

**TEACHER TRANSFER: TRENDS AND CAUSES (2017- 2018): A CASE OF
CHIBOMBO DISTRICT IN CENTRAL PROVINCE**

BY

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**A Dissertation Submitted to the University of Zambia in partial fulfilment of the
requirement for the award of a Master's Degree in Education Management**

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DECLARATION

I, **Mwelwa Stanley G**, do hereby solemnly declare that this dissertation represents my own work, except where otherwise acknowledged, and that it has never been previously submitted for a degree at the University of Zambia or any other university.

Signed..... Date.....

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APPROVAL

This dissertation of Mwelwa Staley G entitled Teacher Transfer: Trends and Causes (2017/2018): A case study of Chibombo district in Central province has been submitted to the University of Zambia in collaboration with Zimbabwe Open University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Masters of Education in Education Management.

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DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to my sponsors, my wife Maureen Lungu, who has stood by me through her encouragements and financial support during this pursuit of my master's degree. Special recognition goes to my children: Musakasa, Daniel, Mwelwa and Kusensela for their resilience and tolerance during the time I paid little attention to them because of this research report

ABSTRACT

The study sought to investigate teacher transfer: trends and causes (2017-2018): A case study of Chibombo district in Central Province. The objectives of the study were to establish the underlying causes of teacher transfers from Chibombo district between 2017-2018, to investigate transfer trend of teachers from and to Chibombo district from 2017-2018, to determine the implications of these transfers may have on the overall educational dispensation in Chibombo district.

The study was conducted in four government secondary schools in Chibombo district and employed a mixed methods design. Questionnaire was the main instrument of data collection in addition to interview guide, Observation analysis and document review. The collected data was analyzed descriptively using frequency tables. The study revealed the following revelations; there is a transfer procedure in the Ministry of Education but it is not well known to the teacher's. Secondly the negative perception of teachers on teachers transfer has affected teacher performance in a school. Thirdly, the transfer of overstayed teachers has both negative and positive effect on teacher performance.

The study made the following conclusions; teacher transfers do exist in the studied schools with a transfer policy and being carried out by the Ministry of Education in Zambia. Transfers in schools are liked by teachers since they increase on teachers' innovativeness, flexibility at work and also enables them to participate more in school activities which improves their performance .Also teachers who overstay in the same school are demoralized, get used to unchanged environment which creates lack of innovativeness and thus declining teacher performance. The researcher recommended that the transfers of teacher s should be handled fairly by the Ministry of Education; teachers should be encouraged to form associations in schools or of the former members of their schools so as to be able to keep track of their friends in case of transfers. Finally, there should be stipulated duration any teacher is likely at least to spend at any station or school. This will assist in eliminating the problem of overstayed transfers which is creating discontentment among teachers in schools

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

The following Acronyms and Abbreviations have been used in this report to mean:

ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
AIEMS	Action on Improvement of English, Maths and Science
DEBS	District Education Board Secretary
EFA	Education for All
HOD	Head of Department
ICT	Information Communications Technology
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MOGE	Ministry of General Education
REP	Rural Electrification Programme
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SSA	Sub-Saharan African
TED	Teacher Education Development
TTC	Teacher Training Colleges
ZATERP	Zambia Teacher Education Reform Programme

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter presents the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, study questions, significance of the study, delimitation, limitations, the theoretical framework, conceptual framework and operational definitions.

1.1. Background to the Study

In many developing countries, there is no clear policy on teacher transfers in the public sector. The transfers tend to be ad-hoc and based on personal interests, political interferences and other indirect factors with no regard to improving quality of education. However, it is admitted that transfers also help to increase the efficiency of teachers (Hedges, 2002). In certain cases, the stated policies of teacher transfer have not been developed giving due consideration to its impact on the quality of education (Mulkeen, 2005).

Transfer involves movement of personnel from one institution to another at a request, merit or order from superiors. This happens in public service context and other organizations that have multi units in different geographical areas. It may also refer to appointments on employees request or straight posting arrangements by the organization whereby an individual is asked to work in another organization at the latter's request in order to improve performance in such area of placement (Brett, 1992). It is stipulated within the Public Service Standing Orders that the effective date of appointment on transfer will be the date the officer leaves his or her place of engagement or domicile to take up his or her duties. However, in the teaching service, which is part of the general public service, transfers have been dominated by misgiving which at the end leads to inefficiencies in administrative performance especially for teachers and pupils performance (ECZ, 2016).

Globally teaching is considered a relatively large occupation. Teacher quality is the most important schooling input in the determination of student achievement given the central role the teacher plays in the education sector. However, it has been observed that teaching is increasingly an "occupation" with relatively high flows in, through, and out of school. The high rate of teacher mobility impacts negatively on school improvement efforts for it disrupts

the stability and continuity of teaching (FengandnSass, 2008). Teacher mobility characteristically involves teacher transfers or job change with the latter being strongly associated with teacher attrition in schools (Kreig, 2006). For example, if high quality teachers possess transferable skills that are valued in other occupations, then attrition will tend to erode average teacher quality. Given that this is a global phenomenon, governments all over the world are setting up measures to contain the situation using several incentives and policies (Mulkeen, 2005). According to MOE (2018) improving learning materials in Zambia is an integral aspect of fostering development in the teaching environment and so all teachers will be massively transferred across the country before the end of 2018.

The Education Minister called on the Provincial Education Officers (PEO) to transfer all secondary school teachers from one district to the other, especially those who have stayed at one district for more than 5 years. He explained that Primary School Teachers will also be transferred by the District Education Board Secretaries (DEBS) from one remote school to a township school and vice versa to ensure that all primary school teachers experience both town and village lives (MOE, 2017: 23).

1.2 Problem Statement

The Ministry of Education has put in place strategies in terms of policies and regulations on the transfers of teachers in public schools in order to improve and maintain quality of performance in the education sector in terms of quality of service delivery. Despite all these measures the applications of teacher's transfers in public schools is still very high and this has contributed negatively on the performance of the pupils in Chibombo district in central province. Therefore, it is for this reason that this research was undertaken in Chibombo district of central province

1.3 Aim of the Study

To investigate teacher transfer: Trends and causes (2017-2018): A case study of Chibombo district in Central Province

1.4 Research Objectives

1. To establish the underlying causes of teacher transfers from Chibombo district between 2017-2018

2. To investigate transfer trend of teachers from and to Chibombo district from 2017-2018
3. To determine the implications of these transfers may have on the overall educational dispensation in Chibombo district

1.5 Research Questions

1. What are the underlying causes of teacher transfers from Chibombo district between 2017-2018?
2. What are the transfer trend of teachers from and to Chibombo district from 2017-2018?
3. What are the implications of these transfers on the overall educational dispensation in Chibombo district?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study will inform the country and education officers on various causes of teacher transfers and possible remedies to curb the same. The study will provide useful insights in the management of available human resources and ways of retaining staff at Provincial/District level with a view to promote quality education.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The study had two major limitations which were: poor road network leading to some of the target schools and the other one was negative response of some respondents. However, the researcher managed to overcome these limitations through use of other means of transport such as walking or cycling as opposed to motor vehicles. The participants with negative attitude were talked to, clearly explaining the importance of the study.

1.8 Delimitation of the Study

The study was conducted in public secondary schools in Chibombo district only. The findings of this study were limited to public secondary schools in the area and were not necessarily generalizable to private secondary schools or other secondary schools in the country since the management systems in those institutions are significantly different. The findings may not necessarily reflect what goes on in other countries since their context with respect to teacher transfer may also be significantly different from the one in Zambia.

1.9 Theoretical Framework

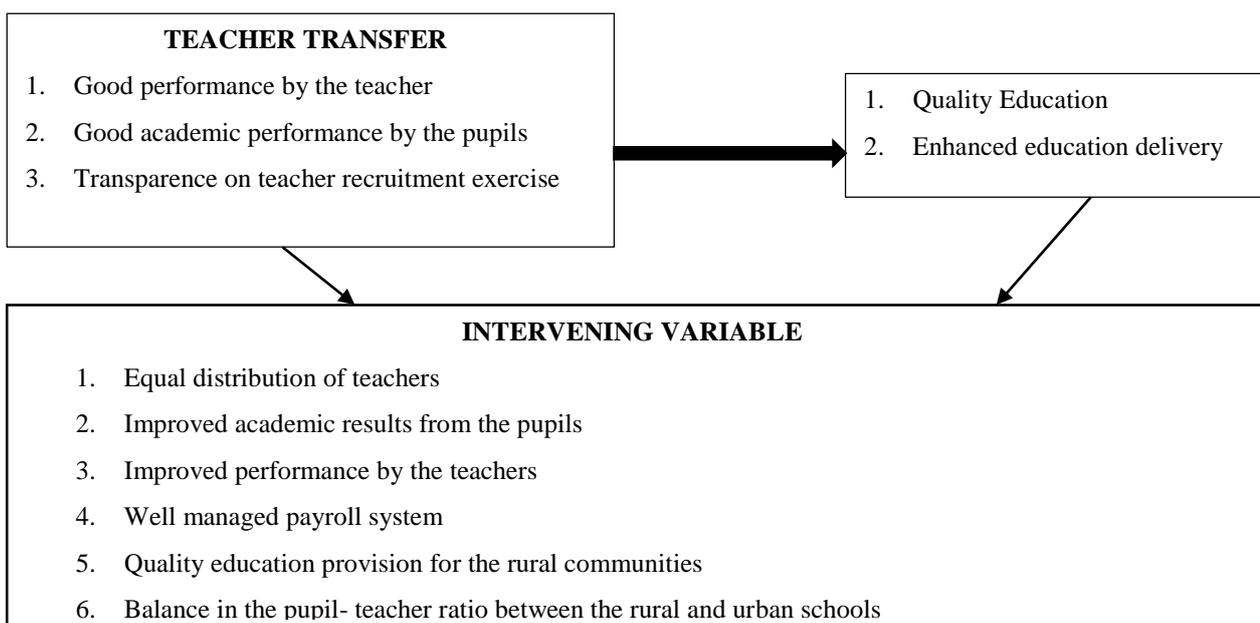
The study was guided by the Human Capital Theory which seeks to investigate teacher transfers from the schools in the study area as flow of human capital. In this sense, it seeks to underpin the effect of the teachers transfers has on the development of the students especially in terms of their academic achievement (Bernard, 2002). Human capital is the stock of competencies, knowledge, social and personality attributes, including creativity, cognitive abilities, embodied in the ability to perform labour so as to produce economic value. It is an aggregate economic view of the human being acting within economies, which is an attempt to capture the social, biological, cultural and psychological complexity as they interact in explicit and/or economic transactions. Many theories explicitly connect investment in human capital development to education, and the role of human capital in economic development training (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall1985).

1.10. Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is an analytical tool with several variations and contexts. It can be applied in different categories of work where an overall picture is needed. It is used to make conceptual distinctions and organize ideas. Strong conceptual frameworks capture something real and do this in a way that is easy to remember and apply. The researcher conceptualized the independent, dependent and intervening variables as shown in figure 1.1.

Independent Variable

Dependent Variable



Source: Ministry of Education 2015

The figure above shows the concepts of independent variables of teacher transfers, good performance by the teacher, good academic performance by the pupils and transparency on teacher recruitment exercise. The dependent variable is quality education and enhanced education delivery. The study investigated the relationship between independent variable on the dependent one. The researcher aimed at determining whether the independent variable: teacher transfers and deployment of teachers does, in any way, affect the dependent variable: Equal distribution of teachers, improved academic results from the pupils, improved performance by the teachers, Well managed payroll system, quality Education provision for the rural communities and balance in the pupil-teacher ratio between the rural and urban schools.

