix B, and C).

3.6. Reliability and Validity of the Instruments

Reliability refers to the consistency in measurement (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2012). Ofori and Dampson (2011) posit that reliability is the extent to which an instrument would produce similar measurement, when given similar conditions. Saunder, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) refer to reliability as consistency or 'dependability' of measurement or the extent to which an instrument measures the same way each time it is under the same conditions with the same subjects. A reliability of an instrument is therefore, the ability of the instrument to produce the same results when tested on two different occasions under similar circumstances or conditions (Cortina, 1993). To establish the reliability coefficient for the questionnaire, a Cronbach alpha was calculated with the help of SPSS version 20.0 for windows 08 to reach an alpha of 0.75 for Attrition and Retention Questionnaire Instrument (ARQI). The instrument was judged reliable since McMillan and Schumacher (1997) recommends that instruments used in basic research have reliability of about .70 or better.

It is believed human behaviour is dynamic, it is probable for one's response to a similar question to change over time (Kusi 2012). The researcher therefore choose

trustworthiness, a criteria for determining quality of the qualitative component of the instrument (interview). The elements of these criteria are: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Credibility standard of a qualitative research requires a study to be believable to critical readers and to be approved by the persons who provided the information gathered during the study (Webb, Campbell, Schwartz & Sechrest, 2000). Credibility for this study was achieved through triangulation that is, more than one method was used in the collection of data for the study and also through prolonged engagement of participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Transferability criterion refers to the applicability of findings in one context; where the research is done to other contexts or settings where the interpretations might be transferred (Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, & Sechrest, 2000). There was transferability because there were contextual similarities between the pretest setting and the researched setting. Confirmability was achieved by using audit trail in which the researcher ensured that transcriptions emerged directly from data collected. (Carcary, 2009).

Validity is the degree to which an instrument indeed measures what it purports to evaluate (Crocker & Algina, 1986). The validity of this study was ascertained through:

3.6.1. Face Validity

According to Anastasi (1988), face validity refers, not to what the test actually measures, but to what it appears superficially to measure. Face validity pertains to whether the test "looks valid" to the examinees who take it, the administrative personnel who decide on its use, and other technically untrained observers. Face validity in this study was reached by giving the instruments to colleague graduate students at the University of Education,

Winneba and some basic school teachers in Kpando District for perusal. Issues such as length of questions, wording of questions and general state of cluster are some of the factors were critiqued and attended to.

3.6.2. Content Validity

Content validity is the extent to which the elements within a measurement procedure are relevant and representative of the construct that they will be used to measure (Haynes Richard & Kubany, 1995). Content validity gauges whether there has been adequate coverage of the investigative questions guiding the study (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). It indicates that the technique assess or measures what it is supposed to measure (Jones, Torres & Arminio, 2006). It is judgmental assessment on how the content of a scale represents the measures. According to Cooper, et. al, (2008), there are two ways of determining content validity. One way is, the designer may determine it through a careful definition of the topic of concern, the items to be scaled, and the scale to be used. Another way is the researcher's supervisor who is an expert may judge how well the instrument meets the standard. In this case, the instruments were shown to statisticians and the researcher's headmaster to ascertain content validity. Initially, the researcher's supervisor commented on the representativeness and suitability of the questions.

3.6.3. Construct Validity

Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) refer to construct validity as the nature of characteristics measured by the instrument. Construct validity is divided into two categories. These are: convergent and discriminant validities (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). According to Campbell and Fiske (1959) the convergent validity coefficients are the correlations between

measures of the same trait that are obtained with different measurement methods. Conversely, discriminate measure constructs are theoretically different or are observed not be related to each other. Convergent validity therefore, describes the level to which a scale correlates with each other, and measures the same construct. Discriminant validity on other hand, refers to the degree to which a measure is clearly different from other measures. Convergent validity shows the homogeneity of measures in the same constructs and discriminant explains heterogeneity between constructs. Convergent validity implies that different methods studying the same construct should produce a relatively high inter-correlation, whilst discriminant validity that use similar methods for researching different constructs should yield relatively low inter-correlations (Cohen, et al., 2001). In this study context, the researcher intends to maximize the relationships between measures in the same construct; and also to distinguish one construct from other construct, therefore, factor analysis was used to determine the construct adequacy of a measuring instrument (Cooper et al., 2008).

3.7. Pre-testing the Instruments

The pre-test of the research instruments was conducted in six selected basic schools in Kpando District in the Volta Region of Ghana. In all, fifty (50) teachers from three (3) primary and three (3) Junior High Schools were selected for the pre-testing exercise. The schools chosen were Kpando Aziave R/C Primary and Junior High School, Gabi D/A Junior High and Primary School, and Kpando E.P Junior High and Primary School. In addition to the 50 selected teachers; the Assistant Director (Human Resource) and two circuit supervisors, all of the same district, were also selected to participate in the pre-testing of the interview guide. The pre-testing was conducted in these schools in Kpando

district to avoid giving the interviewees the fore-knowledge about the information required; which will lead to pre-determined responses during the actual study (Kusi, 2012). Opie (2004:105), also argues that “those undertaking the pilot will have become sensitized to the questions so that any answers they give in the main study will be influenced in a different way from those who have not”. Moreover, the setting shares similar characteristics as the setting of the study, and with people characteristics as the participants in the actual study (Kusi, 2012). Hence, there is a possibility of similar reliability result.

Fifty set of the structured questionnaire was administered to the 50 teachers and the interview guide was also administered to the Assistant District Director and the two circuit supervisors. The pre-test enabled the researcher to restructure the wording and construction of sentences/questions where answers provided by respondents showed that there were unclear structures in some items. Issues of appropriateness of language and workspace were dealt with. Experts’ suggestions indicated that 12 of the items were duplicated and thus, were measuring the same thing in the questionnaire, and therefore were eliminated from the 32 items for further analysis.

3.8. Data Collection Procedure

This section of the study describes how the questionnaire and the interview guide were administered. The major mode of the administration of the research instruments was personal contacts by the researcher with the respondents. Before the administration of the data collection instruments, a letter of introduction was obtained from the Head of Department of Basic Education, University of Education, Winneba. The letter was used to explain the purpose of the study and to solicit the cooperation of all respondents and to

assure the respondents of the confidentiality of their responses. In all, six weeks were used for the collection of data.

3.9. Data Analysis Procedure

Analysis involves the breaking up of data into manageable themes, patterns, trend and relationships (Berg, 2001). Greenfield (2002) enunciates that qualitative data analysis is primarily an inductive process. Greenfield further explains that inductive analysis means categories and patterns emerge from data rather than being imposed on prior to data collection. Gleaning on Greenfield's assertion, the interview data in the study were analyzed using the inductive analysis strategies. This was done by identifying common themes from the respondents' description of their experiences and views. Irrelevant pieces of information were separated from relevant ones from the data collected through the interview. The relevant pieces of information were categorized into sentences that reflected a single, specific thought or idea. The sentences were further grouped into categories that showed the various aspects of meaning. The various meanings identified were used to develop an overall description as seen by the respondents. Moreover, data collected from the questionnaire were analyzed in two ways. Descriptive analysis and inferential statistics were generated to produce an overall picture of responses from the questionnaires. According to Bartz (1971) in a research study with large data, descriptive statistics helps to manage the data and present it in a summary table. Inferential statistics helps to discover some property or general pattern about a large group by studying a smaller group of people in the hopes that the results will generalize to the larger group Ternes (2015). The descriptive statistics was used to describe and summarize patterns of respondents' responses and the inferential statistics was used to generalize findings of the

study. Principal Component Analysis, precisely Factor Analysis was used to extract factors affecting attrition in the study with the help of SPSS version 20 for Window 08.

Parametric techniques (Pearson product-moment correlation and independent samples t-test) were used to answer the hypotheses of the study. According Fraenkel and Wallen (2009:229) “in most cases parametric techniques are most appropriate for interval data”. The parametric technique was used because the measurement on the variables was scaled and the distances between the points on the scale were equal (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). Pearson product-moment correlation was used to determine the association between teacher attrition and quality of education, the independent samples t-test was used to find out the difference between teachers’ marital status and attrition.

3.10. Ethical Consideration

Ethics according to Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) refers to questions of right and wrong. They further note that when researchers think about ethics, they must ask themselves if it is “right” to conduct a particular study or carry out certain procedures (p. 53). The ethical issues that governed this study were the permission obtained for data collection, debriefing, voluntary participation, protection of participants, confidentiality and anonymity.

3.10.1. Debriefing

Debriefing is the process of informing the participant about the purpose of the experiment and about any deception that may have been used. This is done to increase the participant’s understanding of the research in which she or he was involved, and to

remove or protect the participant from any possible harmful effects that may have inadvertently come about due to her/his participation. A good rule is to make sure that the participant leaves feeling as good as when she or he arrived (Gottman, 1979). Prior to the conduct of the interviews, the researcher explained the purpose of the study. The respondents were briefed on the procedures that need to be followed in the conduct of the interview. Details about date, venues for the study were clearly explained to respondents. Probable misconceptions about the study were attended to by the researcher.

3.10.2. Voluntary Participation

Before administering the interview, the researcher informed the respondents that their participation in the study was voluntary, that they may withdraw from the study at any time if they wish to do so (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Newman, 2000; Patton, 2001; Seidman, 1998). However, the participants were informed that their participation was vital for the study, in that it will contribute to the understanding of why teachers leave the district.

3.10.3. Informed Consent

Informed consent was obtained from respondents who were willing to participate in the study. Informed consent was also obtained from the District Education Directorate. On receiving this, the researcher sort the consent of teachers by informing them about the study, for instance, how the study will be carried out, the nature of their participation, the time required, kind of data to be collected and how it will be used (Berg, 1995; Seidman, 1998; Kelinger & Lee, 2000; Newman, 2000; Berg, 2001; Patton, 2001; Liamputtong &

Ezzy, 2005). Respondents were prompted that they could ask and sort clarifications on baffling issues.

3.10.4. Protection of Participants

Participants were assured that there were no known medical risks associated with the study (Seidman, 1998; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Newman, 2000; Patton 2001; Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2005). Efforts were instituted to ensure that participants were protected from any discomfort that might arise from the study.

3.10.5. Confidentiality

The researcher assured the participants that all information divulged would be treated with outmost confidentiality. They were reliably informed that the data obtained will only be used for purely academic purposes and no third party will have access to it. In an effort to ascertain this, names for participants in the study were omitted (Seidman, 1998; Berg, 1995; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Newman, 2000; Patton, 2001; Liamputtong & Ezzy, 2005). Participants were further assured that should their anonymity be threatened, all records collated would be destroyed. This was said in order to avoid biases in response from respondents. Data collected were safely kept. Softy copies of data collected were protected by password on the researcher's computer and all audible ones were locked. However, all documents collected will be destroyed after the completion of the study and when they are no longer needed by the University.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with four major sections. The first section deals with the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The second section presents answers on the study research questions; the third section addresses the results of the proposed hypotheses of the study while the fourth section provides the discussion of the findings of the study.

4.2. SECTION A- Demographic Characteristics of Teachers

Table 4.1: Demographic Characteristics of Teachers

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Sex		
Male	161	56.5
Female	124	43.5
Profession status		
Professional	226	79.3
Non professional	59	20.7
Age		
Below 30	116	40.7
30-39	112	39.3
40-49	29	10.2
50-59	28	9.8
Duration of teaching		
1-5	142	49.8
6-10	92	32.3
10-15	30	10.5
16+	21	7.4
Marital status		
Married	154	54.0
Engaged	27	9.5
Single	103	36.1
Divorced	1	.4
Variable	Frequency	Percentage

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Academic Qualification		
Master's degree	6	2.1
First degree	107	37.5
Diploma	130	45.6
Cert. A	15	5.3
SSSCE/WASCE	8	2.8
HND	16	5.6
MSLC	1	.4
O' Level	1	.4
PGD	1	.4
Home Region		
Volta	250	87.7
Greater Accra	8	2.8
Northern	4	1.4
Ashanti	4	1.4
Eastern	18	6.3
Central	1	.4
Home District		
South Dayi	59	20.7
North Dayi	26	9.1
Kpando	36	12.6
Hohoe	34	11.9
Ho	39	13.7
South Torngu	11	3.9
Ketu North	10	3.5
Ketu South	7	2.5
Biakoye	10	3.5
Keta	12	4.2
Akatsi	7	2.5
Asuogyamang	14	4.9
Jasikan	3	1.1
Ashaiman	2	.7
Adaklu	5	1.8
Gomoa East	1	.4
Bantama	1	.4
Ningo Prampram	3	1.1
Tamale	1	.4
Yilo Krobo	4	1.4

Source: Field Data – Questionnaire (June, 2015)

The sex distribution of the teacher respondents indicated differences with 161 males representing 56.5% and 124 female teachers representing 43.5%. This shows that majority of teachers sampled for the study were males and this is because the number of male teachers exceeds the number of female teachers in the district. Two hundred and twenty six (226) of the teachers were professionally trained teachers, representing 79.3%

and 59 representing 20.7% were non-professionals. There is a probability that these 59 non - professionals teachers would leave the service if they secure an employment in the field which they are trained for.

The dominant age group of participants was below 30 years. They were 116 forming 40.7%, followed by 30 – 39 years, 112 representing 39.3%. This was followed by the age group 40 -49 years, 29 representing 10.2 % whereas 50-59 years made up the smallest group, representing 28 (9.8%) of teachers. This is a reflection that the teaching force in the district is a young workforce that is the age group between below 30 – 49 years, representing 228 (80%) of the population of teachers in the district. The vibrant workforce lies between this age range and as youth, these have lots of plans, aspirations and goals to meet. It is therefore perceived that their responses would yield vital results for the study. 142 representing 49.8% have been teaching in the district for period between 1-5 years, 92 representing 32.3% have been in the district between 6 – 10 years interval, 30 of them representing 10.5% have been in the district for the period 11 – 15 years. 21 representing 7.4 % have been in the district for 16 and above years. This signifies that teachers do not stay in the district for long. It is likely that teachers who stay for the intervals of 1 – 5 years and 6 – 10 will be leaving the district.

Majority of the respondents, 154 forming 54% were married, 27 representing 9.5% are engaged and 103 representing 36.15 are single and 1 forming .4% got divorced. There is likelihood that most of the married teachers will like to join their partners in future, the engaged and the single may get married and might request for transfer to leave the district.

Moreover, majority of the teachers in the district i.e. 130 representing 45.6% were diploma holders, whereas, 107 representing 37.5% were degree holders. 6 (2.1%) had master's degree, 15 (5.3%) had Cert. "A". 16 (5.6%) were HND holders, 8 (2.8%) were SSSCE/WASCE holders, 1 forming .4% had MSLC, 1 representing .4% had PGD and 1 representing .4% as well had O' Level certificate. It implies that majority of the teachers holding diploma, 130 (45.5%), HND 16 (5.6%), and SSSCE/WASCE 8 (2.8%) may be leaving for further studies. Those with the master's degree 6 (2.1%) are also likely to leave or get promoted from the basic school level. In all, about 56.4% of the teachers are likely to leave the district in some years to come (see Table 4.1).

4.3. Data Presentation and Analysis of Research Questions

4.3.1. Research Question One - What factors are responsible for teacher attrition in South Dayi District?

This research question was meant to explore the factors responsible for teacher attrition in the study area. It further sought to assess the degree to which these identified factors were causing teacher attrition in the district. Factor analysis was done to explore the various attrition factors while mean scores and their standard deviation were used to assess the degree to which these factors were contributing to teacher attrition in the South Dayi District.

A Likert-type scale containing 20 items on attrition, 8 items on retention and 8 items were on quality of education were administered to 285 respondents. The 20 items on teacher attrition were subjected to Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation with the help of SPSS version 20. Prior to the analysis, the suitability of the data

for factor analysis was assessed. The potentiality of the items were confirmed using factor loading exceeding .3. The idea of using 0.3 was because the greater the loading, the higher the variable is efficient to measure what it is supposed to measure and to make interpretation easier. The initial Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure, verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, (KMO) was .796. A bare minimum value of 0.5 is recommended and values between 0.7 and 0.8 are good (Kaiser, 1974; Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). The obtained KMO value (0.796) therefore can be described as good according to Kaiser’s rule of thumb. The Bartlett’s test of sphericity on the other hand reached statistical significance [χ^2 (190) = 1380.927, $p < .000$] supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The commonalities on the other hand, were all above 0.3. The inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many correlation coefficients of 0.3 and above for all variables. Larose (2006), notes the following criteria used for deciding how many components to extract: Eigenvalue criterion, Proportion of variance explained criterion, Minimum communality criterion and Scree plot criterion.

The eigenvalue criterion states that each component should explain at least one variable’s worth of the variability, and therefore the eigenvalue criterion states that only components with eigenvalues greater than 1 should be retained. Thus, an initial analysis was run to obtain Eigen values for each component in the data. Six (6) factors had Eigen values over Kaiser’s criterion of 1 (K-1) and in combination explained 59.216% of the variance (refer to Appendix D1).

The scree plot (Appendix D2) on the other hand, was slightly ambiguous and showed variations that would justify retaining about four factors which explain about 44.128% of

the total variance. Given the sample size, and the convergence of the scree plot and Kaiser's criterion on six factors, retaining these factors will not give a true result in the further analysis. The Cronbach alpha obtained was 0.669. Meanwhile, Nunnally (1978) recommends that instruments used in basic research have reliability of about .70 or better. McMillan and Schumacher (1997) Rothbard and Edwards (2003:713) reported that "all reliabilities exceeded the .70 criterion suggested by Nunnally (1978) and were considered acceptable". Lance, Butts & Michels (2006) conducted a Social Science Index citation search of the Nunnally (1978) text for the years 2000 to 2004 inclusive for 11 journals and identified 90 citations, of which a full 44% alleged .70 reliability cut off criterion.

Nunnally (1978:245) opines "what a satisfactory level of reliability is depends on how a measure is being used. In the early stages of research, one saves time and energy by working with instruments that have only modest reliability, for which purpose reliabilities of .70 or higher will suffice. In contrast to the standards in basic research, in many applied settings a reliability of .80 is not nearly high enough."

Referencing Nunnally's assertion, the Cronbach alpha 0.669 obtained is questionable.

The researcher therefore made a close observation of the Item Total Statistics indicates that eight (8) out of the 20 items had corrected item-total correlation that were less than 0.2 Which suggests that their exclusion can help the Cronbach alpha appreciate in value; hence they were removed (see Appendix D3). After their elimination, a re-run of the twelve (12) items, gave a Cronbach of .822 which is described as good (Nunnally et. al., 1978). The KMO value on the other hand, increased from .796 to a meritorious level of .825 (Kaiser & Rice, 1974).

The remaining 12 items were again subjected to Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax Rotation (Kaiser Normalization) with the help of SPSS version 20. (Guttman, 1954; Kaiser, 1960) are of the view that one should keep the number of factors for rotation and interpretation whose eigenvalues are greater than 1.00. Tryfos (2001), Knafl (2005), Pallant (2005), Field (2009) among other researchers are of the view that, the most widely used orthogonal rotation method among the three found in SPSS, is the Varimax. This is because “it, attempts to maximize the dispersion of loadings within factors. The orthogonal (varimax) analysis will identify factors that are entirely independent of each other. Therefore, “it tries to load a smaller number of variables highly onto each factor resulting in more interpretable clusters of factors” (Field, 2009:644). In the extraction and interpretation of components, some researchers (Larose, 2006; Steven, 1996) have suggested that the loading or weight of the variable on the component should exceed a magnitude (absolute) of 0.4 in order for the variable to have a practical significance in the formation of the component. The researcher therefore used a loading of 0.4 as a cut-off value in order to aid the interpretation of the components.

Table 4.2: Unrotated Component Matrix

No. of Variables	Unrotated Components Matrix		
	1	2	3
1	.459	.477	-.125
2	.569	.588	.077
3	.626	.532	.059
4	.516	-.393	.286
5	.540	-.439	.001
6	.567	-.097	-.587
7	.608	.280	.172
8	.658	-.155	-.254
9	.654	-.174	-.421
10	.610	.058	.454
11	.568	-.477	.260
12	.592	-.187	.126

Source: Field Data – Questionnaire (June, 2015)

A look at the Unrotated Component Matrix (Table 4.2) indicate that it was not clear as to the number of components to retain because almost all the variables/items loaded to component one, thus, the need for Varimax rotation.

4.3: Rotated Component Matrix

Factors	Factor Loading			Commonality
	1	2	3	
Factors 1 – (alpha = .741)				
Q1	.627			.453
Q2	.814			.676
Q3	.801			.679
Q7	.612			.478
Factors 2 – (alpha = .703)				
Q4		.697		.503
Q5		.585		.484
Q10		.584		.581
Q11		.764		.618
Q12		.538		.402
Factors 3 – (alpha = .697)				
Q6			.801	.675
Q8			.586	.522
Q9			.725	.634

Source: Field Data – Questionnaire (June, 2015)

The three factors identified in the Varimax rotation had Eigen values over Kaiser Criterion of 1 and in combination explained 55.873% (see Appendix D5) of the variance. In the determination of the number of components to retain, Larose (2006) has observed that Social Scientists may be content for their components to explain only 60% or so of the variability, since human response factors are so unpredictable, whereas natural Scientists might expect their components to explain 90 to 95% of the variability, since their measurements are intrinsically less variable. However the variability explained by the three components is not far from Larose's view.

The scree plot on the other hand as a criterion for deciding on what number of components to retain, exhibited a variation that would justify retaining three factors, which explained 55.873%. (See Appendix D6).

The Component Matrix, Table 4.3 shows the factor loadings after rotation. The items that cluster on the same factor (variable) suggest that factor 1 represents Socio-Economic factors which comprises item 1, 2, 3 and 7 with Eigen value of 4.081, explaining a total variance of 34.010%. Factor 2 represents Managerial factors. It comprises items 4, 5, 10, 11 and 12 which had an Eigen value of 1.612, explaining a total variance of 13.429%. Factor 3 represents Interpersonal factors, which is made up of items 6, 8 and 9. This factor had an Eigen value of 1.012, explaining 8.434% of the total cumulative variance.