1.10.1 Operational Definition of Terms

Teacher	A value-driven person guided by principles, passion and purpose who helps others to acquire Knowledge, competences or values.
Transfer	A lateral shift causing movement of staff from one position or location to another usually without involving marked change in duties, responsibilities, skills needed or compensation.
Urban	A human settlement with high population density and infrastructure of built environment created through urbanization.
Rural	A geographical area that is located outside town and or cities that lacks urbanization.
Retention	Refers to the ability of an organization, and or government to retain its employees.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Overview

This chapter reviews the literature as reviewed by other researcher on the subject of teacher, recruitment, retention and transfers. The review relayed on the data obtained from published reference materials that included books, magazines and journals both in hard copy and soft (Online) publications.

2.1 Causes of Massive Transfers

The objective of overstay transfers is to ensure fair distribution of talented and qualified teachers among schools and to increase the productivity of every public school. Despite of the good intentions there have been complaints that overstay transfers significantly affect the management and academic performance of both transferring and receiving schools.

Ghost (1985) argues that the overstay transfers are necessary for the efficiency of an organization. The teachers may become less effective arising from the fact that they have stayed in particular posts for a long period of time. Those transferred to new stations may perform better in those places especially if other factors, such as personal barriers, which affect their performance, are successfully tackled. This not only contributes to effective service delivery but contributes to efficiency in the education system also. In this argument, it is perceived that a teacher who changes his or her working environment quite often may perform better than someone who works in the same environment for an elongated period of time. Changes to working environment need not necessarily come from transfers. It can be introduced through other means such as changes in style of management in the school and regularly rotating the extracurricular activities within the school among the teachers.

If professional development is considered, teachers need regular opportunities to experience novel situations, gain perspective and rethink present assumptions (Harris 1980 and Howey 1981). Hollingsworth(1981), Ricken (1983: 75) and Weller (1984) in their contributions on the emotional aspect of many transfer situations, suggest that “adequate preparation and adjustment time is a key facilitating condition in involuntary transfer situations.” This can help the transferee for her/his “readiness to transfer psychologically”. It

is argued that with proper support, transfers can be an effective source of teacher renewal in schools. One of the ways of providing such preparatory time and adjustment may be through a well-publicized policy on transfers which lays down the incentives provided during such transfers.

Over 10,000 Head teachers, Deputy heads, Senior teachers and Special Needs Education teachers whose schools have posted poor results in the last three years face transfers in April, Education News has learnt. The transfers would also affect school administrators who have failed to utilise the teaching resources in Public schools to ensure delivery of quality education.

Also to be moved alongside under-performing school administrators are Head of institutions and their deputies who have overstayed in a station nine years and over. To effect these transfers without further delay, Teachers Service Commission (TSC) has ordered County Directors to compile lists of school administrators and Special Needs Education (SNE) teachers, outlining details of their schools' performances in 2017 and 2018. The County Directors were also to capture the administrator's TSC number; gender; age; Job Group; date of appointment to current grade; type of current school.

The reports were to facilitate the Directorate of Teacher Management Primary identify administrators who have overstayed in a station, and also non-performers. The data provided was also to be used by the Directorate of Human Resource Management and Development to promote deserving cases; issue disciplinary warnings; and more importantly, assist in regulating rationalisation and redistribution of Senior teachers; SNE teachers in Special Schools and Special Units. In an Internal Memo (TSC/SDD TMP/OUT/MEMO/2018) addressed to County Directors, dated February 8th, 2018 signed by Senior Deputy Director – Teacher Management Primary, Mrs Dinah Mwaita; the exercise of compiling the school administrators' data was to be completed by February 16th, 2018 for onward transmission to TSC Headquarters so as to effect the transfers during school holidays April.

The researchers view, this move was only looked at one sided, this is because there are so many reasons that make administrators and mare teachers to stay in urban areas as compared to rural areas and discipline is not the only way of making people to move from one area to the other all in the name of threats and battering of performance and service delivery of a learner. It is important to note that a teacher cannot be transferred to pursue some personal interest or for

non-conducive working environment or hardships. A teacher can run away from responsibility and perceived frustrations or the need for married couples to be closer to their spouses.

2.3 Implications of these Transfers may have on the overall educational dispensation

Some teachers extensively involved in carrying out the strategic plans in school, are transferred before completing them. Others are transferred to schools where their area of expertise is not required. Some others who have been involved in middle management level tasks may become Assistant Teachers in the new school. It is observed that many of the teachers prefer working in one place rather than being transferred to another. All these factors will affect the performance of such teachers in their new schools while creating issues for the management of the previous school. This has led to the Department of Education regularly receiving requests from teachers and Principals of respective schools to cancel the transfers. This issue is common to many developing countries as they are challenged with significant weaknesses including the policy and implementation of recruitment and retention of personnel in the sector.

Researchers view, teacher transfer has a direct influence on the quality of education offered in schools and the pupils. In case of shortages, the available resources (teachers and finances) spread thinly in effort to fill the gap. It forces schools to hire part time teachers instead of acquiring learning materials large classes reduce individual learner contact which is essential for effective learning

2.4 Teacher Supply

In 1990 the Teacher Education Department (TED) was established with a mandate to spearhead the professional development of teachers for basic schools. The specific programmes established for teachers include the Zambia Teacher Education Reform Programme (ZATERP) and in-service training for teachers through School-Based and Resource Centre-Based Training System (SPRINT). This initiative has come out of the Action on Improvement of English Maths and Science (AIEMS) programme, in which resource centres were placed in each district and were used for teacher training. Since a reduction in funding, such training has been taking place in basic schools and the teachers' diploma has been done through distance learning.

Although it is difficult to obtain reliable data on the number of teachers in the education system, according to Zambia National Union of Teachers (ZNUT) there was a shortfall of 18,257 trained basic schoolteachers in 2000. This shortfall is due to a combination of factors.

The loss of basic-school teachers from the profession has been estimated at approximately 9 - 10% per annum, due in part at least to HIV/AIDS. This translates into roughly 2,400 teachers leaving the education system every year. This is almost balanced by the 2,500 new teachers who graduated from Teacher-Training colleges (TTCs) in 1999 and 2000, an increase from the 1,800 in 1996–1998. However, newly-trained teachers have to wait for 9–15 months before they are placed on the education payroll, and in this time, some find employment elsewhere. In addition, it is clear that serving teachers leave the profession to take up other jobs or to work in the more favourable conditions offered in neighbouring countries such as Namibia or Botswana. Retired teachers do sometimes return to teaching in Zambian schools, according to the PEOs, who are very enthusiastic about this trend. However, the effect of all these trends remains a net loss to the teaching profession.

Researcher's perception, for secondary-school teachers, there is no specific data, but it was reported to the researcher that teacher supply cannot meet the demands for key subjects such as maths, science and English. It is also clear that secondary education in general suffers from similar problems of poor distribution of available human resources and the loss of trained teachers to other countries in the region. The MOGE has attempted to tackle this problem over the last years by seconding primary teachers' secondary schools to fill the gaps. This can, however, be a source of de-motivation to existing, trained secondary school teachers.

2.5 Problems with Recruitment of Rural Teachers

Difficulties in recruiting qualified teachers are the first issue rural schools have in providing a quality education to their students. Rural states or provinces pay less than their more populated counterparts, and within states/provinces, rural teachers are paid less than their urban peers (Jimerson 2003). This is further complicated by the fact that new teachers in all locations "tend to earn less than in other professions requiring similar levels of education" (Nelson and Drown 2000). In other words, rural teachers are underpaid for an already underpaid profession, as measured by level of education, which of course results in a shortage.

The fact that teachers are underpaid in rural areas leads to an unfortunate distribution problem, where the best qualified new teachers end up avoiding the areas that are in the greatest need of

them (Darling-Hammond 2001). This is well-illustrated in a questionnaire provided to Ghanaian teachers, wherein it was discovered that over 80% of new teachers had a preference for teaching in urban areas (Mulkeen 2005). Differences in pay were cited as a major reason for this preference. In other countries, teachers at rural schools often abandon their posts to work other, higher-paying jobs (Bennell et al. 2002). This resulting absenteeism has a profound effect on rural children’s scholastic achievement. Table 1 below shows rates of teacher absenteeism in a few African countries.

Table 2.1: Teacher Absenteeism Rate

Table 2.4. Teacher Absenteeism Rate (percentages)						
Sex	Primary			Secondary		
	Botswana	Malawi	Uganda	Botswana	Malawi	Uganda
Female	7.4	4.5	4.3	6.1	3.4	12.6
Male	4.2	4.6	2.4	3.7	2.4	9.1

Source: Ministry of Education 2015

The argument for rural teachers being paid less is one based on cost-of-living. Certain areas, such as major cities, have higher-than-average food costs, housing prices, and so on, which is used to justify paying urban teachers more than their rural counterparts. However, many cost adjustment indices do not capture some of the difficulties experienced by those living in rural regions (Nelson and Drown 2000). For example, cost-of-living adjustments rarely take into account locale-specific needs. A teacher at a rural school will almost certainly require a car, while a teacher in an urban district may be able to take advantage of public transportation. Likewise, a teacher in a rural district with a cold climate may require a car with four wheel drive or snow tires, or expensive jackets. These locale-specific items are often not considered when deciding cost-of-living pay. The geographic isolation inherent to rural areas often has unseen costs, making rural teachers’ low pay particularly burdensome.

Even if a teacher is successfully recruited to a rural school, there are often problems with retention. Teacher attrition can be as high as 30-50% in certain rural schools (Hobart 2001). The main reason teachers leave rural areas is isolation: social, cultural, and professional (Collins 1999). With regard to social isolation, rural areas generally have a very limited population. Consequently there are limited opportunities for social interaction; a teacher’s nearest neighbour may be many miles away, community events may be limited, there may be few opportunities for extracurricular activities, and so on. Likewise, the limited population

affects the number of cultural activities: teachers in rural areas have limited access to arts, movies, museums, and other cultural events. Professional isolation is the third burden faced by rural teachers, and one of the most damaging (Jimerson 2003). Due to both a limited number of positions at school and a limited number of schools themselves, there are few opportunities to advance one’s career while working in rural areas. As a result, new teachers may opt to teach at a rural school for a few years but be forced to leave in search of increased responsibilities or a promotion. These three factors combined result in a very low retention rate of teachers, which further exacerbates the first problem of difficulties in recruitment.

Table 2.2 below summarizes the factors that make it difficult to recruit teachers to rural areas.

Table 2.2: Factors that Push Teachers Away From Rural Areas

Social and cultural isolation	Poor pay and salary differentials	Limited mobility (geographic, professional)
Lack of personal privacy	Low pay does not cover rural realities (e.g. required car)	Lured away by higher paying private sector
Limited opportunity for spouse employability	Difficulties in access to medical care	Lack of community services

Source: (GRZ, 2017)

2.5 Consequences of Poor Recruitment and Retention

Poor recruitment and retention has a profound effect on rural children’s education. The first consequence of the inability to recruit teachers is the hiring of under-prepared or under qualified teachers. Administrators must “find someone, anyone, to teach the class, especially in elementary grades” (Jimerson 2003). Consequently, a class may have a teacher with insufficient credentials or education, such as when a school hires a full-time substitute to teach a class. As teachers are a very important input in the education process, having a poorly trained or less capable teacher puts an artificial ceiling on student achievement (Arnold 2005). Another option administrators may choose in dealing with difficulties in recruitment is consolidating classes. While this does allow a teacher to reach more students, the drawback is of course larger class sizes. In Malawi, for example, the average class size in rural areas is 77; in urban areas it is 44 (Mulkeen 2005). And, unfortunately, the research shows that large class sizes are an impediment to student learning (Finn and Achilles 1999). There do not seem to be any studies that attempt to unearth whether the drawback of larger class sizes is outweighed by the benefits of a better-trained teacher; regardless, larger class sizes have a detrimental effect on scholastic achievement.

Lack of access to services available in the urban areas is often cited as an obstacle to the recruitment and retaining of teachers in remote rural schools. In the above memoir, physical accessibility and transport are problems in some rural places. Not only do rural teachers struggle to access social services, but they are also professionally isolated. For example, Collins (1999) and Appleton (1998) maintain that geographic and professional isolation are some of the reasons why teachers abandon rural appointments. Other reasons that have been noted include, lack of resources, isolation from family, cultural barriers and professional burnout (Sharplin, 2002; Handal et al., 2013). Also diminished social and professional status triggers disdain for rural appointments (Hudson & Hudson, 2008; McClure, Redfield, & Hammer, 2003).

In South Africa, the Department of Education (2005) and Nelson Mandela Foundation (2005) describe the problem of teacher recruitment and retention in rural schools as part of a broader social development challenge facing rural communities. They argue that lack of basic social services such as provision of adequate infrastructure, water, electricity, roads and clinics impact on the improvement and provision of quality education in rural schools. Some problems are also perceived as related. For example, shortage of resources such as textbooks, classroom space, and professional support also negatively affect the professional image of rural teachers.

2.6 Understanding Teaching in a Rural Context

It is helpful at this stage to sketch the broad context of teachers and teaching in rural areas of Africa. Although 70 per cent of Africa's population lives in rural areas (approximately 500 million people), it is these areas that are critically under-resourced with respect to qualified and experienced teachers. The challenge for recruiting teachers to and retaining them in rural areas is complex. A joint report of IIEP, the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) and FAO indicates that training more teachers will not solve the teacher problem in rural areas (FAO/IIEP/ADEA, 2006). Simply stated, producing more teachers will not increase the availability of teachers in rural areas, nor will it impact the quality of teaching and learning in rural schools; currently, working conditions are too problematic to recruit and retain teachers in schools. A policy regime is needed for rural areas that assures teachers' rights and responsibilities, improves working conditions and increases well-being.

2.7 Rural Education: Analysis of Recruitment and Retention Models

According to McEwan 1999, the issue of addressing rural teacher recruitment and retention is grounded in teachers' inclination to trade off financial and non-financial aspects of the job in an attempt to achieve high job satisfaction. The models used to resolve issues in rural education quality usually focus more on the financial aspects of the job (ibid). The following section will discuss a handful of these models, including the hardship model, mandate model, distance model, recruitment model and teacher resiliency model. Case studies will be discussed that highlight the relative strengths and weaknesses of these models. Particular attention will be paid to the cost and timespan required to implement each model. It is also important to note that measuring the success of a model can be very difficult; looking at recruitment figures, for example, may provide an immediate but not long-term indicator of success a particular model in a particular context may increase recruitment while simultaneously decreasing retention (Cobbold 2006). In addition, a model may increase both recruitment and retention while sacrificing educational quality, providing a brilliant cure that kills the patient. Unfortunately, the level of detail needed to properly determine whether or not a model is successful (long-term recruitment and retention rates from both before and after the model, educational scores before and after implementation, relative wealth of the school, timespan to implement the model in that context...) is never available for a single case study, much less for enough case studies to develop an in-depth understanding. For this reason, these models will be looked at generally: the goal is to learn, in broad strokes, where each model fails and succeeds.

2.7.1 The Hardship Model

According to Ankrah-Dove (1982) the hardship model (and the later-discussed mandate model) falls under what is termed the rural deficit model. This means that the perspective of rural life is taken to be that "it is deficient in all the qualities which would attract teachers", and this belief underlies how the problem of teacher recruitment is addressed in these particular models (Ankrah-Dove 13). Reid et al. elucidate the problems of this perspective, stating "it is as if rural society is judged in terms of a deficit discourse (dominated by the desire to make them like us) rather than a diversity discourse (recognition and value of difference)." Reid et al. go on to argue that the stereotype of the rural 'problem' acts as a barrier which must be overcome by focusing on the benefits of the rural social space. As the hardship model (and mandate model) is inherently founded in this belief, it makes no attempt to address this conceptualization issue.

In general, the hardship model involves incentivizing rural teaching roles by implementing salary increases, bonuses, travel allowances or subsidized housing when recruiting new rural teachers (Lowe 2006). Loan forgiveness plans can also act as an incentive for new teachers (ibid). These plans may involve full or partial payment of student loans by school districts, or liaison with lending institutions to reduce interest rates.

Financial incentives such as these are a common tool in Africa, yet are often unsuccessful. In Lesotho, rural teachers receive a flat hardship fee of M275 (\$18) per month, which is equal to a 10% bonus in salary (Mulkeen 2005). As mentioned earlier, this has done little to entice skilled teachers to rural areas; 51% of rural Lesotho teachers lack any qualification whatsoever. Mulkeen argues that part of this failure is due to the insufficiency of the hardship fee. The cost of travel, including both the cost of fuel and the opportunity cost of lost time, often outweighs the value of this bonus. This case highlights that the incentives provided need to be substantial in order to outweigh the costs of rurality. Of course, this raises another problem in and of itself: the hardship model effectively increases the salary of teachers, which may further strain an already-strained public budget. It is difficult to balance these two opposing issues.

Some authors suggest that while the hardship model of incentivizing rural teaching positions may be a useful short-term remedy for recruitment, it lacks use in the long term for retention purposes and achieving sustained and stable education environments (Ankrah-Dove 1982). It is suggested that these incentives may need to remain in place throughout tenure in order to retain those teachers, further raising the cost of such a model. Additionally, these incentives, such as the \$900 bonus offered by the Victorian Department of Education in Australia for rural practicum placements, do not resolve locale-specific issues such as existing family and work commitments (White and Reid 2008). The benefit of extra pay to one family member may not make up the consequent loss in pay due to another family member being unable to find work in a rural location. In other words, hardship models attempt to address the “cultural deficit” of rural living through financial incentives, rather than attempting to address the deficit itself.

Others suggest that the best policy option to counter lower wages in rural schools is to offer higher wages and improved benefits. One example of this is the Employer-Assisted Teacher Housing Program in Mississippi, which provides housing credits to teachers (Monk 2007). However, Monk counters this argument with the problems of such an approach. Apart from the potentially exorbitant cost, it is difficult to ascertain what is a large enough offset to convince teachers, and this is likely to vary on an individual basis. Additionally, although this

may get new teachers in the door, it does not guarantee their commitment or effectiveness. These problems, in addition to its cost, raise questions about the sustainability of such a model.

In terms of the hardship model, one author posited that non-financial strategies could be even more important in retention than financial incentives (Jerrard 2016). Teacher motivation is not only financially driven, but aspects such as “self-worth and community engagement or status” are vital to teacher retention in rural schools (ibid). Therefore, recruitment may be better improved by looking at sociocultural rather than financial solutions. This is significant as the hardship model generally makes no attempt to address these issues.

In contrast, the three major benefits of the hardship model are that:

1. It can be implemented immediately, with little to no change in policy framework (and thus little administrative cost besides the increase in pay itself) (Lowe 2006);
2. It attempts to address the problem of low teacher pay, one of the most common complaints of rural teachers (Monk 2007);
3. Increasing teacher pay is not dangerous politically; resistance will come from budget strain rather than political opposition (Goldhaber 2006).

In summary, the hardship model is a quick, simple solution. However, there are questions about its sustainability and whether it can actually ensure motivated teachers. Additionally, it is expensive. The last point in particular raises questions about its use in lower-income countries.

2.7.2 Mandate Model

Ankrah-Dove (1982) defines the mandate model as “the compulsory posting of all newlytrained teachers to rural schools for a period of years, the requirement of service in rural school for eligibility for promotion,” and states that this model is often relied upon in lessdeveloped countries. This model can lead to issues such as whether recruitment in this way will lead to adequate retention and whether teachers will choose to leave the profession rather than face being posted to a rural school. Current teachers may resist the proposal of such a policy, making it difficult to execute. It has also been suggested that unwilling participation in rural schools, which can be caused by implementation of the mandate model, may bring a negative attitude to the classroom, resulting in poor teaching quality and therefore poor educational quality for the student (ibid). Participants in a study by the Economic

Development Institute of the World Bank (1993) said that compulsory rural postings had led to considerable issues with teacher absenteeism and purposeful misbehaviour in an attempt to be reassigned. This model also suggests a message which reinforces the idea of the rural deficit model by implying that rural positions are so undesirable that postings must be enforced. Because the postings are usually for young and inexperienced teachers, with few, if any, experienced staff to assist them, there is the potential for struggle in such an isolated atmosphere, resulting in an unsuccessful educational experience for students. A response from a participant in the EDI study said that coupling compulsory rural service for new teachers with the promise of a post to a more desirable area after two to three years was a successful strategy for recruitment. However, this argument supports Ankrah-Dove's view, resulting in the least experienced teachers being placed in potentially the most challenging teaching roles, while simultaneously ensuring a certain level of future attrition, i.e. such a model fails to address retention.

Botswana utilized a hybrid of this model and the hardship model to address teacher deployment issues (Mulkeen 2007). Once the policy change was implemented, teachers were mandated to more rural postings. However, teachers were compensated with and for transportation, disturbance allowances, hardship pay, and housing credits. This model had the benefit of ensuring a sufficient number of teachers to rural schools. At the same time, this model is also very expensive due to the number of allowances provided, and it is likely there would have been much more resistance from teachers without these allowances (ibid). It is extremely questionable whether or not a much poorer country, such as Rwanda, would be able to afford such benefits.

Unfortunately, I am unable to find any research that discusses the effect this model had on retention rates of teachers. Researchers (Ankrah-Dove, Mulkeen, Jimerson) posit that being forced to rural posts may increase resentment and thus decrease retention, but none support their argument with statistics or case studies. I also question the arguments about how politically dangerous such a policy would be in the case of Zambia: Zambia already has a mandatory two-year of compulsory public service, and it is possible that since this policy framework already exists, teachers would be more amenable to 2 years of mandatory rural posting (Sinema 2015). For this reason, political resistance to the mandate model may be less in Zambia than in other countries.

2.7.3 Recruitment Model

The recruitment model offers scholarships or similar benefits to high-achieving school students from rural areas, under the condition that they return to that area to teach. For example, the U.S. state of Mississippi offers scholarships for prospective rural teachers through a high school-to-college program (Collins 1999). One study undertaken by Adams and Woods (2015) investigated this model by looking at the relationship between teacher retention and familiarity with rurality. While the initiative didn't focus on offering scholarships to students from rural areas, it did determine that a familiarity with the area and culture the teacher would be teaching in aided teacher retention, and specifically related this to whether the teacher themselves had attended a rural school (Adams and Woods 257). Therefore, it is theoretically plausible that encouraging students to return to their local rural area as teachers would have a positive effect on teacher retention, and thus the general quality of the education provided.

It is important that in recruitment efforts, teachers are adequately prepared to meet the needs of rural students (Azano and Stewart 2015). Teachers must have received training particular to the issues of students marginalised by poverty and geographic isolation. For this reason, the recruitment model is useful in that ensures the incoming teachers have an understanding of the context in which they will be placed. However, some authors question how significant a personal connection to rurality is with regard to teacher quality – having dental work done does not make you qualified to be a dentist, and likewise attending a rural school when young does not inherently make a person fit to be a rural teacher (Jimerson 2003). The apprenticeship of observation presumes that teachers who attended rural schools as students are adequately prepared; this is a fallacy. As such, any recruitment model must also involve specialized rural training - an emotional connection is not sufficient. Staffing rural schools with ill-prepared but familiar teachers does not serve the long-term purpose of successful education for rural students with job-satisfied teachers (Azano and Stewart 2015).

This sentiment is similarly argued in Miller 2012, who states that exposure to or immersion in rural communities is important, but must be done in an instructional rather than observational capacity. In teacher education programs, reliance on the 'apprenticeship of observation' is not enough; this exposure or immersion must be "intentional, well-planned, and implemented with a critical lens" (Azano and Stewart 2015).