To assess the weight and the extent to which these identified factors were causing attrition in the district, mean and standard deviation scores were calculated for the three identified attrition factors. The result of the finding is presented in Table 4.4

Table 4.4: Mean and their standard deviation for Attrition Factors

Attrition Factors	Mean	Standard Deviation
Socio-economic Factors	15.18	3.5
Managerial Factors	13.70	4.0
Inter-personal Factors	9.24	3.0

Source: Field Data – Questionnaire (June, 2015)

Table 4.4 shows the mean and standard deviation values of how the respondents rated the factors causing teacher attrition in the district. The mean marks ranged between 15.18 and 9.24 while the standard deviation ranged from 3.0 to 4.0. Results from Table 4.4 reveal that, the teacher respondents rated socio-economic factors as the highest ($M = 15.18$, $SD = 3.5$) factor causing teacher attrition in the district. This was very much

evident during the interview section. Most of interviewees indicated that socio-economic factors such as: salaries they are paid, do not enhance their status in the community, housing schemes, car loans, bonuses, recognition for awards among others do not accrue to them, and were very much causing attrition in the district. For example, a female teacher between the age group of 31 – 40 years who had taught in the district between 11 – 15 years, said that:

“.....being that the salary does not reflect the qualification of teachers. When we compare the qualification of teachers by the names, senior superintendent, directors and whatever, to other sectors, you realized that teachers are being cheated because errrr..... we have big names but we take small money. And secondly too, I would say that the benefits that teachers get cannot be compared to other workers or peers in other equivalent sectors and it's very discouraging (Teacher 1, Interview data, 2015)

It is clear from this view that teachers feel cheated when they compare their salaries with workers in other sectors who possess similar qualifications. To this end, teachers who feel cheated are likely to leave their posts in order to secure employment in sectors that seem lucrative or rewarding to them.

Her colleague male teacher who was also between the 30 to 40 years, also did emphasize that:

“.....When you compare teaching for instance to other sectors, you would see that there is a vast disparity in salary. For instance, teachers who have attained a degree status, I mean the same qualification with other professionals in other sectors, say the police just to mention, you'd realize that there is a great disparity in their salaries. Also, community members here don't farm so prices of food items are very high. Incentives are also not forth coming. Teachers do a lot so they deserve research allowances, TLM allowances do not come to the teacher as a motivation” (Teacher 4, Interview data, 2015).

Another teacher whose age ranged between 30 to 40 years, did not mince words at all. He notes that:

“A teacher who has undergone a well-defined course of study, having been certified as a qualified teacher to teach, the salary we are been paid has not merit our qualifications. Simply because, you go to other fields; I would only cite only one or two examples. For instance, the Ghana Cocoa Board, Water Works, an SHS drop out who we even know of, I mean there are a lot of packages for them just as salary a lone. This is something wonderful. But a teacher with all the bigger names superintendent and all this and others, what do we get? Something meager, so in a nutshell, the salary is not a true reflection of our qualifications.

He further elaborated that:

With the examples I earlier cited, they have benefits such as car loans, allowances, housing schemes, other incentives that are not only in the pipeline but already flowing through the pipeline. There is always errr... recognition for them in their family gatherings and the society they find themselves” (Teacher 5, Interview data, 2015).

His colleague who was between the age ranges 20 to 30, buttressed that:

“Economically, the salary is not good as compared to other workers such as the nurses, the police and the bankers. These people are respected due the conditions and recognition attached to their jobs. They accorded recognition wherever they find themselves but the teacher is looked meant upon. My brother, when is pay day, how many professionals do you sees queuing take his/her salary? But teachers always do and sometimes quarrel. Why? The salary is not enough, so they spend everything even before the middle of the month. Because other professionals as I have mentioned, don't do this, they are respected in the society” (Teacher 3, Interview data, 2015).

The responses from teachers indicate that their salary is not a reflection of their qualifications and therefore not enough to commensurate the current market or economic inflation. This goes a long way to have negative repercussions on teachers' status. Moreover, as rational beings, teachers do a lot of comparisons between their salaries and that of their counterparts in other sectors and usually feel that there are disparities. The meager salaries coupled with lack of incentives make them to leave the teaching field.

The factor which the respondent rated second for causing attrition in the district was managerial factors. The factor attracted a mean score of 13.7 ($SD = 4.0$). The respondents during the interview section indicted that managerial factors such as deploying teachers to remote areas, being allocated with high number of working periods assigned by management and so on were also major source causing attrition in the district. Their thoughts are expressed in the excerpts below:

“In relation to management factors, management at district education officers punish most teachers by sending them to remote areas. Sending teachers to remote areas shouldn’t be a punishment. This has become a practice in the district, so any teacher who is sent to the remote area, sees it as a punishment. This may force teachers to leave

He continued:

Also, management puts too much attention on writing notes and feeling reports than delivery of lessons in the class. Teachers feel too much pressure from these acts” (Teacher 3, Interview data, 2015).

Another colleague male teacher also expressed the sentiments:

“.....In terms of relation, sometimes supervisors are too harsh on teachers. They treat teachers as their students, meanwhile, these very teachers are their own colleagues. If a teacher who has his/her family that he/she looks after and you treat him/her like that, he/she has no option than to leave your jurisdiction. Also most SMC/PTA don’t take interest in teachers’ issues. They don’t collaborate with teachers to see projects and targets through. These and many others make teachers to leave. (Teacher 5, Interview data, 2015).

Another teacher also emphasized that:

“Managerially, I think teachers are not managed well. Our superiors, Union heads (GNAT) treat us anyhow. When it comes to decision making concerning teachers, they don’t stand firm to protect the interest of the teachers. Also teachers are sent to typical villages where access to certain facilities is not possible. This make some teachers stay stagnant without any personal development” (Teacher 3, Interview data, 2015).

The greatest asset that every organization has is its workforce or human resource. It is therefore important that proper management practices are employed in handling them. In situation where the workforce feels proper management practices are not being employed in handling them, they may choose to leave to where their contributions and value will be appreciated. It is therefore evident from responses that teachers are leaving the service because of poor management practices.

Finally, the respondents rated inter-personal factors as being the least factor causing teacher attrition in the South Dayi District in the Volta Region of Ghana. This factor attracted a mean score value of 9.24 ($SD = 3.0$). The respondents during the interview section described how the interpersonal sub-scale was in its own small way causing teacher attrition in the district. One participant explains:

.....some sort of personal relations that they do encounter talking about the community they live in and even some of the officers that come to supervise their work. Even though most of these teachers keep on trying to do their possible best, the help has not been coming and the encouragement they deserve from the community and also some of the people they are working with, I mean the officers. Attitude of some of supervisors do discourage and intimidates teachers. That's what makes some of them to leave the field of teaching in the district. (Teacher 2, Interview data, 2015)

Furthermore, another interviewee recounted that:

.....I think most of our circuit supervisors intimidates us when they come for their routine supervision. They really talk to us as if we are no body. You realize that the relation between the CS and the teachers, especially in my circuit is not good. It is necessary the CS take their time to find out why some teachers don't write their notes at times. But if all they do is to attack and harass teachers for not writing their notes, it will result to problems. It is necessary that such issues are solved amicably. If not I can't see teachers staying longer, especially in my circuit (Teacher 3, Interview data, 2015)

Interpersonal relationship issues are very crucial to workers satisfaction. In the absence of good interpersonal relationship, there will be workplace dissatisfaction leading to low

productivity and workers attrition. It is evident from the above responses that dissatisfaction with workplace interpersonal relations fuels teacher attrition in the South Dayi District.

4.3.2. Research Question Two – What mechanisms are in place for promoting teacher retention in the South Dayi District?

This research question sought to explore mechanisms put in place by major stakeholders for promoting teacher retention in the South Dayi District. Eight items (13 – 20) on the Attrition and Retention Questionnaire Instrument (ARQI) were used to collect quantitative data from the teachers on the various mechanisms in place for promoting teacher retention in the District. Descriptive statistics were used to determine mean scores, standard deviations, frequencies and percentages which were used for the analysis. In the analysis, ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘disagree’ were categorized as ‘disagree’ while ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ were categorized as ‘agree’. A mean score above or below 3 was considered high or low presence of the suggested teacher retention mechanism while a mean score of 3 was considered moderate. Interview results from teachers, head teachers, circuit supervisors, a human resource manager, and AD supervision provided qualitative data for further and additional analysis. Thematic analysis was conducted on the qualitative data. Results from the questionnaire instrument are presented in Table 4.5.

Outcomes from Table 4.5 show that the mean scores of the retention items ranged from 2.2 ($SD = 0.6$) to 3.7 ($SD = 0.7$). Also, the minimum and maximum frequencies of the teachers’ scores on the retention items ranged from 5 (1.8%) to 242 (84.9%).

Table 4.5 Descriptive Statistics on Teacher Retention Mechanisms

ITEM	D (%)	DK (%)	A (%)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)
I am motivated by opportunities available for personal and professional development (study leave with pay, upgrading courses etc.)	119 (41.8)	9 (3.2)	157 (55.1)	3.1 (0.9)
I chose teaching because there are annual rewards and recognition for performance, skill, effort and seniority	205 (72.2)	5 (1.8)	74 (26.1)	2.5 (0.9)
I am motivated by the leadership style in my school which empowers me to participate in decision making process on issues that affect me	106 (37.2)	9 (3.2)	170 (59.6)	3.2 (0.9)
I am provided with enough facilities, services and equipment to perform my tasks	252 (88.4)	3 (1.1)	30 (10.5)	2.2 (0.6)
I am provided with counseling services on financial and economic planning, retirement planning, career success, investment and stress management	221 (77.5)	8 (2.8)	56 (19.6)	2.4 (0.8)
I have an appealing relationship with my fellow teachers on staff	35 (12.3)	8 (2.8)	242 (84.9)	3.7 (0.7)
I have reasonable teaching workload	89 (31.2)	12 (4.2)	184 (64.6)	3.3 (0.9)
I have good expectation for lucrative retirement package	158 (55.4)	25 (8.8)	102 (35.8)	2.8 (0.9)

Source: Field Data – Questionnaire (June, 2015)

KEY: D = Disagree, DK = Don't Know, A = Agree, % = Percentage, *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation.

Result from Table 4.5 indicates that, the teacher respondents acknowledged the existence of some mechanisms to promote teacher retention in the South Dayi District. Out of the 285 respondents, 157 representing 55.1% respondents generally agreed that they are motivated by opportunities available for personal and professional development (study leave with pay, upgrading courses etc.) in the district. This item had a mean score of 3.1 (*SD* = 0.9). Additionally, 170 of the respondents representing 59.6% agreed to the assertion that, they are motivated by the leadership style in their school which empowers

them to participate in decision making process on issues that affect me. The means score for this item was 3.2 ($SD = 0.9$). Moreover, the result shows that significant number ($n = 242$, 84.9%) of the participants agreed with the statement that, they have an appealing relationship with their fellow teachers on staff. This statement attracted a mean score value of 3.7 and a standard deviation of 0.7. Finally, the nineteenth item “I have reasonable teaching workload” on the ARQI saw majority of the respondents (64.6%, $n = 184$) agreeing. The mean scores of all the above reported items from Table 4.5 indicates that, majority of the teacher respondents agreed that these retention mechanisms are highly available in the district.

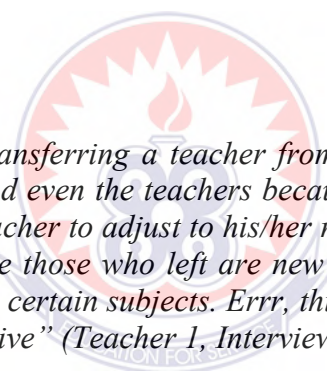
However, 205 of the respondents representing 72.2% disagreed with the assertion that there are annual rewards and recognition for performance, skill, effort and seniority in the teaching profession. This item attracted a mean score of 2.54 ($SD = 0.9$). Another suggested retention mechanism by the researcher (I am provided with enough facilities, services and equipment to perform my tasks) was poorly rated by the participants. That is the item attracted 252 respondents representing 88.4% disagreeing with the item, thus, translating into a mean score of 2.2 and a standard deviation of 0.6. Furthermore, majority of the participants ($n = 221$, 77.5%) indicated their disagreement with the item which enquired if they were provided with counseling services on financial and economic planning, retirement planning, career success, investment and stress management. This item therefore attracted a mean value of 2.4 ($SD = 0.8$). Lastly, 55.4% representing 158 of the respondents disagreed with the suggestion that assertion that the profession holds a lucrative retirement package for teachers. The item also attracted a mean score of 2.8 and a standard deviation of 0.9. These items that scored a mean value below 3 indicate that

4.3.3. Research Question Three – How does teacher attrition influence quality of education in the South Dayi District?

This question is meant to find how attrition influences or affects the quality of education in South Dayi District. The following were the themes drawn from the interview data collected as the influence teacher attrition has on quality of education:

- Influx of unexperienced Teachers
- Recruitment and transfer costs
- Out- of- field teaching

The respondents who commented on the teacher methodological differences emphasized that:



“Ok, I would say transferring a teacher from one school to another affects the kids or the pupils and even the teachers because when a teacher is transferred it takes time for the teacher to adjust to his/her new environment. Most at times, the teachers who replace those who left are new or fresh from college and the lack experience to handle certain subjects. Errr, this can affect the quality the children are supposed to receive” (Teacher 1, Interview data, 2015).