Hudson and Hudson (2008) argue that recruiting only students from rural backgrounds to fill rural placements is far too limited an approach to adequately fill vacancies and provide successful teaching experiences. Such a model may artificially limit diversity in the profession. This is pertinent as participants in the Hudson and Hudson study identified as more confident when they had rural exposure; however, they still acknowledged the same challenges as non-rural participants, such as low pay. According to Azano and Stewart, “the key finding is that teaching candidates need explicit instruction on theory and pedagogies for success in rural schools and to use personal histories or transform social capital into meaningful, relevant pedagogy”. This finding supports the study’s proposal that teacher education programs are necessary to prepare future rural teachers; without this specific training, rural-familiar teachers still face the same handicaps that new teachers do. The typical under-achievement and motivational issues of students proved to be significant challenges to all teachers in the study, highlighting the need for highly-skilled teachers in rural schools. Success in rural schools is therefore not merely about filling vacancies with people from the area.

In terms of retaining teachers, Collins 1999 argues that it should be a joint school-community effort. This is to “help new teachers overcome feelings of isolation, acquire a sense of community security, and develop professional competence” (ibid). One example of this holistic recruitment strategy is found at The South Carolina Center for Teacher Recruitment. Firstly, the Center has the Pro-Team Program, which acts as an introduction to the prospect of a teaching career for minority seventh and eighth-grade students (Collins 2004). This is followed by the Teacher Cadet program, which provides a class to twelfth-grade students as an introduction to teaching, for which they receive college credit. Finally, the Center offers a scholarship for prospective teachers, covering tuition and enrichment activities, provided the new teacher makes a commitment to teach in a rural school, one year for every year they hold the scholarship (Teaching Fellows 2016). In this way, the program is more than just another professional development opportunity – it is an organization which streamlines the process from middle-school to new teacher. As interested students will have the opportunity to engage this program from such a young age, this program will not only give ample time for specialized rural training, but also allow the student to develop a connection with the program, decreasing feelings of isolation.

In Ghana, a shortage of qualified teachers coupled with reluctance by graduates to accept rural postings was addressed by an initiative described in a paper by Cobbold 2006. This initiative,

quite similar to the above program in South Carolina, is “a scheme by which districts sponsor teacher candidates for training in the Initial Teacher Training Colleges (ITTCs) and contract them to teach in the districts for at least three years (Cobbold 2006)”.

Cobbold’s study focused on Akhoyer District, which presented severe problems in both attracting and retaining teachers, and was one of the earliest to implement the sponsorship scheme.

The initiative is similar to that of the recruitment model. In order to be accepted for training in the ITTCs, a candidate must be sponsored by a district, to which they are then obligated to return to and work as a teacher once trained (Cobbold 2006). This acts as encouragement for rural candidates to return to their own rural district once qualified. However, it was also allowed for urban candidates to apply for the rural areas within their own district. This allowance may mitigate the issue of a recruitment model limiting diversity. Cobbold argues that the initiative is seen to have the benefit of providing teachers with a sense of community, unlike that presented in Ankrah-Dove’s rural deficit model, and also fosters a positive learning environment by encouraging rural students to take an interest in their education.

There are a number of lessons that can be taken from the Akhoyer district study. First, it highlighted some of the logistical difficulties in training teachers in rural areas. While the ITT program in Ghana directs trainees to spend their final year teaching in schools, these schools are not generally within the districts they are sponsored by, but instead close to their urban training colleges due to financial constraints (Cobbold 2006). Second, while the scheme in the Akhoyer district did yield positive teaching results, the three-year contract period did not allow for any further sponsorship or opportunities to advance within the district, resulting in many teachers leaving to pursue further study. This highlights the importance of having both short- and long-term retention policies. Additionally, the Akhoyer district scheme did not implement an initial interview or on-going monitoring program to determine the candidate’s personal on-going commitment to teaching. This gave the potential for many candidates to undertake teacher training as a springboard for future careers. Consequently, in this example, the recruitment model addressed the problems of recruitment but had unforeseen consequences with regard to retention. This is especially a problem in this case as the Ghanaian school districts contributed to the prospective teachers financially through their scholarships/training. While the program does ensure there will be enough teachers, it does not ensure there will be enough experienced teachers, nor does it relieve the high administrative/financial burden of

recruitment and training. A longer contractual period may address this, at the cost of a smaller pool of applicants.

One final note about the recruitment model is that it is inherently a localized process and for this reason functions much better in decentralized education systems (Cobbold 2006). Consequently the recruitment model may work very well in a system like Zambia, where individual districts are responsible for their own recruitment, yet fail completely in a system like Thailand, where the centralization of the education system may completely mitigate the benefits of localized recruitment. At the same time, this also means much of the development of such a program, and therefore the administrative burden, falls onto the already burdened rural schools. This is expensive in both cost and time.

2.7.4 Distance Model

The distance model involves the utilization of information-communications technology (ICT), usually through internet, to mediate, improve, or enhance the classroom experience (Meyer 2014). The major benefit of the distance model is it allows a single teacher to be in multiple classrooms (Hammer et al. 2005). Through this distance education model, an alliance between multiple rural school districts could allow for one teacher to teach multiple classrooms of students simultaneously via distance-learning. Hammer et al. explain how this was used to great effect in Colorado with an alliance between four rural school districts, wherein the cost of a single teacher, along with the required communication technology, was split between schools. In doing so, the distance model addresses many of the problems rural teachers face by allowing them to live in their preferred area while still teaching rural students. The major drawback of this model is that it is inherently reliant on infrastructure, and a high level of infrastructure at that. Adedeji and Olaniyan (2011) highlight that distance education addresses a great many of the problems found in rural education in Africa, yet as so many rural districts in Africa are lacking adequate electricity, much less dedicated broadband internet, distance education is at the moment unfeasible. The costs of installing this infrastructure are beyond the level of a rural school's budget and thus depend on a government or private industry initiative (ibid). It is possible that improvements in cell phone service and access may present an alternative to dedicated internet, often referred to in the literature as m-learning (mobile learning) (Brown 2005). Duolingo, a mobile application that allows its users to learn a variety of languages through cell-phone-based games, is one such example of m-learning (Vesselinov and Grego 2012). Unfortunately, m-learning suffers some of the same problems as internet-

based distance learning, namely a high initial cost due to its reliance on technology. It inherently requires a high level of cell-phone access (and in the case of Duolingo, access to data services, as the game needs a consistent connection and cannot be played offline) and consequently has a high barrier to usage in the developing world. Mackintosh (2005) argues that a move to such a model of education may further exacerbate societal divides in access to education, as the distance model ensures that wealthier schools and populations will have better access to schooling. It is possible that the invention of new technologies could greatly lower the cost of access, either through reducing the cost of infrastructure or increasing the ubiquity of cell-phones or other m-learning options, but it is too difficult to predict the trajectory of technology to have any specific hopes.

The benefits of the distance model are not limited to solely increasing access to teachers or materials. Starr and White (2008) ascertained that ICTs are not only useful in the transmission of lessons for students, but also to allow for supportive and time-saving meetings. This can be utilized by principals particularly for collaborative school efforts, teacher-parent meetings and student-teacher communications. The increased efficiency provided by these benefits can reduce the administrative burden on rural schools, freeing up resources that can then be put towards recruiting and retaining teachers.

Finally, it is worth noting that some authors in the literature warn of viewing distance education as a “silver bullet.” The mere introductions of ICTs to a classroom do not in and of itself improves the learning experiences nor inherently increase efficiency (Sutherland et. al 2009). Indeed, specialized training, an encouraging administrative environment, and consistent maintenance are required for new technology to be used effectively. The literature is rife with examples of donated technology falling into disrepair, being outright ignored, or simply being used as alternatives to existing technology (rather than enhancements or efficiency-increasers) due to a lack of training or support (ibid). In fact, a meta-review of 150 distance-education programs in Sub-Saharan Africa discovered that traditional, paper-based learning tends to be more reliable and sustainable than online and web-based learning (Leary and Berge 2006). Again, it is possible that enhancements in technology, training, and access will improve the efficacy of such a model – note that this meta-review took place in 2006, just under 10 years ago; it is possible that its findings are no longer accurate.

Unfortunately, it is the most recent meta-analysis I have been able to find on the topic localized to sub-Saharan Africa.

In short, distance technology solves a great many of the problems of rural teacher recruitment and retention by completely changing the system. At the same time, this model has yet to be fully realized in wealthy countries like the United States – it is a long way from being applicable to the Zambian context. Despite its many benefits, its extremely high cost means it is only a solution on a long-term timescale.

2.7.4 Teacher Resiliency Model

The teacher resiliency model is a model designed to improve teacher retention that relies on creating a conducive administrative and classroom culture, rather than the external policy measures championed in the other four models. As explained by Malloy and Allen (2007), the concept can be simply defined as a system built around “nurturing the nurturers”. In their study, the authors examine a particular U.S. rural school with a reputation for high teacher retention and determine how well its policies align with the three dimensions of teacher resiliency building: caring and support, high expectations, and meaningful participation. In the study, Malloy and Allen found that the requirement of caring and support was met by focusing on three dimensions of collaboration, entitled “supportive,” “facilitative,” and “informative”. The supportive dimension was achieved in the following ways: teacher recognition strategies, family-like support between teachers and the principal in times of personal stress, illness or need, faculty social gatherings and reduced assignments for teachers facing a particular period of stress. The facilitative dimension was apparent in teacher-led (rather than state-mandated) activities. These were feedback-based activities such as “teamteaching, peer evaluations, reflective conversations related to best practices ... [which] enable teachers to develop the capacity to become more effective” (ibid). The informative aspect, “to better equip colleagues to address challenges,” was significantly present because of a faculty decision to undertake a mentor training program. To put it more simply, the school focused on encouraging collaboration between administration-teacher and teacher-teacher, while simultaneously promoting autonomy at a school-level rather than a state- or national-level. In this way, the model creates a community of which teachers become a part, thereby encouraging retention.

With regard to the second dimension of high expectations, the teacher resiliency model requires a culture that recognizes individual efforts. The model accomplishes this by establishing a culture of teachers being the ones in charge of norms and monitoring, rather than a more centralized system where the school culture is dictated by the principal or administrators

outside the school. As a result, teachers are rewarded for their individualized efforts and work, rather than simply being “cogs in a machine.” Again, this promotes individual investment on the level of the teacher, thereby increasing retention.

In terms of the meaningful participation aspect, the examined school was found to satisfy career growth opportunities for teachers by holding twice-yearly reviews which allow the teacher to be stimulated in remaining involved by continuing to contribute to the success of the school. Additionally, teachers were not defined by status, but treated as equals. The theme here is clear: teachers need to be creators of the culture of the school, rather than subservient to the culture.

This model is clearly an involved system, requiring implementation by the principal and several key members of staff to initially introduce it to a school. There are foreseeable issues in the implementation of certain aspects of teacher resilience, such as resistance by administration on the state/province or national level. Additionally, a teacher resiliency approach requires the efforts of all teaching staff and is not achievable if teachers refuse to become involved. In countries with high levels of teacher absenteeism, like Rwanda, this may be difficult to achieve.

At the same time, this study is the only major study I have found that develops and articulates a framework for building community and individual involvement to promote retention, rather than simply pointing out the importance of such buzzwords. The value of this model is that, like the recruitment model, it is a localized and individualized process. As solutions to the recruitment and retention problem will always be tied to local context, not just on the national but also the subnational level, individualized strategies, through their adaptability, will (counter-intuitively) be the “one model fits all” approach. Additionally, as the majority of this model is decided in-house, schools can begin implementing it without national policy changes. Consequently, this model is both low in cost and relatively quick to implement.

2.7.5 Concluding Thoughts on Models

In terms of the specific characteristics of successful recruitment and retention practices, not every model will be suitable for every school and thus it requires an individualized approach (Murphy and DeArmond 2003). Ankras-Dove (1982) also indicated the strategies, in particular those falling under the rural deficit model should be specific to the interests and motivations of the teacher, and these will vary based on the locale of the school. Additionally, as local contexts change with time, models will have to be re-evaluated consistently over the years (Hammer et al. 2005). In short, successful recruitment and retention strategies will forever be

a moving target, dependent on local circumstances; it is extremely unlikely for there to be a “silver bullet,” implementable at the global or national level, able to permanently solve the problem of rural recruitment and retention. Solutions will always be unique to the local context; models that are adaptable to individual contexts should be prioritized.