Another teacher notes that:

“Unfortunately, most of the teachers who leave the district, are good teachers both in content and method. You know, being a teacher entails a lot, it is one thing to be good at content and another thing to be good at delivering what you know. It takes time for one to get used to the strategy of handling a subject, and teachers who are used to handling these subjects leave, honestly, performance in the district will be affected” (Teacher 3, Interview data, 2015).

One of the teachers interviewed noted that:

“It disturbs pupils and disrupts teaching and learning when teachers keep on leaving and new ones are coming in. This is because there is a variation in methods used in delivery by various teachers handling the same subject in the class. Errr, definitely, the method used by someone already who knows the pupils he teaches will be different from a teacher who comes new. Pupils suffer the consequences of the variation in methods” (Teacher 5, Interview data, 2015).

When teachers leave the classroom, they have to be replaced. In the process of replacement may lead to recruiting those who are not experience or even had the requisite training to teach. These teachers may lack the techniques and methods of teaching pupils, therefore the quality of lesson delivery will be affected. In addition, the respondents who commented on recruitments and transfer cost, enunciated that the education sector, for that matter, the Governments spends a lot on replacing teachers who leave, and paying the grants for those who have been transferred for replacement.

One teacher had this to say:

“It may incur cost, in that transfer grants has to be paid to teachers transferred and also those who leave entirely, has to be replaced through recruitment of new ones. When these things go on, quality of our educational system suffers. Because, these resources can be diverted into acquiring the necessary logistics and maintaining teachers to achieve quality” (Teacher 5, Interview data, 2015).

An officer at district education directorate was of the view that:

“Err, the sector itself loses a lot of money by training new teachers to replace them which shouldn’t have been so. To me, the money that goes in to the transfer of teachers is too huge. If we want to achieve quality in education, errr....cost on unproductive ventures must be minimized. As I speak now, there are schools in this district with adequate textbooks, desks, chinks, name them. How do we achieve quality if these basic things are lacking”? (Education Officer 1, Interview data, 2015).

One teacher explained that:

“Replacing these teachers, increases cost for the sector, as transfer grants has to be paid to teachers who are transferred to replace the ones that left. These grants could be used to purchase logistics or Teaching and Learning Materials for schools in the district” (Teacher 4, Interview data, 2015).

Another officer interviewed said:

“It reduces labour force in the district and if labour force reduces, outputs reduces as well, and this will definitely call for recruitment of new labour force in order to beef up productivity. Hmmm, this boils down to one thing and that is money. So, if the money is not there for recruitment, then achieving quality of education will be a mirage. How can we talk of quality if there resources are not there to the quality agenda” (Education Officer 3, Interview data, 2015)?

Participants highlighted that in order to achieve quality of education, there is a need for cost effective management. The money spent of recruiting trained and untrained teachers to replace the exit teachers can be used to put retention mechanism in place. By doing this quality of education will be a reality but not a delusion.

One other theme raised by participants was out-of-field teaching. The respondents emphasized this in the following ways. One of the education officers mentioned that:

“Emmm, per teacher attrition, I think ehh that it will lead to poor results since some teachers teaching subjects that they are not vested in. they may end up confusing the pupils and themselves” (Education Officer 1, Interview data, 2015).

Another education officer noted:

“.... When teachers leave, their classrooms become vacant and most of these teachers handle very critical or important subjects. Sometimes, there are no immediate available replacements for them so the students tend to suffer in these subjects. If this happens, any teacher at all, I mean a teacher who is not purposely trained and therefore has no mastery over these subjects, is called upon to handle them” (Education Officer 2, Interview data 2015).

An interviewee elaborated:

“Well, hmmmmm, it sometimes forces teachers to teach subjects they have not mastered in both in content and method. This leads to poor performance of pupils in that particular subject area. For instance, I am a Social Studies and English Language Trained teacher but here I am teaching Integrated Science. Why? Hmmm..... because the science trained teacher has left the school and there is no replacement yet. It is true that you can't put a square peg in a round hole. A well science trained teacher will demonstrate mastery over the subject than I am doing” (Teacher 2, Interview data, 2015).

One teacher also pointed that:

“..... It displaces teachers in terms of teaching subjects they are not used to at the JHS level” (Teacher 5, Interview data, 2015).

Teachers like to enjoy autonomy on their jobs and will be good at what they are trained for. So if they are coerced to perform tasks which they are not trained for, pupils suffer from the end result. It is therefore exigent and laudable that teachers are maintained, and

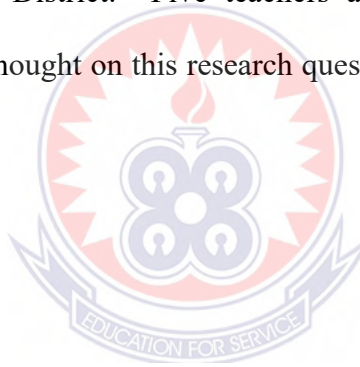
allowed to teach as well as function in the field they are trained to function. This in a nutshell, will beef up quality of education.

In light of the above interview results, the researcher generated the hypothesis (hypothesis one) to further explore quantitatively, the relationship between teacher attrition and the quality of education.

4.3.4. Research Question Four – How can retention support systems be improved in the South Dayi District in the Volta Region of Ghana?

The aim of this research question was to find out how retention support system can be improved in South Dayi District. Five teachers and three education officers were interviewed to give their thought on this research question. These were the themes drawn from their responses:

- Remuneration
- Fringe benefits
- Relational-Prestige



The responses that were categorized on remuneration, emphasized that increased salary will help teachers remain in the service. One of them contributed that:

“... the teaching work is involving. Ironically, people do not see it as such. Teachers’ salary should be given attention because teachers who leave the job entirely attribute their leaving to the meagre salary they take” (Education Officer 1, Interview data, 2015)

He elaborated further that:

“We are in a competitive market, so teachers with special skills may be needed elsewhere to boost productivity. Teachers with these skills have no option than to leave for areas where their skill and qualification match with the money they take home. So if the government wants to retain them, then they must be paid well. If

we pay them well, they will remain with us” (Education Officer 1, Interview data, 2015).

Another teacher exclaimed:

“Errrm, I think that ehhh as I have already said, teachers’ salary does not merit their qualification. This is one of the main grievances of teachers. Our salaries should be increased. If issues pertaining to teachers’ salaries are properly handled, we will remain and teach the children” (Teacher 1, Interview data, 2015).

A teacher could not also hold back words. He expressed that:

“Hmmm, teachers are really suffering. Well, I think salaries should be rationalized. Teachers’ salaries should much the qualification they hold comparative to what people with the same or equivalent qualification, take in other sectors. This will prevent teachers from running to other sectors” (Teacher 4, Interview data, 2015).

One of the teachers gave his opinion that:

“...There should be body to advice teachers on investment avenues and teaching them how to allow money that accrue from their salaries work for them not them working for money. This will alleviate the extreme economic hardship that teachers battle with” (Teacher 5, Interview data, 2015).

The recent hike in strikes and teacher unrests, all boil down to one thing, salary. When teachers perceive disparities in their salaries as compared to other workers, it will not auger well for the teaching profession. It is therefore worth saying that teachers should be paid well according to their qualification and the work they do and if teacher grievances receive the appropriate attention, job hopping among teachers will be minimized.

One more issue raised by respondents as being crucial to their retention is fringe benefits.

These were their thoughts on this theme.

“Then again, errrr... at the district level, I suggest that internal funds should be generated so that incentives can be given to teachers on yearly bases. Specifically, during Christmas festivities. This can be motivating to teachers to stay in the district” (Teacher 4, Interview data, 2015).

Another teacher noted that:

“To me, first there should be re-evaluation of the teachers’ job, incentives and bonuses should be given to teachers. This will augment what teachers take home and it ease the economic pressure mounting on teachers” (Teacher 3, Interview data, 2015).

He further stated that:

“Also, by putting appropriate and feasible system in place, the district should sponsor teachers for further education and trainees so that these teachers can come back and serve in the district” (Teacher 3, Interview data, 2015).

A female teacher also suggested that:

“...government should plan accommodation for teachers in the district. Accommodation should be given to teachers immediately they complete school and posted, they can move into these apartments. Everyone likes privacy, so when this is done, teachers will stay in the district and other teachers will also be attracted.

Her suggestion was emphasized by the opinion of an officer:

“Hmmmm, I think bungalows should be built for teachers so that they can stay do their work effectively. It is true teacher’s salary is meagre so renting expensive rooms from such meagre salaries is posing economic difficulties for teachers and they may not have stable mind to do their work effectively. When this is done, teachers will even accept postings to remote areas” (Education Officer 2, Interview data, 2015).

Another officer re-echoed this by saying:

“... Emm, we need to prioritize teachers’ accommodation because everybody works and thinks of the day of retirement. We need to prioritize their personal accommodation so that on retirement, and even on the job, they can feel comfortable from frustration and stress” (Education Officer 1, Interview data, 2015).

The respondents’ contributions reflect how important fringe benefits are in retaining teachers. Fringe benefits such as housing schemes, transport allowances, compensation for after hours’ work are very instrumental in maintaining teachers. On the contrary, these benefits are deficient in the teaching field. Their introduction, will therefore address the problem of teacher exit.

Finally, the last theme drawn from respondents' contribution was on interpersonal prestige. This theme dwell mainly on the relationships that should exist in the school community and the respect that should be accorded to the teaching profession.

Respondents who were characterized on this theme emphasized that interpersonal prestige is fundamental to retaining teachers. The first respondent mentioned that:

“First of all, we must have good interpersonal relationships both in the communities where teachers are teaching and the teacher supervision unit of the district. The community should have good relationship with the teachers and give them the needed respect, and support because not withstanding all other notions, we educate their wards” (Teacher 2, Interview data, 2015).

He added that:

“Also, supervisors should take their time, respect and have a cordial relationship with the teachers anytime they are on supervision” (Teacher 2, Interview data, 2015).

He concluded that:

“Nevertheless, I would also like to mention that whenever, we want to achieve quality education, and it works with the teachers, pupils, parents and the government as whole” (Teacher 2, Interview data, 2015).

Affirming the importance of respect, a respondent expressed his view that:

“Yes, emmm, as per retaining teachers, I think we need to celebrate teachers and reward them for good performance. Respect should be accorded to teachers duly. Parents, pupils, communities and the general public should be sensitized on the importance of teachers in the development of this country. Teacher authorities, bodies concerned with teachers' salary issues should handle teachers' welfare issues with reverence then the public will follow suit” (Education Officer 1, Interview data, 2015).

Another respondent stated that:

“Supervisors should desist from old fashioned method of supervision and they should be educated on modern supervision styles. This will enhance teacher-supervisor relation leading to teachers staying in the district to render their services” (Teacher 3, Interview data, 2015).

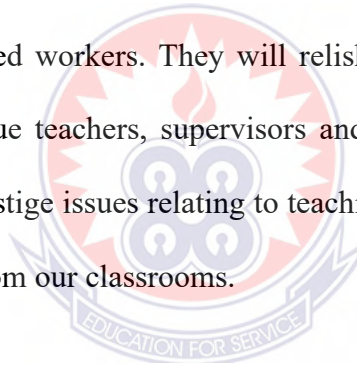
Another said:

“Supervisors should stop disgracing and busting out teachers. They should be reasonable and have empathic feeling towards teachers. This will make teachers feel at home to deliver their services well” (Teacher 5, Interview data, 2015).

Finally, a respondent shared light on views that:

“I think teachers are also not respected. The kind of recognition teachers have those days is gone. If the profession can attain the recognition and respect it used to have, I think most teachers will stay” (Education Officer 3, Interview data2015).

Despite the alarming call for increase in salary, teachers deem relational-prestige issues important to them. Teachers appreciate it when the needed respect is accorded to them, and equally importance is rendered to the services they offer just like other services offered by public respected workers. They will relish good working relationships with students, parents, colleague teachers, supervisors and other concerned authorities. It is needful that relational-prestige issues relating to teaching are given due attention to arrest further teacher attrition from our classrooms.



4.4. Section C – Testing of the Study Hypotheses

Hypothesis One – There will be significant relationship between teacher attrition and quality of education in the south Dayi District.

To test this hypothesis, a bivariate correlational analysis using Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted on the data set (Teacher Attrition and Quality of Education). The test was meant to explore if there was any relationship between teacher attrition and quality of education (Deployment of quality teachers, Out-of-field teaching, Teacher cohesion and Cost of Replacement of exit teachers) in the South Dayi District. The result is presented in the correlational matrix (Table 4.5) below.

Table 4.6: Bivariate Correlation matrix of Teacher Attrition and Quality of Education

VARIABLE	1	2	3	4	5
1. Attrition	1				
2. Deployment of quality teachers	-0.275**	1			
3. Out-of-field teaching	0.253**	0.352**	1		
4. Staff cohesion	-0.117*	0.296**	0.356**	1	
5. Cost of Replacement of exit teachers	0.296**	0.127*	0.244**	0.272**	1

Source: Field Data – Questionnaire (June, 2015)

* $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed). ** $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed).

Results from Table 4.6 indicates that there is a significant negative correlation between teacher attrition and two of the factors of quality of education (Deployment of quality teachers, Teacher cohesion) and a positive correlation between teacher attrition and quality of education (Out-of-field teaching and Cost of Replacement of exit teachers). Table 4.6 indicates that there was a significant negative correlation between teacher attrition and deployment of quality teachers ($r = -0.275$, $n = 285$, $p = 0.001$). The coefficient of determinate (R^2) = 0.08. It therefore implies that teacher attrition helps to explain about 8% of poor quality of education (deployment of teachers).

Secondly, there was a positive relationship between Out-of-field teaching (quality of education) and teacher attrition in the South Dayi District ($r = 0.253$, $n = 285$, $p < 0.01$). The magnitude (R^2) of the relationship between the two variable (Out-of-field teaching and teacher attrition) was 0.06. Thus when the coefficient of determinate is expressed as a percentage, it reveals that about 6% of the variance in poor quality of education is explained by teacher attrition in the district.

Furthermore, results from Table 4.6 show that, there is a significantly weak negative correlation between staff cohesion (quality of education) and teacher attrition ($r = -0.117$, $n = 285$, $p < 0.01$). The R^2 (coefficient determinant) was 0.01. When the R^2 expressed as a percentage, it can be observed that almost 1% of the total variance in poor teacher cohesion (quality of education) is explained by teacher attrition.

Finally, it can be observed from Table 4.6 that, teacher attrition positively relates to the cost of replacing exit teachers in the district ($r = 0.296$, $n = 285$, $p < 0.01$). The coefficient of determinant which explains the magnitude of the relationship between the two variables was (R^2) = 0.09. Thus 9% of the variance in cost of replacing teachers is explained by teacher attrition.

Hypothesis Two – There is a significant difference between teachers' marital status and attrition.

To answer this hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of respondents with respect to marital status. The t-test was meant to identify whether the mean scores of teachers in the South Dayi District will differ with respect to their marital status (married or single).

Preliminary analysis (Normality of the Distribution and Homogeneity of the Variance) was performed to confirm the suitability of the data set before further complex analysis was carried out. According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2000) normal is used to describe a symmetrical, bell-shape curve, which has the greatest frequency of scores in the middle, with smaller frequencies toward the extremes. This normality can be expressed and assessed to some extent by obtaining the values of skewness and kurtosis of the

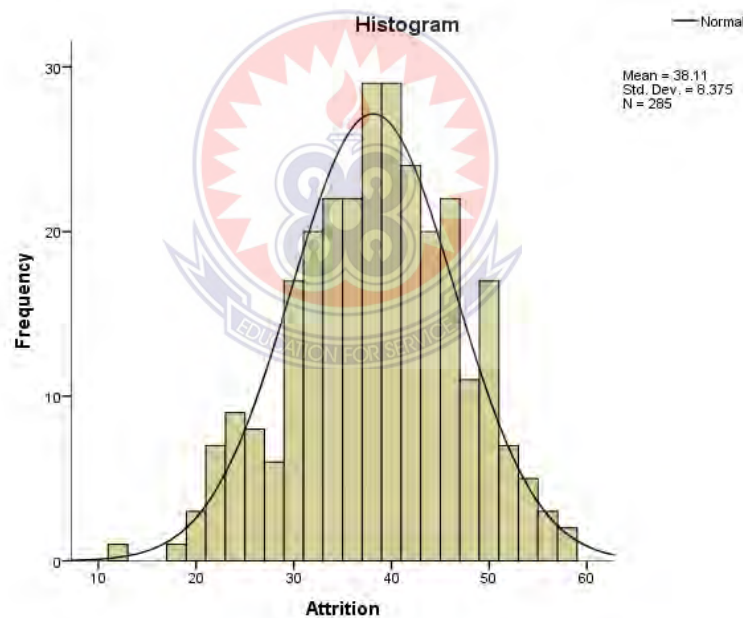
distribution. From the data set, the distribution of the teacher attrition score was approximately normal with a mean score of 38.11 and a standard deviation of 8.4. The value of skewness and kurtosis of the distribution are also -0.19 and -0.21 respectively. The foregoing results shows that the distribution of the scores is approximately symmetrical and matches the Gaussian distribution.

Table 4.7: Approximate Normal Distribution of teacher attrition scores

Sample size	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. Error of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. Error of Kurtosis
285	38.11	8.4	-0.19	0.14	-0.21	0.29

Source: Field Data - Questionnaire (June, 2015)

These values of the distribution have contributed to the shape of the histogram as shown



in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Histogram of Attrition in the teaching field data set

The histogram in Figure 4.1 indicates that the data set is almost normally distributed. Another major preliminary analysis that was performed on the data set was homogeneity of the variance. The table below (Table 4.8) presents the results of the Levenes.

Table 4.8: Test of Homogeneity of Variances

F	df	sig.
2.75	283	0.09

Source: Field Data - Questionnaire (June, 2015)

Levene Test is the test used to examine the homogeneity of variances. Independent-samples t-test assumes that the variances between the two groups are equal. Table 4.8 displays the results of the Levene test of homogeneity of variances. The significance value 0.09 exceeds 0.05, which suggest that the variance for the two groups (single and married) of teachers in the South Dayi District are equal; therefore the assumption is justified. From the preceding analysis, one can see that the test for homogeneity of the variance was not significant for the teacher attrition data set, indicating that the homogeneity of variance assumption underlining the application of independent-samples t-test was satisfied. Table 4.9 presents the results of the t-test analysis.

Table 4.9: Independent-Sample t-test of Attrition with Respect to Marital Status

Marital Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	T	sig.
Married	181	37.0	7.7	283	-2.97	0.003
Single	104	40.0	9.1			

Source: Field Data - Questionnaire (June, 2015)

Table 4.9 presents results of an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare attrition rate between single and married teachers in the South Dayi District in the Volta Region of Ghana. There was a significant difference in the scores for single/unmarried teachers ($M = 40.1$, $SD = 9.1$) and the married teachers ($M = 35.7$, $SD = 7.5$); $t(283) = -$

2.97, $p < 0.05$. These results suggest that attrition rate was predominant among the single/unmarried teachers than their married counterparts. Specifically, the results suggest that single/unmarried teachers were likely to leave the district/the teaching profession while their married colleagues are likely to stay in the district/the teaching profession.

4.5. Discussion of the findings

The researcher's aim was to explore the factors affecting teacher attrition and their effects on quality of education, and generate solutions for retention. Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis of the study pointed out that three main factors were responsible for teacher attrition in the district. These were socio-economic factors, managerial factors and interpersonal factors.

The socio economic factor which entails salary, fringe benefits and professional status were reported by teachers as the major causes of attrition in the district, and therefore had the largest mean. In addition, fringe benefits such as car loans, accommodations, research allowances and teaching and learning materials were not provided for teachers. These and other unfavourable conditions have contributed to teacher attrition in the district. Low and inadequate salaries and fringe benefits remained a key issue in attrition, despite the introduction of Single Spine Salary Pay Policy in 2009. Thus, the study confirms that salary and fringe benefits were the reasons behind teacher attrition (NCTAF, 2003; ILO, 1991; Cobbold, 2007; VSO, 2008; Clotfelter et al., 2008; Feng, 2009; Adelabu, 2005; Benham & O'Brien, 2002; Macdonald, 1999; Murnane & Olsen, 1989; Chapman, 1994; King, 1993; Stinebrickner, 2002; Artz, 2010; Aglomasa & Avoke, 2013). Wole (2002)

and Mingistu (2012) showed in their studies that poor and inadequate salaries and salary inequalities between teachers and non-teachers as the most stressful aspect of the teachers' work. In this study, findings revealed that the above assertion triggers teachers' attrition. Eighty three and half percent (83.5%) of the teachers reported that their salaries were disproportionate to the qualification they held and the work they do. This is explained by Adam's Equity Theory and the postulation of Kim (2005) that if the employees of an organization, such as a school, perceive the different levels of their salaries as unfair, they may be dissatisfied.

The below average and the disparities in teachers' salaries as compared to others, has affected the respect and the status teachers have in the society. Result indicated that 78.6% of teachers agreed that their salaries do not enhance their status in the community. This finding is coherent with findings from previous studies conducted by Papanastasiou and Zybelas (2006) and Tamakloe (1991), Aglomasa and Avoke, (2013), and Voluntary Service Overseas (2008) and Mengistu (2012). The teachers' in Papanastasiou and Zymbelas's (2006) study reported that they were dissatisfied with the lack of respect, status, and recognition from their society. The poor status was believed to be related to their poor salaries relative to participants' responses in this study. It also came to view that the salaries teachers take were not enough to meet their physiological needs as propounded by Maslow in his Theory of Need. This had cause teachers to look for means to supplement in order to make ends meet, a confirmation of the findings that low salaries and the lack of incentives demoralizes the school staff who might resort to seeking other sources of income, hence cheating on the students' teaching hours resulting from

absenteeism and limiting their commitment to their schools (Gates & Mtika, 2011; Kadzamera, 2006; Kajubi, 2001).