2.8 Teacher Deployment Systems

These cases are illustrative of the main methods of teacher deployment. In practice, two main systems exist, either deployment by a central authority, or deployment by a “market system” (Lewin, 2000). In Mozambique, Malawi, and Zambia deployment is centrally planned. In Malawi and Zambia this is done at national level, and in Mozambique it is done at provincial level. In Lesotho there is a market system in operation where schools are free to select their own teachers, and teachers select the schools to which they apply.

2.8.1 Central Planning of Deployment

Centralized deployment has been a long-standing model in many countries in sub-Saharan Africa, and is widely believed to allow rational deployment of teachers (Penrose, 1998). Central planning has the advantage of distance from local pressures, and can be more easily made fair and transparent. However, highly centralized systems are dependent on the quality of information they receive from schools, and tend to suffer from congested decision making and inattention to the individual needs of education staff (Gottelmann-Duret and Hogan, 1998; Rust and Dalin, 1990).

The major weakness of the centralized systems is that they are often undermined in practice by an inability to implement rational deployment. Teachers may circumvent Ministry of Education’s posting policy by claiming fictitious health problems, exploiting poor record keeping, and or just failing to take their assigned posting (Hedges, 2000). Teachers who fail to take up a rural posting present a difficulty for policy makers. If they are later allowed to take up a desirable post, they undermine the posting system. If they are not, then the system loses the resource of a trained teacher.

The inability to implement planned deployment has serious consequences. In Ghana for instance, a recent survey of 262 newly trained teachers’ posted to four rural districts showed that 115 failed to arrive at their teaching post. This widespread failure to accept rural posts undermines the rational posting system (Hedges, 2000), and contributes to a lack of conviction

among administrators that significant progress can be made in addressing patterns of unbalanced deployment (Gottelmann-Duret et al, 1998).

Many countries have considered decentralizing the teacher hiring process to a local level. In terms of teacher deployment, decentralisation brings both benefits and risks. The more local the system, the more likely it is to be able to keep in touch with the needs of the schools, to respond quickly and flexibly to needs. However, a local structure may also open up a greater possibility of undue influence being exerted by powerful individuals on deployment decisions, especially in countries with a weak administrative capacity at district and local levels (Hallak, 1990). In many instances in Africa, administrators operating at the local level are exposed to the pressure of influential personalities in local communities, and it is not unusual to see their decisions being biased. Improved systems of ‘checks and balances’ are needed to ensure countrywide equity, justice and efficiency in teacher deployment (Gottelmann-Duret, 1998).

2.8.2 The Market System

In the market system, teachers are not sent to schools, but apply for posts in specific schools. This system removes the burden of deploying teachers from the central authorities. In effect, teachers deploy themselves by searching for jobs. It gives each school more autonomy in selecting their teachers. Schools are more likely to select teachers who will accept the position, and often recruit local people. However, “market effects” occur, and the most desirable teachers (best qualified), tend to get the most desirable jobs. In Lesotho the practical effect of the market system is that most schools are able to fill their teaching posts, but that more of the teachers in isolated schools have lower qualifications.

2.9 Summary

The study reviewed literature under the themes: overview of rural schools, teachers supply and retention, problem with recruitment and retention of rural teachers; a problem not unique to Zambia, consequences of poor recruitment and retention, rural education; analysis of recruitment and retention models and teacher deployment system. During the review of the above literature, the researcher was kin to identify that Zambia has been in a rush to recruit and deploy teachers massively especially in the rural areas in order to meet its major set goals under education in the vision 2030 and the Seventh National Development Plain (7NDP) but the gap still remains where the teacher recruitment and deployment system does not fully account for the weaknesses within the recruitment process and the poor payroll management, hence,

allowing teachers to take advantage of the weaknesses in the systems to further engineer transfers from low economically developed areas to the well-developed areas of the country thus causing high levels of teacher transfers. This status quo even compounds more on the already low levels of staffing in some areas.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents methodology which was used in carrying out the study. It includes research design, target population, sample size, sampling procedure, research instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Design

De Vaus (2006) views research design as the overall strategy that one chooses to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby, ensuring effective address of the research problem, while Burns and Grove (2011:195) view it as “a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings”. Parahoo (2014: 13) describes a research design as “a plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analysed”. In more clear and vibrant view, Alise, and Teddlie (2010) opine that a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure.

Research design can be thought of as the logic or master plan of a research that throws light on how the study is to be conducted. It shows how all of the major parts of the research study the samples or groups, measures, treatments or programmes work together in an attempt to address the research questions (Teddlie, 2010). Research design is similar to an architectural outline. The research design can be seen as actualisation of logic in a set of procedures that optimises the validity of data for a given research problem. According to Crotty (1998: 55), the research design serves to "plan, structure and execute" the research to maximise the "validity of the findings". It gives directions from the underlying philosophical assumptions to research design, and data collection. The function of a research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables for effective address of the research problem logically and as unambiguously as possible.

There are many research designs. Some of the common ones are; descriptive survey design, case study design, experimental design, ethnography design, phenomenology design and mixed

methods design (Orodho, 2003). However, the research design used in this study was a mixed methods one. Onwuegbuzie et al (2010) observe that, generally speaking, in social sciences there are three main research types, qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods.

Mixed methods research is a methodology for conducting research that involves collecting, analysing and integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches. This approach to research is used when this integration provides a better understanding of the research problem than either of each alone. De Vaus (2006) Mixed methods research is a methodology for conducting research that involves collecting, analysing, and integrating (or mixing) quantitative and qualitative research (and data) in a single study or a longitudinal program of inquiry. The purpose of this form of research is that both qualitative and quantitative research approaches are combined in order to provide a better understanding of a research problem or issue than either research approach alone.

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:17) defined mixed methods as the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study". Like its two predecessors, qualitative and quantitative research, the mixed methods research methodology has its own advantages and disadvantages. The advantages were highlighted by Johnson and Christensen (2004), who stated that it has a high capability to respond precisely to the aims of the research. In addition, it results in a high level of research reliability, and the integration of the two methods strengthens the research by making it possible to overcome the weaknesses arising from using a single approach.

Use of mixed methods approach variation in data collection leads to greater validity, answers the question from a number of perspectives and ensures that there are no 'gaps' to the information/data collected. Mixed-methods research designs have three categories namely; exploratory, explanatory and triangulation mixed designs (Hanson and Creswell, 2005). In this study the researcher has used a concurrent triangulation mixed-methods design. This was due to the fact that the researcher wanted to collect and analyse both qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously.

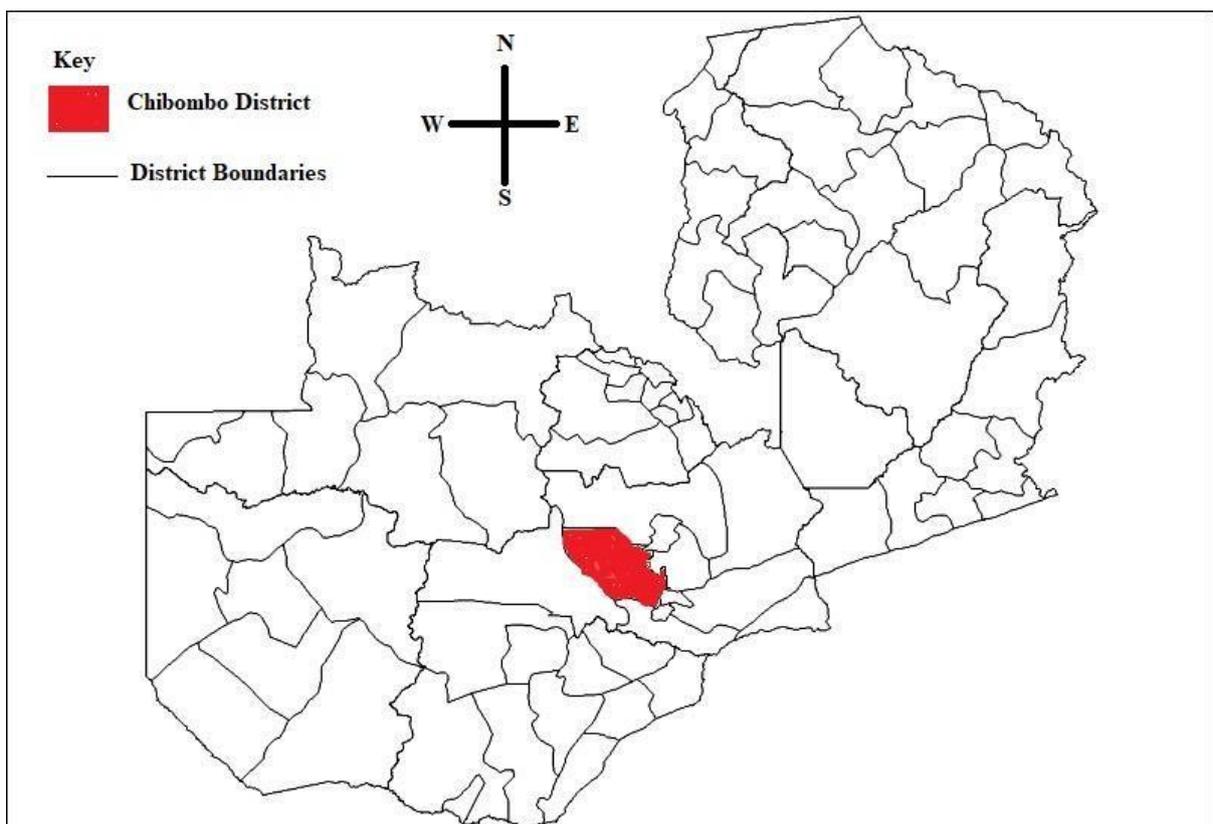
According to Hanson and Creswell (2005:229) as quoted in Phiri (2015), in concurrent triangulation designs, quantitative and qualitative data are collected and analysed at the same time. Priority is usually equal and given to both forms of data. Data analysis is usually separate,

and integration usually occurs at the data interpretation stage. Interpretation typically involves discussing the extent to which the data triangulate or converge.

3.3 Research Site

The study was conducted in Chibombo District of Central Province of Zambia. It is among the districts that have schools largely located in the rural and remote parts of the country side. Apart from that, Chibombo District is one district that has in the recent past suffered from high migration of teachers into the urban districts. Further, the district was appropriate in the study because of its geographical position as it shares part of its boundaries with the highly urbanized district of Lusaka on the South-east side and the provincial capital of Central province (Kabwe) on the North eastern side were most teachers choose to transfer to.

Figure 3.1: Map of the Study Area Chibombo District



Source: *Wikipedia en.wikipedia.org*

3.4 Target Population

The study targeted teachers, Section Head of Departments, Head of Departments (HODs) Deputy Head Teachers and Head Teachers from 19 selected schools which included fifteen

(15) primary schools and four (4) secondary schools. The study further targeted District Education Administrators i. e the District Education Board Secretary (DEBS) and District Human Resources Officers.

3.5 Study Sample

A sample is a small proportion of the selected population for observation and analysis. By observing the characteristics of a sample which is diverse, representative, accessible and knowledgeable in a study area, findings can be generalized (Kombo and Tromp, 2006).

A sample of 97 participants was drawn from the nineteen (19) selected schools, comprising 38 teachers, 19 HODs/Section Head of Departments, 19 Deputy Head Teachers, 19 Head Teachers and 2 officers from the District Education Board Secretary's office.

3.6 Sampling Techniques

Orodho and Kombo (2002) define sampling techniques as procedures that are used by a researcher to gather people, places or things to study. Sampling refers to a process of selecting a number of individuals or objects from a population such that the selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group. Further, Burns and Grove (2003) refer to sampling as a process of selecting a group of people, events or behaviour with which to conduct a study.

There are two major types of sampling namely; probability and non-probability sampling. The major distinction between the two is that probability sampling relies on chance while non-probability sampling relies on human judgment. This study used both probability and non-probability sampling techniques. Probability sampling technique, to be specific; simple random technique was utilized for selecting teachers, HODs and Section Heads of Department as participants so that each participant can stand a better chance of being included in a sample population and avoid biasness. While the non-probability sampling technique and in particular the purposive sampling technique was used to select the Deputy Head Teachers, Head Teachers, District Human Resource Officers and District Education Board Secretary.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

Bloomberg and Volpe (2008) as cited in Phiri (2015) contends that data collection section in research is the section that describes and justifies all data collection methods, tools,

instruments, and procedures, including how, when, where, and by whom data were collected. It is the precise, systematic gathering of information relevant to the research subproblems, using methods such as interviews, participant observation, focus group discussion, narratives and case histories (Burns & Grove 2003:373). Data collection procedure refers to the process through which data are collected from the respondents through the use of necessary instruments.

In this study, data were collected by using questionnaires to collect data from the teachers and head teachers. Semi-structured type of interviews was also employed to collect data from the administrators from the district education board secretary's officer. This was used because it gives a researcher the ability to personally administer both the questionnaires and the interviews to respective respondents. Interviews were recorded using a digital recording device.

3.8 Data Collection Instruments

Data was collected using questionnaires from teachers, HODs, Section Head of Departments, Deputy Head Teachers and Head Teachers. While interview guides were utilised to gather information from District Education Board Secretary and the District Education Human Resource Officer. The questionnaire was used for authentic purpose during the collection of data from the field.

3.9 Data Analysis Procedure

Bazeley (2013:7) defines data analysis as the process of extracting, compiling, and modelling raw data for purposes of obtaining constructive information that can be applied to formulating conclusions, predicting outcomes or supporting decisions in business, scientific and social science settings. It is analysing information that involves examining it in ways that reveal the relationships, patterns and trends that can be found within it. This may mean subjecting it to statistical operations that can tell you not only what kinds of relationships seem to exist among variables, but also to what level one can trust the answers he/she is getting.

Kombo and Tromp (2006), postulate that data analysis is the critical examination and scrutiny of the coded data in order to make deductions and inferences. This activity involves uncovering underlying structures; extracting important variables, detecting any anomalies and testing any underlying assumptions.

Since this study adopted a mixed method study in which both qualitative and quantitative data were collected, qualitative data were analysed through thematic approach where data were tabulated, categorised and arranged into themes and sub themes. On the other hand, quantitative data were analysed in three phases. First, data were entered in Microsoft excel. Secondly, software known as Statistical Package for Social sciences (SPSS) was employed to analyse the data. Finally data were presented in form of bar charts, pie charts and frequency and percentage tables. This type of analysis enabled the researcher to generate conclusions about the phenomenon under study by critically examining the frequencies of numerical data percentages.

3.9.1 Qualitative Data Analysis

Bogdan and Biklen (2003: 23) views qualitative data analysis as “working with the data, organising them, breaking them into manageable units, coding them, synthesising them, and searching for patterns”. The aim of analysis of qualitative data is to discover patterns, concepts, themes and meanings. The process of data analysis begins with the categorisation and organisation of data in search of patterns, critical themes and meanings that emerge from the data. According to Groman and Clayton (2005: 3), qualitative research is: “A process of enquiry that draws data from the context in which events occur, in an attempt to describe these occurrences, as means of determining the process in which events are embedded and the perspective of those participating in the event, using induction to derive possible explanations based on observed phenomena”.

In this study, the interviews, were recorded and transcribed. Open-ended questions were posed to which the administrators from the DEBS office were required to respond to. The individual responses were analysed, compared, categorised and interpreted to draw conclusions.

3.9.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

This is the information that is collected as, or can be translated into, numbers, which can then be displayed and analysed mathematically. In this research, quantitative data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The researcher used to run descriptive statistics which appeared in frequency tables, charts and graphs. This type of analysis enabled the researcher to generate conclusions about the phenomenon under study by critically examining the frequencies of numerical data percentages.

3.9.3 Ethical Considerations

The researcher ensured that anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents were observed and maintained. This was done by asking respondents not to put their names on the questionnaires. Respondents were also assured that the information obtained through the questionnaire was for academic purposes only and would not be used for any other purpose without the respondent's permission. All the respondents participated freely.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.0. Overview

This chapter presents the findings of the study on the topic aimed at examining teachers' transfers: causes and trends (2017 to 2018) in Chibombo district of Central Province. The findings are presented according to the themes that were derived from the study questions. The questions of the study were;

1. What are the underlying causes of teacher transfers from Chibombo district between 2017-2018?
2. What are the transfer trend of teachers from and to Chibombo district from 2017-2018?
3. What are the implications of these transfers may have on the overall educational dispensation in Chibombo district?

4.1 Biographical Data of Respondents

This is data that focused on personal information of the respondents of the study.

4.1.1. Respondents by Gender

As can be seen from the table 4.1 below, most of the respondents, 63 (64.95%), were male while 34 (35.05%) were female.

Table 4.1: Respondents by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage %
Male	63	64.95
Female	34	35.05
Total	97	100

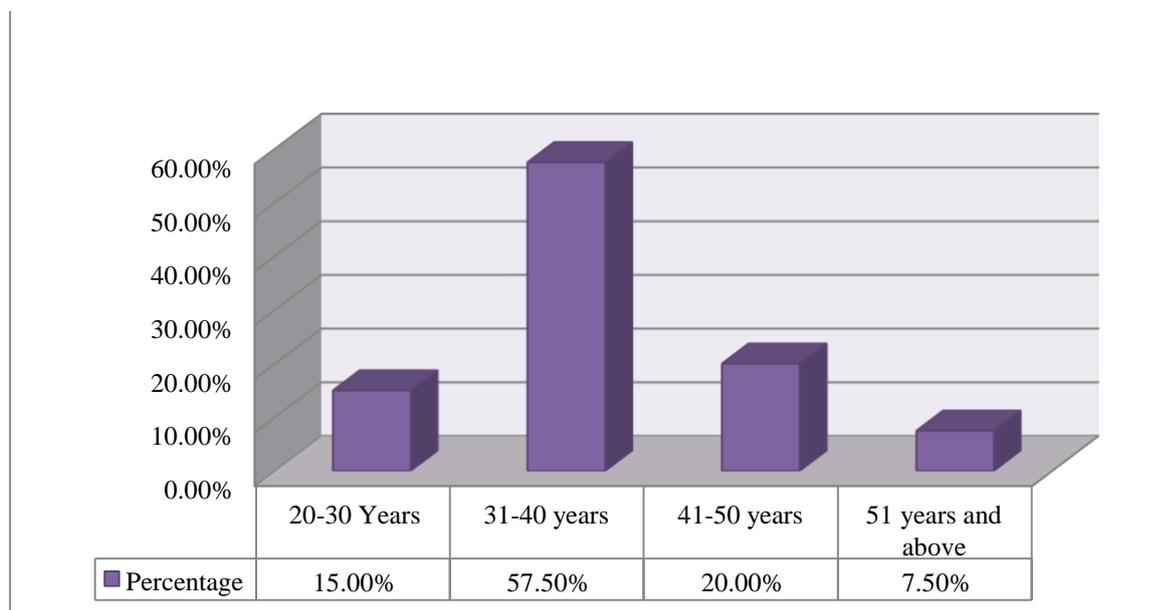
Source: Field Data

4.1.2. Age of Respondents

Respondents were asked to indicate their ages. It is clear that most of the respondents, representing 57.5%, were in the age range of 31 to 40 years, 15% represented respondents in

the age range 20-30, 20% of respondents indicated that they were in the age range of between 41 –50 years old while 7.5% represented those who were 51 years and above.

Figure 4. 2: Age Range of Respondents



Source: Field Data, 2018

4.1.3. Substantive Positions of Respondents

Respondents indicated various substantively appointed positions which they held at their places of work. As can be seen from table 4.2 on page 43, out of 95 respondents, 30 (34.58%) were class teachers, 8 (8.42%) were Subject teachers, 15 (15.79%) were senior teachers, 4 (4.21%) were Head of Department (HOD), 19 (20.00%) Deputy Head Teachers, and another 19 (20.00%) Head Teachers.

Table 4.4: Substantive Position of Respondents

Substantive Position	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Class Teacher	30	31.58
Subject Teacher	08	8.42
Senior Teacher	15	15.79
HOD	4	4.21
Deputy Head teacher	19	20.00
Head Teacher	19	20.00
Total	95	100

Source: Field Data

4.1.4. Respondents’ Number of Years in Service in Current Position

As can be noted from the table 4.3 below, most of the respondents, 37 (38.95%) served between 0 and 10 years, 31 (32.63%) indicated that the number of years they had served in their current position was in the range 11 -20 years, 23 (24.21%) served in between 21 – 30 years while only 4 (4.21%) served for more than 30 years in their substantive position.

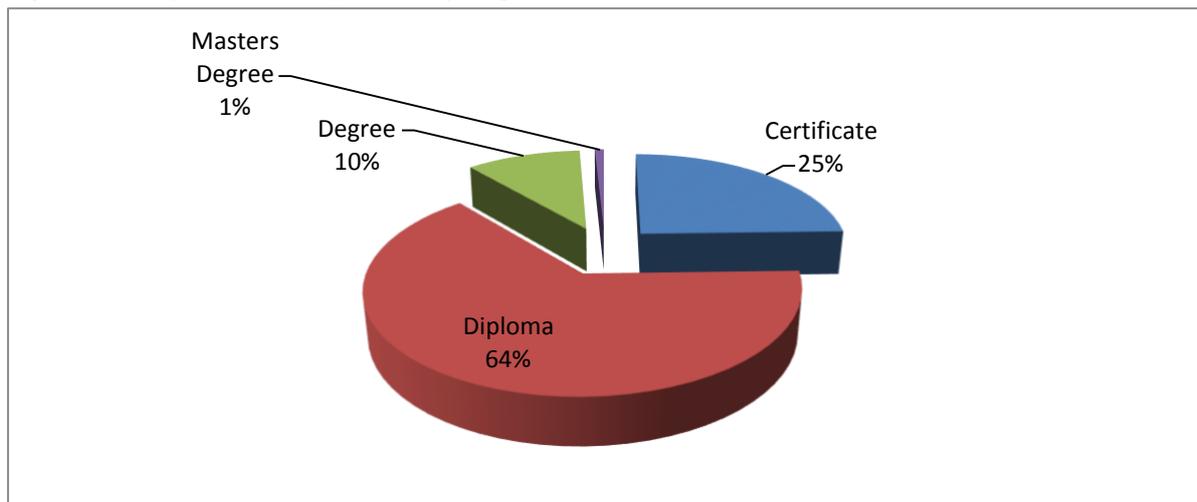
Table 4. 5: Number of Years Served in Current Position

Period of Service	Frequency	Percentage (%)
0-10 years	37	38.95
11-20 years	31	32.63
21-30 years	23	24.21
31 and above	4	4.21
Total	95	100

Source: Field Data

4.1.5. Respondents professional Qualifications

Figure 4.3: Professional Qualifications of Respondents



Source Field Data

Respondents were further asked to indicate their highest professional qualifications. As seen from the pie chart above, 64% of the respondents indicated that they were Diploma holders while 25% were Certificate holders. 10% were degree holders and only 1% were with postgraduate qualifications. The data shows that the majority of participants were diploma holders an indication that most of the teachers are diploma holders.