The factor having the second highest mean score rated by respondents was managerial factors. Again, both quantitative and qualitative data indicated that management factors are responsible for teacher exodus in the district. Management factors involving dealing with students' disciplinary issues and parents make teaching stressful. This finding is consistent with the findings of Mampane (2012) that the general decay in the moral fiber of society has to a larger extent also contributed to the degeneration of the teaching profession invariably contributing to too many educators leaving the profession. Learners at schools are generally disobedient, ill-disciplined and have no regard for authority. Ingersoll and Smith (2003), Aglomasa and Avoke (2013) also note that student disciplinary problems and meeting their daily needs were reasons for the teachers' dissatisfaction and consequently leading to attrition.

Arbitrary deployment of teachers was the next surfaced issue. Deploying teachers was seen as a disciplinary mechanism, and teachers have no choice but to comply. This was demotivating to teachers. The finding is in line with the findings of Hedges (2002); Francis et al. (1990) and VSO (2007) that teachers are further de-motivated by a perception of little control over their posting, transfer or promotion. Hedge (2002) notes further that effective system of deploying teachers is curtailed by poor management practices, thus teachers are deployed arbitrarily. Quartz et al. (2008) and Ndaruhutse et al. (2008) agreed that lack of management training for head teachers can result in poor management practices, a lack of teacher involvement in decision making, and hence to lower teacher morale and increased attrition. Increase demand for quality of education,

has led too much accountability education. Teachers are demanded to give frequent accounts through submission of weekly notes, filling reports, serving on committees etc. and it has mounted an increasing pressure on teachers. Teachers who cannot cope with the pressure vacate their jobs. This is in agreement with Mampane's (2012) finding that teachers are now burdened with additional administrative responsibilities that in the past were the preserve of clerks employed by schools such as filling of learner portfolios without the attendant provision of office space, preparing learner reports, compiling data on learner's progress on a quarterly basis and serving on committees. These committees, range from Learners-Teacher Support Material, Sports, Exam, Health etc. Also, Hurren (2006) and, Butt and Lance (2005) supported this finding by saying that teaching is an extremely stressful job because the teaching profession expects from the teachers to provide different professional services, including the professional caring of learners, the central task for many teachers. Majority of the teachers, 61.8% reported that they have lost passion for the job because their expectation for entering the job is not met and therefore, will leave. This finding is again supported by Chapman (1994) who notes that while teachers may have high expectations for themselves and their profession, the recognition for teachers' work by communities and governments is poor.

The least factor rated among the three factors identified in the study was interpersonal factors. The qualitative result of the study indicated that teachers are not satisfied with the relationships that exist between their fellow teachers, supervisors, and between teachers and community members at large. Teachers' responses indicated they feel intimidated and undervalued by the supervision style used in supervising their tasks. This finding is supported by Maicibi (2003) who contends that a common reason for resignation from

the organization is the feel that management or specific supervisors are not providing the leadership they should or are treating employees unfairly, unequally or are bullying others. Some school supervisors do not even orient new teachers who are posted to teach in their respective districts. These teachers later become disgusted and leave the school.

Relating teachers' community relationship, responses indicated that unsupportive community attitude triggers their attrition. The finding props the study findings of Shann (1998) and Jyoti and Sharma (2006) who found in their respective studies that teachers were dissatisfied because of the under-estimation of the value of the teaching profession by society in general, and by the parents in particular. Shann (1998) and Mengistu (2012) also concluded that teachers were dissatisfied with their relationships with parents' lack of involvement in their children's learning and in ranking, the teachers' satisfaction with parent-teacher relationships, ranked the lowest of the given variables. Maicibi (2003) in agreement with Shann (1998) and Mengistu's (2012) findings, asserted that lack of group cohesion makes employees feel isolated and unhappy which might make them leave their schools.

The next research question aimed at finding available mechanisms that were in place for promoting teacher retention in the South Dayi District. It is evident that that after competent teachers have been located and appointed, the problem arises of how to retain them for a period of five years (Jacobson, Reavis & Logsdon, 1993; Bambel, 2005). Darling-Hammond and Dilworth (1996) maintained that greater intellectual and financial incentives to stay in teaching may be needed to attract and retain talented teachers. Results from the study indicated that 55.1% teachers in the district are motivated by

opportunities for personal and professional development available in the district (see Table 4.5). The finding supports the postulation that intrinsic motivation in individuals and personal development were positively correlated Kim (2005). Asmah (1999) explains that retaining staff is about ensuring that their long term wealth potential in the organization is greater than it would be elsewhere. This can only be achieved through employees' personal and professional development. Responses from teachers, 59.6% (see Table 4.5) shows that they are motivated by leadership style that enables them to participate in decision making process on issues that affect them. This is consistent with the results of Nwankwo (1984) that school leadership and management style are also important factors, which can either motivate or lower teacher morale and commitment. Adelabu (2005) found that teachers feel highly motivated when they are consulted about decisions regarding their work. Tekleselassie (2005) also argue that the teachers' willingness to participate in all areas of decision-making will come to the fore, if they perceive their relationships with their principals as being open, collaborative, facilitative, and supportive". Edgeron and Kritsonis (2006:4) emphasized that "teachers will be successful, motivated, and inspired to do their best if there exists a healthy relationship between them and the school principals". Result again showed that teachers have appealing relationships with their colleague teachers on staff. From Table 4.5, 84.9 % responded affirmatively that appealing relationships on staff is crucial to their retention. Studies confirmed that teachers' job satisfaction is influenced by their relationships with their colleagues (Kloep & Tarifa, 1994; Ting, 1997; Weiqi, 2007; Papanastasiou & Zembylas, 2006; Mengistu, 2012). Finally, an item which is reinforcing teachers' stay in the district is reasonable workload. Also, 64.4% of the teachers agreed that they have

reasonable teaching workload that motivates them. The result confirms the study findings conducted by Mengistu (2012) that most of the teachers surveyed were pleased with the teaching workload they had at their schools.

However, the remaining items (see Table 4.5): I chose teaching because there are annual rewards and recognition for performance, skill, effort and seniority, I am provided with enough facilities, services and equipment to perform my tasks, I am provided with counseling services on financial and economic planning, retirement planning, career success, investment and stress management, and I have good expectation for lucrative retirement package, exist in the district but it that may be their influence in retaining teachers are not strong. It is advisable that these retention items are strengthen in the district. It is recommended that greater attention should be given to improving work-related conditions of teachers to improve the quality of education (Adelabu 2005; Sanusi, 1998; Kazeem, 1999). In particular, there should be improvements in the supply of teaching and learning materials and general classroom environment to improve student learning. Dörnyei (2001) extrapolates that the following factors among others affect teacher motivation: the school's general climate and the existing school norms; the class sizes, the school resources and facilities. It is believed that if these factors are strengthen they will help retain more teachers in the district.

With regards to the influence attrition has on the quality of education, the study revealed that attrition leads to influx of unexperienced teachers into the teaching field. According to Pitsoe (2013) high teacher attrition can cause problems of educational quality, equity and efficiency. The influx is detrimental to achieving quality. The result of this study is consistent with the finding that teacher attrition negatively impacts teacher quality and

limits children's access to a high-quality education, this is because high attrition in schools are more likely to get inexperienced teachers (Utah Foundation, 2007; Rockoff, 2004; Rivkin, Hanushek & Kain 2005; Kane, Rockoff & Staiger, 2006) and these teachers are likely to be less effective (Darling-Hammond, 2000). Hedges (2002) also found that in Ghana, unqualified teachers often "hold the fort" in rural schools in the absence of suitable qualified teachers. Secondly, respondents indicated that attrition leads to high recruitment cost which negatively impacts quality of education, in that a lot of money is spent on recruiting, training and placing new teachers (Ntim, 2013; TNTF, 2012; Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, 2010; Cooper & Alvarado, 2006; Johnson, et al., 2005; NCTAF, 2003) and loss of productivity further imposes costs on education systems Institute of Management (1999). Thirdly, findings from teachers interviewed brought to light that attrition leads to out-of-field teaching for teachers. This finding is consistent with the conclusion drawn by Ingersoll (2002) that increased teacher attrition and consequent limited teacher supply increases the need for out-of-field teaching, where teachers teach subjects they have not been trained for, and certified to teach and these teachers display poor teaching skills in both content and method. It in a nutshell, influences the performance and effectiveness of the school. Rasmussen (2008) also concluded that in Denmark a higher probability of out-of-field teaching is foreseen due to teacher shortages especially, in the areas of natural sciences and foreign languages.

The last research question was to find out from respondents how can retention support systems can be improved in the district. The responses of the participants on the scale of preference was remuneration. It was evident that teachers' salary is low and an increased salary will help retain them. The study confirms Adelabu's (2005) finding that what the

typical low-income earning teacher yearns is a sizeable salary increase, and payment of a living wage would significantly enhance their commitment and performance. Also, Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004) confirmed that salary was one of the issues which dissatisfied teachers. These findings point to the fact that the issues of teachers' salary must not be joked with since it is the only source of income to majority of them. Results again showed that teachers would love to have good relationships with their supervisors, pupils' parents, and would cherish recognition for their job in the communities they teach. The finding is consistent with (Shann, 1998; Jyoti & Sharma, 2006) who found that the teachers would be dissatisfied if they perceive under-estimation of the value of the teaching profession by society in general, and by the parents in particular. The relationship of the teachers with the rest of the school community is a vital factor to be considered because the interpersonal relations of teachers within the school community influence both job satisfaction and the probability of teachers remaining in the school and in the profession (Leithwood & McAdie, 2007).

The first hypothesis was to determine the relation between attrition and quality of education variables (deployment of quality teachers, out-of-field teaching, teacher cohesion and cost of replacement of exit teachers). Results showed that attrition has an inverse relationship with deployment of quality teachers across the schools in the district. As attrition increases, there is a shortage of deployment of quality teachers across the school populace in the district. The result is consistent with that of Ntim (2013) who asserted that teacher shortages tend to result in uneven teacher deployment, as the qualified teachers are able to find places in the more desirable locations and are able to avoid deployment to remote rural schools. The same applied when there are shortages of

teachers with specific qualifications or subject specializations. Secondly according to Ntim (2013) teacher attrition tends to create opportunities for inter-school mobility, frequently, resulting in empty classrooms at the least desirable postings. Result on out-of-field teaching indicated that as attrition increases, teachers are more likely teach subjects which they are not trained for because those trained have left and the subject cannot be left unattended to in the school. The finding agreed with Rasmussen (2008) whose study concluded that a higher probability of out-of-field teaching is foreseen due to teacher shortages especially, in the areas of natural sciences and foreign languages.

Relating to staff cohesion, the hypothesis result showed that as teacher attrition increases, staff cohesion is disrupted and performance is affected. The finding confirms that staff cohesion and community are related to students' engagement and achievement (Bryk, Lee, & Holland, 1993; Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Johnson, Berg, & Donaldson, 2005; Little, 1982; Louis & Marks, 1998; Ronfeldt, Lankford, Loeb & Wyckoff, 2012). Bryk and Schneider (2002) also buttressed that the quality of relationships and the trust between teachers, and between teachers and students, predicts student achievement. Staff cohesion is crucial to achieving quality in education. The study also reveals teacher attrition increases cost. As teacher attrition increases, cost of replacement also increases. The finding corroborated with the findings of Institute of Management (1999) that the impact of attrition is by way of increased costs to the organization, broadly categorized as separation, replacement, recruitment, selection, induction and training costs as well as loss of productivity. The study concluded that the consequences of the cost of teacher attrition are too ghastly in the field of education Institute of Management (1999).