4.2. Trend of Teacher Transfer from Chibombo District

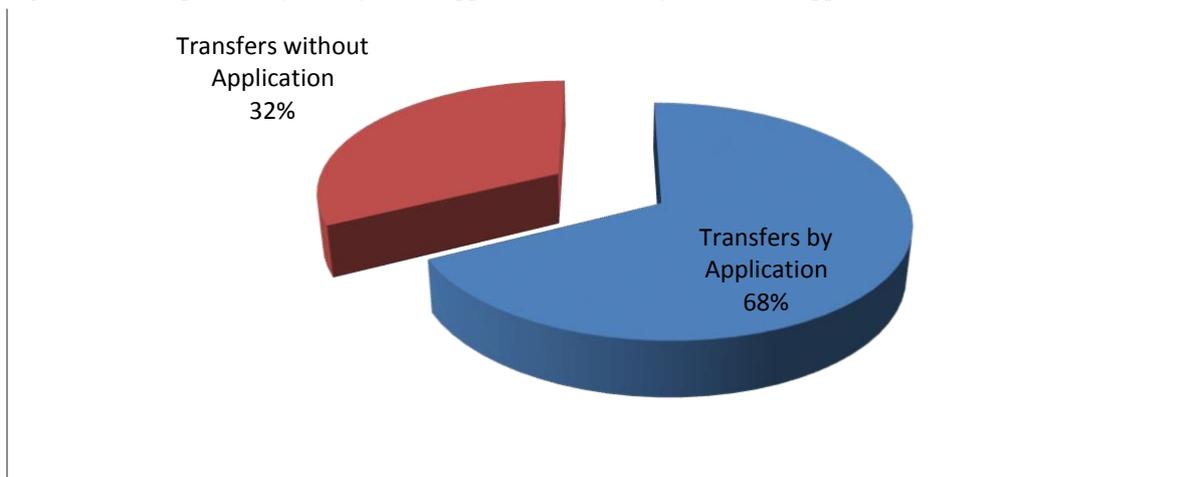
The study collected data on the number of transfer applications received from teachers wanting to leave the district for various reasons for the period 2017 to 2018. The data showed that they were more female teachers leaving the district than male teachers. The table 4.5 below shows that a total of 31 applications for transfers were received by the District

Education Board Secretary's (DEBS) office representing 60.78% of the total applications received while only 20 representing 39.22% were received from male teachers in the years 2017 and 2018.

Table 4.6: Transfer of Teachers by Gender (2017-2018)

Transfer Applications	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Female	31	60.78
Male	20	39.22
Total	51	100

Figure 4.4: Comparison of Transfers by Application to Transfers without Application



The district had more transfers for teachers leaving the district in comparison to the incoming transfers. As shown in figure 4.3 below, only in 2000 did the district receive more teachers than it did send out. The most loss of teachers was in 2017 when the district send out a total of 11 teachers on transfer and only received 2 teachers and in 2018 when 3 teachers came in the district while 17 teachers left in the same year.

4.2.1 Direction of Teacher Transfers from Chibombo

The study also sort data on the districts and provinces of choice by the teachers who apply of transfers from Chibombo district, the table below highlights the data on the district of choice by the teachers who apply for transfers from Chibombo.

Table 4.7: District of Choice by Transfer Applicants

District/Province of Choice	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Kabwe (Central Province)	28	35.56
Lusaka (Lusaka Province)	21	26.67
Copperbelt Province	19	24.13
Other Districts/Provinces	11	13.97
Total	79	100

Source Filed Data

The data in table 4.7 above shows that 28 of the transfer applications representing 35.56% were applied to Kabwe District which is the nearest urban district and the provincial capital for central province, 21 applications representing 26.67% were applied to Lusaka province and Lusaka district in particular, 11 (24.13%) were applied to Copperbelt province and only 11 representing 13.97% were applied to other districts and provinces. This data indicates that most of the teachers from Chibombo district tend to transfer to urban districts especially Lusaka and Kabwe.

4.3. Causes for Transfers of Teachers From Chibombo District

To establish the causes of the teacher transfers from rural (Chibombo) to urban districts, the respondents were asked guided questions that required them to respond whether they strongly agree, agree, disagrees, strongly disagree and or No idea.

4.3.1. Rural Schools as an Entry Point

The participants were asked whether the new teachers are using the rural school schools like most of the schools in Chibombo district as entry point for them to get employed and be on the government payroll and later move to the urban districts. Most of the respondents strongly agreed in that majority of the teachers who were moving out of the district were mostly the newly deployed who had served at their stations of first appoint for not more than three years. The results obtained were analysed and presented in table 4.7.

Table 4.8: Rural Schools as an Entry Point

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	47	49.47
Agree	29	30.53
Strongly Disagree	11	11.58
Disagree	3	3.16
No Idea	1	1.05
Total	95	100

Source: Field Data

The table 4.7 shows a total of 47 participants representing 49.47% of the respondents strongly agreed to the statement that most newly deployed teachers are using the rural schools and districts as an entry point into the ministry where they only work for a short period of time and later push for transfers into urban districts. Another 29 participants representing 30.53% agreed to the statement. On the other hand, 11 participants representing 11.58% and 3 participants representing 3.16% of the total respondents strongly disagreed and disagreed to the statement respectively. Only 1 participant indicated not to have any idea about the statement.

The district education board secretary's office officers were also of the view that most newly deployed teachers are using the rural district as an entry point and once they serve for two years which is the minimum number of years set under the policy relating to teacher recruitment and retention. One of the officer interviewed had this to say:

“As a district we receive a lot of applications during teacher recruitment time and a high number of teachers are usually employed in our district because of we always have a high number of vacancies but once these teachers are on payroll, requests for transfers start flocking our office with various convincing reasons and for some our office is just directed to transfer them.”

4.3.2. Poor Deployment Management

The participants were asked on whether management of teacher deployment has a bearing on the teachers' transfers within the period of not more than three years of their deployment. The results were analysed and presented in table 4.8.

Table 4.9: Poor Management of Teacher Deployment and Retention

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	34	35.79
Agree	50	52.63
Strongly Disagree	3	3.16
Disagree	7	8.42
No Idea	0	0.00
Total	94	100

Source: Field Data

The findings on poor management of teacher deployment and retention revealed that 35.79% representing 34 respondents strongly agreed that the management of deployment and retention of teachers is poor in the district another 52.63% representing 50 respondents agreed to the statement while 3.16% representing 3 respondents and 8.42% representing 7 respondents strongly disagree and disagreed to the statement respectively.

The officers interviewed at district level also confirmed that the management of the recruitment, deployment and retention of teachers is not well managed from the point when the applicants submit their applications through the selection process to the point where the district is required to maintain the teachers in their stations for the purpose of effective delivery of education. One of the interviewed officers said that:

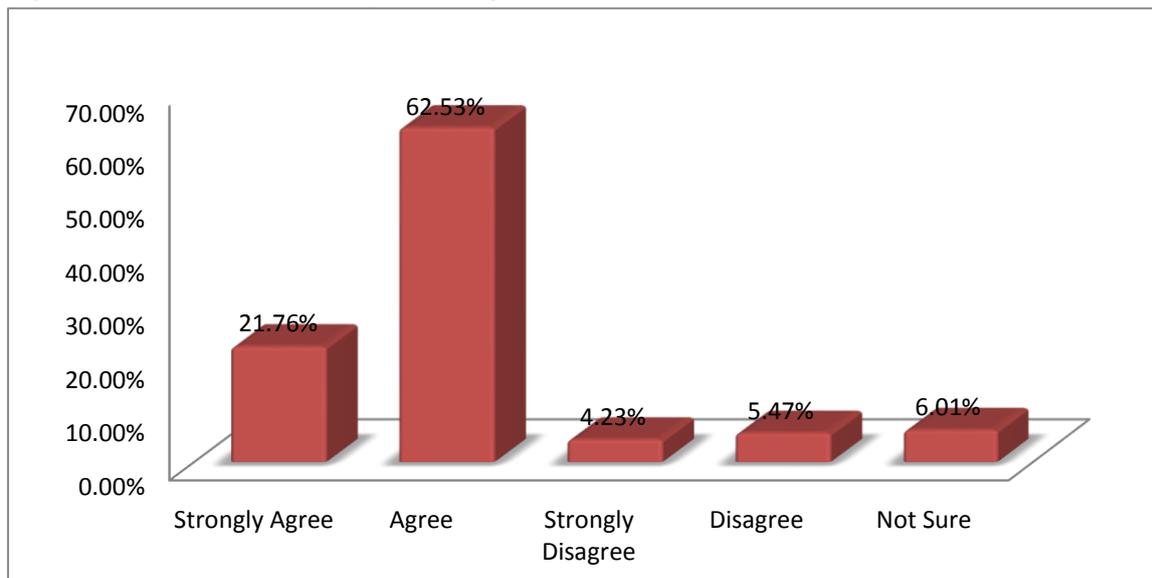
“The recruitment and deployment process currently used has a number of lapses one of them is that during selection, medical issues are not considered as well as the applicants the marital status is also not considered as a result once the teachers know that they are on payroll they start pushing for teachers with medical and marital reasons”

Another officer said that: *“society has taken advantage of the weaknesses in the process of teacher recruitment, deployment and retention for instance, the society is aware that once an a teacher is on government payroll they are transferrable and if teachers has someone in influential position it’s very easy to have such a teachers transferred at any given time to any school regardless of that particular school’s having teachers more than its establishment”*

4.3.3. Weaknesses in the Payroll Management

The research wanted to establish whether the weaknesses surrounding the payroll management in the Ministry of General Education are a contributing factor to the increasing number of transfers from Chibombo district to urban schools. The respondents were asked to state by ticking in the appropriate box on how much they agree that weaknesses in the payroll management is a reason or rather factor contributing to high levels of teachers transfers from Chibombo district. The results collected were analysed and presented in figure 4.6.

Figure 4.5: Weaknesses in the Payroll Management



The figure 4.6 above shows that majority of the respondents agreed that the weaknesses in the payroll management has a bearing on the increasing number of teachers accessing openings to allow them move from the rural schools to urban school. This was confirmed by the 62.53% respondent who agreed to the statement and another 21.76% who strongly agreed while on the other hand 4.23% of the respondents strongly disagreed within another 5.47% disagreeing with the statement and 6.01% indicating that they were not sure on the subject.

The officers interviewed were also of the view that the way the payroll is been management has contributed the problem of teacher transfers. The officers confirmed that the payroll for Chibombo district is not properly organised to tell which teacher is at which school because most of the teachers in the district are working at a station while they pay point is at other station. In this state of affairs, it is also highly possible that a teacher can be physically transferred from Chibombo to other district while still on the payroll for Chibombo district.

One officer at the DEBS office said that, “one way of preventing these movement of teacher is by implementing a seriously payroll clean up in that most of the teachers that are allowed to transfer from the district only move physically to go and perform their duties at another station but their salaries pay point still remains under our district. With such a situation teacher are not worried of the payroll vacancies as they transfer and to a greater extent some teachers are even made to enjoy the privileges meant for teachers in the rural areas such as rural hardship allowance even if they are working in the urban areas.”

4.3.4. Political Interference and Corruption in the Education System

The participants were asked on whether political interference and corruption in the education system is a contributing factor to the transfer of teachers from the rural schools into urban schools. The results obtained were analysed and presented in table 4.9.

Table 4.10: Political Interference and Corruption in the Education System

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	35	36.84
Agree	48	50.53
Strongly Disagree	4	4.21
Disagree	7	8.42
No Idea	0	0.00
Total	95	100

Source: Field Data

The table revealed that majority of the respondents agreed with the statement that political interference and corruption in the Ministry of General Education has contributed to the poor management of teacher retention. 36.84% of the respondents representing 35 participants strongly agreed to the statement and another 48 participants representing 50.53% of the total respondents agreed to the statement while 4 participants representing 4.21% of the respondents strongly disagreed to the statement and another 7 participants representing 8.42% disagreed to the statement.

The interviewed officers from the DEBS also agreed to the statement that political interference in the management of teacher retention in the rural is making it difficult for the officers responsible for human resource to carry out the duties effectively. They also agreed that corruption in the Ministry of General Education has largely contributed to the down fall of

standards within the Ministry were teacher recruitment, deployment and retention has not be left out. One of the officers said:

“As an office we are so much under pressure from the political leaders perhaps because of the central location and near Lusaka and Kabwe the provincial headquarter for the two provinces. During recruitment, the political leaders use their influence to have applicants of their choice selected and given schools with the view that once the teacher is employed, he/she can be transferred to Kabwe or Lusaka. In situations, when officers in the Ministry try to interfere by following the right procedure, they are transferred to more rural district as punishment for not implement the will of political leaders.”