To have a holistic approach to the study to the study of factors affecting teachers' attrition and retention, the researcher analyzed the significance difference between marital status of teachers and attrition. The intention was to found out if teacher's marital status contributes to attrition. The study established that 181 teacher participants were married and 104 were single or unmarried. The result however indicated that attrition is high among single/unmarried teachers than the married counterparts. The finding confirmed that Hampton, & Herrmann's (2000) study that ninety percent of the unmarried teachers surveyed quit teaching but 45.8% of the married teachers surveyed, were still working. Similarly, females more likely to leave teaching than male teachers (Adams, 1996; Gritz & Theobald, 1996; Ingersoll, 2001; Heyns, 1988; Kirby et al. 1999; Kirby, Girssmer, & Hudson, 1991; Murnane, Singer & Willet, 1989; Allred & Smith, 1984).



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the factors affecting attrition and retention of basic school teachers in the South Dayi District in the Volta Region of Ghana. It further explored the influence of teacher attrition on quality of education in the district.

The study adopted descriptive survey research design, specifically concurrent triangulation mixed method to analyze data quantitatively and qualitatively. A sample size of 291 comprising 161 male teachers, 124 female teachers and 6 District Education Officers. The researcher constructed a questionnaire that had closed ended questions to obtain information from teachers, as well, interview guide was administered to the 6 purposely selected education officers and 5 teachers sampled for the questionnaire.

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What factors are responsible for teacher attrition in the South Dayi District?
2. What mechanisms are in place for promoting teacher retention in the South Dayi District?
3. How does teacher attrition influence quality of education in the South Dayi District?
4. How can retention support systems be improved in the South Dayi District in the Volta Region of Ghana?

Descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, means scores and standard deviations) Pearson product-moment correlation and independent samples t-test were the quantitative analytical tools used in analyzing the quantitative data. Using the quantitative data, interview was employed to explore areas identified in the quantitative findings.

5.2. Summary of Key Findings

5.2.1. Research Question 1: What factors are responsible for teacher attrition in the South Dayi District?

The following findings were arrived at after analyzing the research question 1.

- Majority of the teacher respondents agreed that socio-economic factors such as inadequate salary, non-accruing of fringe benefits and loss of social status for the teaching profession was the reason behind their leaving.
- South Dayi District teachers were of the view that managerial factors such as remote deployment of teachers, demand for too much accountability, dealing with students' disciplinary issues, loss of expectation in the teaching profession were responsible for their attrition.
- Interpersonal factors such as teacher and supervisor relationship, teacher and community relationships plays a role in their attrition.

5.2.2. Research Question 2: What mechanisms are in place for promoting teacher retention in the South Dayi District?

The following findings were revealed:

- Teachers in South Dayi District are retained by the following available mechanisms – opportunities for personal and professional development, existing leadership style in schools that enables teacher input in decision making, existing appealing relationships with colleagues, and reasonable teaching workload.
- The effect of annual rewards and recognition for performance, provision of enough work facilities and services, and counseling services on financial and economic planning, career success retirement planning , investment and stress management were not being felt as it should be felt.

5.2.3. Research Question 3: How does teacher attrition influence quality of education in South Dayi District?

The Pearson product-moment correlational analysis revealed that:

- There was a significant negative correlation between teacher attrition and deployment of quality teachers across the schools in the district. The coefficient of determinate (R^2) = 0.08, implies that teacher attrition helps to explain about 8% of the variance in poor quality of education (deployment of teachers).
- Additionally, there was positive relationship between Out-of-field teaching (quality of education) and teacher attrition in the South Dayi District. The magnitude (R^2) of the relationship between the two variable (Out-of-field teaching

and teacher attrition) was 0.06. Thus when the coefficient of determinate is expressed as a percentage, it reveals that about 6% of the variance in poor quality of education is explained by teacher attrition in the district.

- Further, there was a significantly weak negative correlation between staff cohesion (quality of education) and teacher attrition. When the R^2 was expressed as a percentage, helped to explain 1% of the total variance in poor teacher cohesion (quality of education) is explained by teacher attrition.
- Finally, there was a positive correlation between cost of replacement of exit teachers and attrition. When the (R^2) was expressed as a percentage, helped to explain 9% of the total variance in cost of replacement of exit teachers (quality of education) is explained by teacher attrition.

5.2.4. Research Question 4: How can retention support systems be improved in the South Dayi District in the Volta Region of Ghana?

The study revealed that:

- Teachers perceived disparity between their salaries and other workers who possessed similar or equivalent qualification as they do. They demanded that their salaries should be increased to match with their qualifications and the work they do. This will help retain them in the teaching profession.
- Provision of fringe benefits such as bonuses, district sponsorship for further education, accommodation scheme, attractive retirement benefits are crucial for improving the retention support system.
- Also, teachers call for good interpersonal relationships and respect for their profession. This includes cooperation and teacher celebration from their

communities, respect and empathic feeling from supervisors, and the use of modern supervision methods in supervising their tasks.

5.2.5. Hypothesis two – There is a significant difference between teachers' marital status and attrition.

The independent samples t-test result indicated that single teacher participants have high attrition rate among them than their married counterparts.

5.3. Conclusion

The study explored factors affecting teacher attrition and retention of public basic schools. Throughout the review of literature, multiple reasons were grouped into socio-economic managerial and interpersonal factors. It was determined that inadequate salary, lack of fringe benefits and loss of prestige for the teaching profession were all socio-economic factors contributing to attrition. Remote deployment, too much accountability, students' disciplinary issues and loss of expectation in teaching job were all managerial related factors causing attrition. Also, unsupportive attitude of both internal and external school community, supervisor-supervisee relationships were related to interpersonal factors. Based on data generated for the study, socio-economic factors had the highest influencing strength in causing teachers to leave among the three factors identified. The study highlighted that there is a significant relationship between teachers' marital status and attrition. The study results indicated that attrition was rampant among single/unmarried teacher participants than the married teachers.

The study established that there was a relationship between teacher attrition and quality of education. As teacher attrition inclines, quality of education declines.

With regard to what can be done to retain teachers, the study emphasized there is the need for teachers' remuneration and fringe benefits to receive exigent attentions for increment and rationalization. Likewise their interpersonal relationships and prestige for the teaching profession.

5.4. Recommendations

- It is recommended that policy makers and analysts should increase teachers' salaries to an amount that matches their qualifications to encourage the current teachers to stay, and to attract others into the profession of teaching. It is fundamentally necessary that education system managers analyze the living conditions in Ghana, and advise accordingly, those in charge of setting teachers' salaries to ensure that the salaries commensurate the cost of living and inflation rates in the country.
- Ministry of Education(MoE), Ghana Education Service (GES) and stakeholders (GNAT, NAGRAT, CCT) should design mechanisms for fringe benefits and incentives for teachers that may include annual allowances, transport allowances, compensation for after -hours' work, district sponsorships for further studies, and low-interest loans to buy and build their own homes, as well as other accommodation for teachers.
- School supervisors should be given continuous in-service training regarding leadership and school supervision skills. It is exigent for education leaders to design training programmes for school supervisors on how to clinically supervise teachers. Appropriate structure should be developed as a feedback systems of overseeing the supervision style prevailing in schools. Teachers should be given

the opportunity to reflect on the type of supervision practices being implemented in their schools. Moreover, bodies tasked with training supervisors should monitor and regularly evaluate whether the learning received by supervisors from the training is being implemented in the schools they supervised.

- Educational authorities and stakeholders need to give appropriate recognition to teachers. The education leaders at all levels, in conjunction with the media, teacher associations, and government officials should work collaboratively to promote teachers' professional status, their rights and their roles, through raising of awareness on the indispensability of the teaching profession to the society.
- Students' disciplinary management courses should be incorporated into the curriculum of the teacher training colleges. This will help teachers acquire students' disciplinary management skills.
- Policy makers at the Ghana Education Service should re-take a look at teachers accountability in terms of capturing of learner marks (Continuous Assessment), filling of learner portfolios, preparing learner reports, compiling data on learners progress, preparing reports on learners social and family background, pastoral duties, professional duties like meetings, workshops, seminars, conferences serving on committees, and countless other responsibilities. Reducing these accountabilities will help ease stress and boredom among teachers.
- District level Human Resource Managers should desist from arbitrary system of deploying teachers. Decisions on transfer should be done on the basis of a fair and transparent appraisal system. Transferring teachers arbitrarily affects the quality of education.

5.5. Suggestions for Further Research

From the summary of key findings, it is clear that further research is needed in the following areas:

- The study focused on public basic school teachers. Similar study should be done with private basic school teachers in Ghana.
- The sample for the study was drawn from teachers who are in the profession, therefore, it is recommended that future studies should be on teachers who have already quit teaching.
- It is also recommended that similar studies should be carried on teacher trainees who are yet to join the teaching service to find out about their perceptions on teaching.
- Studies should be conducted to examine how interpersonal relationships can be improved among teachers, parents and supervisors.
- Finally, it is recommended that future studies should focus more on retention of teachers in the district, since greater attention was given to attrition in the conduct of this study.

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APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR BASIC SCHOOL TEACHERS

Dear Respondent,

I am a graduate student of the above University and conducting a graduate study into “**FACTORS AFFECTING ATTRITION AND RETENTION OF TEACHERS IN SOUTH DAYI DISTRICT**”. Please follow the instructions very carefully and it is important that you respond to all questions. There is no right or wrong answers to any of the questions. I am only interested in your personal opinions. Furthermore, the “right” answer to any question is your frank and objective responses; and any non-response will adversely affect the study.

However, your answers will be treated with strict confidentiality and will only be used for academic purposes.

SECTION A: BIO DATA

Please tick [√] applicable one

1. Sex? a. Male [1] b. Female [2]
2. Your professional status as a Teacher? a. Professional [1] b. Non Professional [2]
3. Your age?
 - a. Below 30 years [1] b. 30 – 39 years [2] c. 40 – 49 years [3] d. 50 – 59 years [4]
4. How long have you been teaching in the district?
 - a. 1-5 years [1] b. 6-10 years [2] c. 11-15 years [3] d. 16 years and above [4]
5. Marital status
 - a. Married [1] b. Single [3] c. Others [specify]
6. What is your highest academic qualification?
 - a. Master’s degree [1] b. First degree [2] c. Diploma [3]
 - d. Cert. ‘A’ 3 year [4] e. SSSCE/WASSCE [5] f. Others (please specify)
 -
7. Home Region
 - a. Volta [1] b. Greater Accra [2] c. Northern [3] d. Ashanti [4]
 - e. Eastern [5] others (please specify).....
8. Home District
 - a. South Dayi [1] b. North [2] c. Kpando [3] d. Hohoe [4]
 - e. Ho [5] f. South Torngu [6] g. Ketu South [7] h. Ketu North [8]

- i. Biakoye [9] j. Keta [10] k. Akatsi [11] l. Asuogyamang [12]
 m. Others (please specify).....

SECTION B: ATTRITION AND RETENTION FACTORS

No	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Don't Know	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	My salary is not a reflection of my qualification					
2	I am likely to quit teaching because benefits such as housing, car loans, etc. do not accrue much for me					
3	I am likely to leave because teaching incentives such as allowances, bonuses, rewards are not forthcoming to me as a teacher					
4	Sending teachers to remote areas is likely to influence me to vacate the classroom					
5	I am likely to leave because the number of periods I do a week put pressure on me					
6	I feel intimidated and undervalued by the supervision style employed in supervising my tasks					
7	My salary as a teacher does not enhance my status in the community					
8	Unsupportive attitude of community members is likely to influence me to leave teaching					
9	I am likely to leave because of the unpleasant relationship between GES officers and teachers					
10	I have lost passion for my job because my expectation for choosing teaching as a career is not being met					
11	I am likely to leave because there is too much accountability in teaching					

No	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Don't Know	Agree	Strongly Agree
12	Dealing with students' disciplinary issues, parents, paper works and time makes teaching stressful					
13	I am motivated by opportunities available for personal and professional development (study leave with pay, upgrading courses etc.)					
14	I chose teaching because there are annual rewards and recognition for performance, skill, effort and seniority					
15	I am motivated by the leadership style in my school which empowers me to participate in decision making process on issues that affect me					
16	I am provided with enough facilities, services and equipment to perform my tasks					
17	I am provided with counseling services on financial and economic planning, retirement planning, career success, investment and stress management					
18	I have an appealing relationship with my fellow teachers on staff					
19	I have reasonable teaching workload					
20	I have good expectation for lucrative retirement package					

SECTION C**INLUENCES OF TEACHER ATTRITION ON QUALITY OF EDUCATION**

No	Influences of Attrition	Strongly Agree	Disagree	Don't Know	Agree	Strongly Disagree
21	Teacher attrition influences unequal distribution/deployment of quality teachers (experience) across the number of schools in the district					
22	Teacher attrition influences out-of-field teaching for teachers to teach subjects which they are not trained and certified for.					
23	Teacher attrition breaks staff/school cohesion and negatively influence students' achievement					
24	Loss of teacher personnel from schools leads to high cost for replacement by Ministry of Education (MoE)					

End of questionnaire

Thank you very much for the time taken to complete this questionnaire

APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA
FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION
INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

Dear Respondent,

This interview guide which you are being requested to answer, is a part of a study on **TEACHER ATTRITION AND RETENTION** in the Primary and Junior High Schools in the South Dayi District. The study is being conducted by Mr. Ephraim Kirkson Lumor, a graduate student of University of Education, Winneba.

The success of the study depends on your personal and honest responses to the items. Your responses to the questionnaire will be treated as confidential as possible.

1. Gender

a. Male

[]

b. Female

[]

2. Age

a. 20 - 30

[]

b. 31 - 40

[]

c. 41 - 50

[]

d. 51 and above

[]

3. How long have you been working in the District?

a. 1 – 5 year(s)

[]

b. 6 – 10 years

[]

c. 11 – 15 years

[]

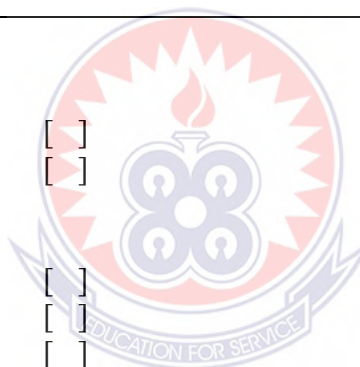
d. 16 – 20 years

[]

e. 21 years and above

[]

4. Please indicate your designation.....



SECTION B

1. What attracted you to the field of teaching in the District?

2. What are the major factors causing other colleague teachers to leave the field of teaching in the District? Please pick from the list below.
 - a. Socio-Economic Factors []
 - b. Managerial Factors []
 - c. Interpersonal Factors []

3. Please explain how the factors you have selected cause them to leave.

4. Are you nursing any ambitions of leaving the teaching field in the District yourself?
YES { } NO { }
Please why?

5. Could you give some suggestions as to what could be done to encourage teachers in the District to remain in the teaching field?

6. What in your view are the effects (positive or negative) of teacher attrition on the quality of education in the District?

APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA
FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

**INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR, TWO DEPUTIES
AND CIRCUIT SUPERVISORS**

Dear Respondent,

This interview guide which you are being requested to answer, is a pan of a study on **TEACHER ATTRITION AND RETENTION** in the public Primary and Junior High Schools in the South Dayi District. The study is being conducted by Mr. Ephraim Kirkson Lumor, a graduate student of University of Education, Winneba.

The success of the study depends on your personal and honest responses to the items on this guide. Your responses to the questions will be treated as confidential as possible.

3. Gender

- c. Male** []
d. Female []

4. Age

- e. 20 - 30** []
f. 31 - 40 []
g. 41 - 50 []
h. 51 and above []

3. How long have you been working in the District?

- f. 1 – 5 year(s)** []
g. 6 – 10 years []
h. 11 – 15 years []
i. 16 – 20 years []
j. 21 years and above []

4. Please indicate your designation.....

SECTION B

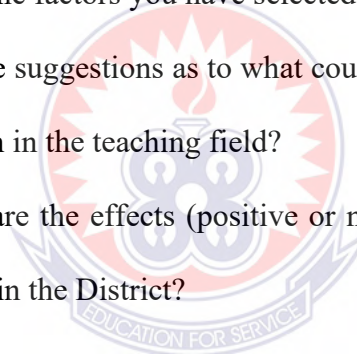
7. What in your view attracts teachers to the District?

8. What are the major factors causing teachers in the District to leave? Please pick from the list below.
 - a. Socio-Economic Factors []
 - b. Managerial Factors []
 - c. Interpersonal Factors []

9. Please explain how the factors you have selected cause teachers to leave.

10. Could you give some suggestions as to what could be done to encourage teachers in the District to remain in the teaching field?

11. What in your view are the effects (positive or negative) of teacher attrition on the quality of education in the District?

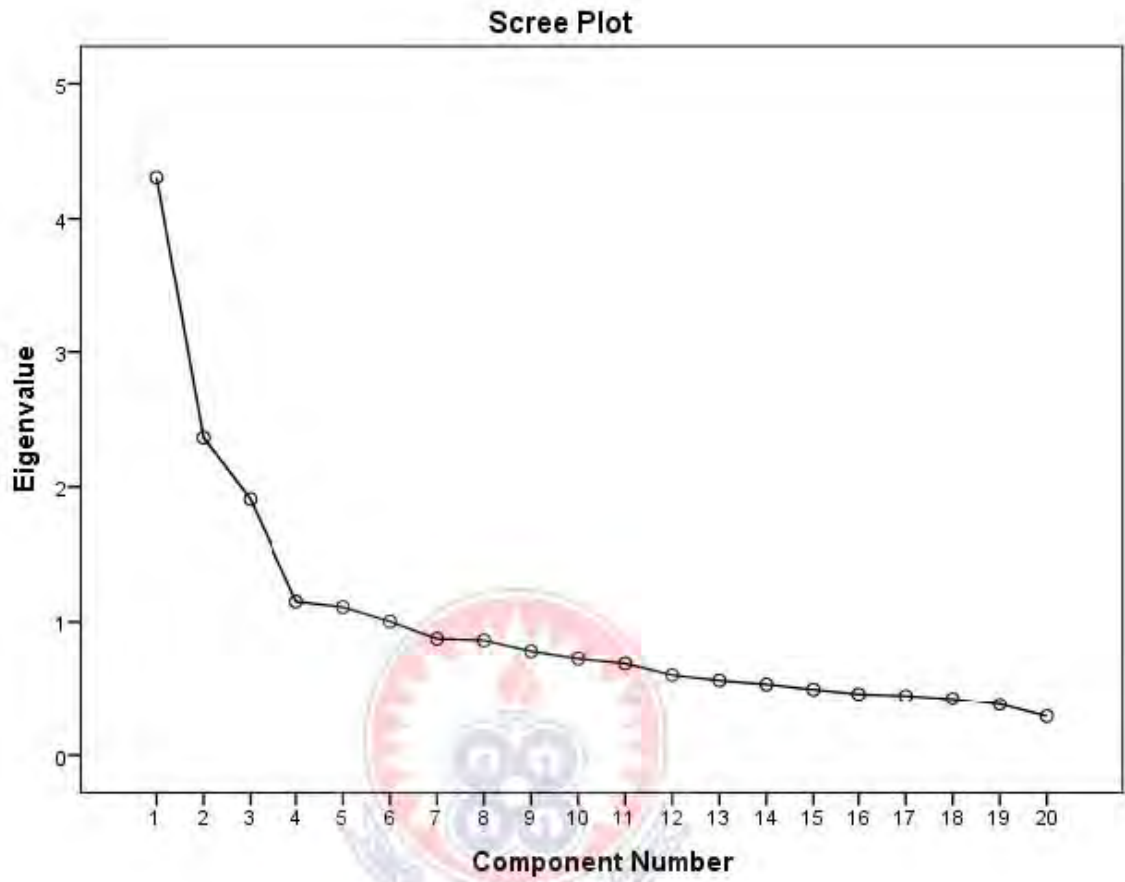


APPENDIX D1**Total Variance Explained**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.306	21.528	21.528	4.306	21.528	21.528	2.794	13.969	13.969
2	2.365	11.825	33.353	2.365	11.825	33.353	2.133	10.664	24.633
3	1.910	9.549	42.901	1.910	9.549	42.901	2.059	10.294	34.927
4	1.151	5.754	48.655	1.151	5.754	48.655	1.840	9.201	44.128
5	1.109	5.546	54.200	1.109	5.546	54.200	1.565	7.827	51.955
6	1.003	5.016	59.216	1.003	5.016	59.216	1.452	7.261	59.216
7	.875	4.377	63.593						
8	.863	4.315	67.908						
9	.782	3.911	71.819						
10	.728	3.639	75.458						
11	.693	3.463	78.922						
12	.606	3.032	81.953						
13	.566	2.830	84.783						
14	.537	2.683	87.467						
15	.498	2.488	89.954						
16	.463	2.314	92.268						
17	.449	2.246	94.514						
18	.425	2.127	96.640						
19	.382	1.910	98.550						
20	.290	1.450	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

APPENDIX D3



APPENDIX D4

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
My salary is not a reflection of my qualification	38.25	66.356	.339	.236	.775
I am likely to quit teaching because benefits such as housing, car loans, etc. do not accrue much for me	38.69	62.412	.437	.487	.767
I am likely to leave because teaching incentives such as allowances, bonuses, recognition for awards are not forthcoming to me as a teacher	38.30	62.677	.481	.514	.763
Sending teachers to remote areas is likely to influence me to vacate the classroom/teaching	39.65	63.733	.398	.266	.771
I am likely to leave because the number of periods I do a week put pressure on me	39.77	63.859	.432	.282	.768
I feel intimidated and undervalued by the supervision style employed in supervising my tasks as a teacher	38.99	62.060	.429	.307	.768
My salary as a teacher does not enhance my status in the community	38.29	62.469	.476	.338	.764
Unsupportive attitude of community members is likely to influence me to leave teaching at my	39.07	60.634	.544	.364	.757

current post					
I am likely to leave because of the unpleasant relationship between GES officers and teachers	39.24	61.017	.519	.377	.759
I have lost passion for my job because my expectation for choosing teaching as a career is not being met	38.86	61.864	.470	.324	.764
I am likely to leave because there is too much accountability in teaching	39.98	64.084	.489	.391	.764
Dealing with students' disciplinary issues, parents, paper works and time makes teaching stressful	38.93	61.723	.470	.310	.764
I chose teaching because there are annual rewards and recognition for performance, skill, effort and seniority	39.87	69.510	.084	.141	.799
I am provided with enough facilities, services and equipment to perform tasks assigned to me	40.34	71.477	.019	.184	.798

APPENDIX D5

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.081	34.010	34.010	4.081	34.010	34.010	2.474	20.617	20.617
2	1.612	13.429	47.440	1.612	13.429	47.440	2.360	19.667	40.284
3	1.012	8.434	55.873	1.012	8.434	55.873	1.871	15.589	55.873
4	.880	7.334	63.208						
5	.763	6.355	69.562						
6	.728	6.070	75.633						
7	.654	5.447	81.080						
8	.540	4.497	85.577						
9	.510	4.249	89.826						
10	.498	4.154	93.980						
11	.415	3.460	97.440						
12	.307	2.560	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

APPENDIX D6