Another officer said that, “we cannot run away from the negative effects of corruption. The ministry is experiencing a lot of corruption in the teacher recruitment and deployment exercise I say so because sometimes we have teachers who do not apply in our district but end up recruited under our payroll and it is these same teachers who trouble the office for transfers.”

4.3.5. Massive Primary School Teachers’ Upgrading to Secondary School Teachers

The respondents were asked whether the recite trend in the Ministry of General Education of teachers upgrading their qualifications mostly from primary school teaching related to secondary school teaching related was a cause for the teachers’ transfers from Chibombo district where there are few secondary schools to urban district where there are more secondary schools. Most of the respondents agreed to the view that teachers upgrading of their qualification heavily the secondary teaching rather than the primary was a causes of teachers’ transfers to urban districts in that teachers in the rural parts of the country have more primary schools and few places for secondary schools. The responses by the respondents on massive primary school teachers upgrading to secondary school teaching been a cause for the mass teacher transfers from rural districts to urban districts were presented in table 4.10 below.

The results shows that the highest frequency of 47 representing 49.47% agreed to massive upgrading of teachers’ qualification from primary related to secondary related been a causes of transfers from Chibombo a largely rural district, 29 (30.53%) strongly agreed, while 11 respondents representing 11.58% disagreed and 3 (3.16%) strongly disagrees. Only 1 respondent had no idea on the matter.

Table 4. 11: Massive Primary School Teacher Upgrade to Secondary Teaching Qualification was a Cause for Teachers' Transfers

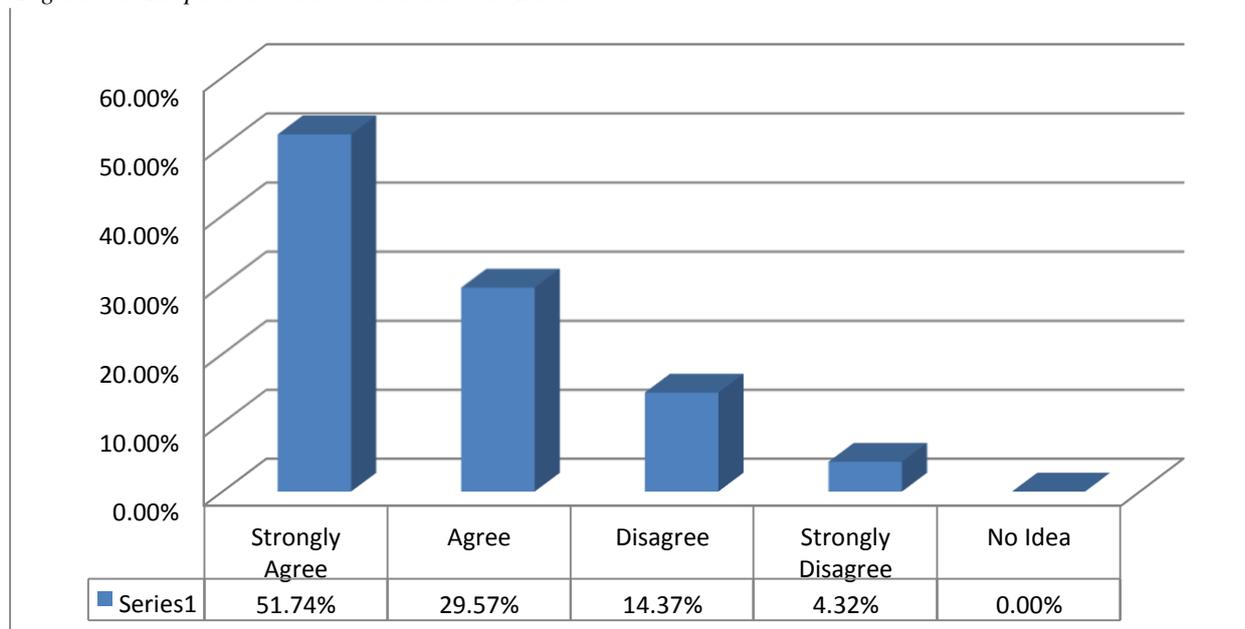
Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	29	30.53
Agree	47	49.47
Strongly Disagree	3	3.16
Disagree	11	11.58
No Idea	1	1.05
Total	95	100

Source: Field Data

4.3.6 Social and Cultural Isolation

The respondents were asked whether life of a teacher in the rural meant living in isolation from their equivalent social and cultural standards and status. The responses indicated that 51.74% of respondents were in strong agreement to social and cultural isolation been a factor contributing to teacher transfers from the rural parts to the urban districts, whereas, 29.57% fairly agreed to the fact while on other hand 14.37% and 4.32% strongly disagreed and agreed respectively.

Figure 4.6: Responses on Social and Cultural Isolation



4.3.6. Low Social Status

On the question of whether teachers in the rural area were affected by the fact they are considered to be in a lower social class than their colleagues in the urban hence migrating to the urban areas so as to enjoy their rightful social status. The responses were analysed and presented in table 4.9 below.

Table 4.12: Respondents' View of the Teachers Social Status in Relation to Transfers

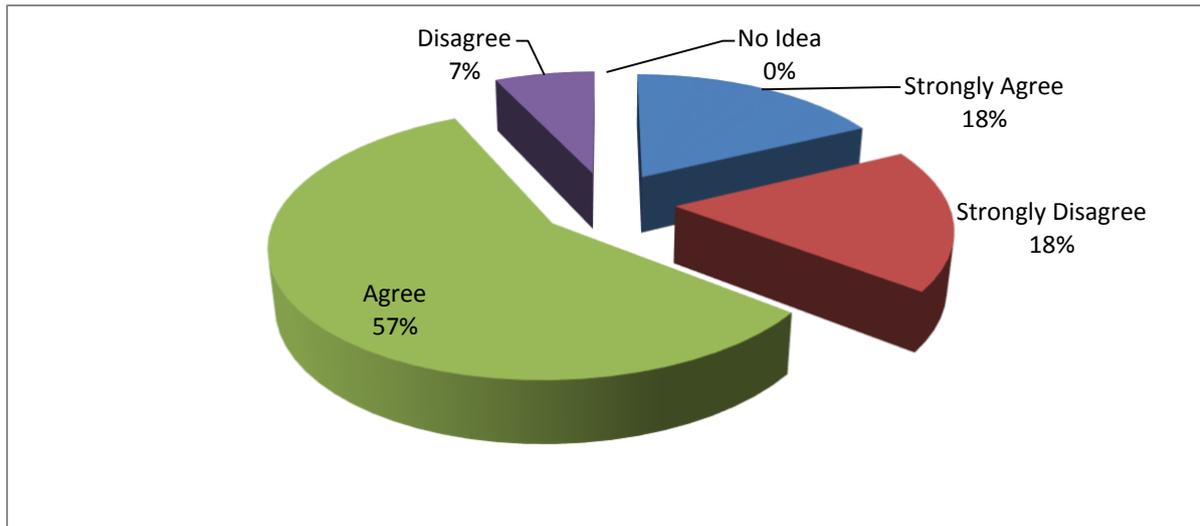
Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	42	44.10
Agree	39	40.95
Strongly Disagree	7	7.35
Disagree	7	7.35
No Idea	00	0.00
Total	95	100

Table 11 indicated that 42 respondents representing 44.10% of the total respondents strongly agreed that low social status was one of the many reasons teachers want to move to urban school. Another 39 respondents representing 40.95% also agreed while those who strongly disagreed and disagreed were 7 for each represented by a total of 14.70%.

4.3.8. Difficulties in Accessing Medical Care

The rural areas are critically under-resourced with respect to medical care services. The challenge for recruiting teachers to and retaining them in rural areas is complex. The respondents were asked to respond to the question of how much they agreed to reasoning that difficulties in accessing medical services and care was the reason for the poor retention of teachers in the rural schools of Chibombo district. The responses are shown in figure 4.5 below.

Figure 4.7: Responses on Difficulties in Accessing Medical Care



Source: Field Data

The figure above shows that 57% of respondents agree plus another 18% who strongly agreed to difficulties in accessing medical care as one of the reasons for the poor retention of teachers in Chibombo district, while 18% and 7% of respondents strongly agreed and disagreed respectively. On lack of health care service one of the senior officers at the DEBS had this to say:

“As an office we are kind of limited in denying request for transfer on medical grounds because we are alive to the fact that our district does not have specialised health care service provision facilities hence all the transfers that are requested on medical ground are granted with no objection.” (DEBS Officer)

4.3.9. Limited Opportunity for Spouse Employability

The respondents were asked to state to what level they agreed to the statement ‘limited opportunity for spouse employability is a cause for teachers’ movement from rural schools to urban school’. The responses are shown in the table below:

Table 4.13: Responses on Whether Limited Opportunity for Spouse Employability is a Cause for Teachers' Transfers'

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	41	43.05
Agree	36	37.80
Strongly Disagree	0	0.00
Disagree	17	17.85
No Idea	1	1.05
Total	94	100

Source: Field Data

The majority of respondents 41 (43.05%) strongly agreed to the statement and another 36 (37.80%) agreed while 17 (17.85%) of the respondents disagreed to the statement and 1 (1.05%) of the respondents had no idea on the statement.

On this statement, one of the senior officers at the DEBS during an interview had this to say:

“Most of the teachers that request for transfers would want to transfer because they want to join their families (Spouses) who are working in the urban districts and honestly has an office we have no reasons to deny our teachers their social rights to be with their families, especially the female teachers who in most cases leave their husbands and children in far places to come and work here after been recruited by the government. It becomes hard for them to be on the road every now and then to go and see how their families are faring.” (Officer from DEBS)

4.3.10. Lack of Community Services

The respondents were asked how much they agreed to the statement that lack of community services in rural areas contributed to the teachers leaving the areas in preference to the urban area. The responses were as shown in table 14 below;

Table 4.14: Responses on the Lack of Community Services

Responses	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	34	35.70
Agree	59	61.95
Strongly Disagree	0	0.00
Disagree	2	2.35
No Idea	0	0.00
Total	94	100

Source: Field Data

The data shows that over 90% of the respondent either strongly agreed or agreed to the statement that lack of community service provision in the rural areas is one of the causes of the teachers' migration to the urban areas where such services are well provided. As highlighted in the table above 34 (35.70%) strongly agreed and 59 (61.95%) agreed to the statement while on the other hand only 2 respondent representing 2.35% were in disagreement to the statement.

The respondents were further asked to highlight specific community service that are seriously lacking in the rural areas of Chibombo. The data collected was presented as in table 4.14 below.

Table 4.15: Community Services Provision in Chibombo District

Community Services	Readily Available	Fairly Available	Poorly Available	Not Available
Electricity Supply (National Grid)	14.40%	21.07%	55.63%	8.90%
Safe Drinking Water	0.00%	2.51%	51.94%	45.55%
Good Road network	2.34%	10.63%	47.87%	39.16%
Housing infrastructure	3.07%	5.34%	49.17%	42.42%
Conducive working environment	4.08%	17.23%	45.79%	32.90%
Recreation facilities	0.00%	19.64%	15.51%	64.85%
Shopping facilities	0.00%	2.34%	25.91%	71.75%
Average Score	3.41	11.25	41.69	43.65

Source: Field Data

Data in table 4.15 revealed that 2.51% of the respondents agreed that the supply of safe drinking water is fairly available while 51.95% said that the supply was poorly available and the remaining 45.55% agreed that it was not available at all. The researcher confirmed this data through physical observations that revealed that safe drinking water in most of the schools was in short supply as many of the school used borehole hand pumps, while others used unprotected

well and others got their drinking water from nearby rivers and streams. The pictures below were taken from the field and are showing the actual drinking water sources for some schools.

Figure 4. 8: Drinking Water Sources for Some Rural Schools



Source: Field Data

On the road network for the community of rural Chibombo district, the data in table 4.12 shows that 2.34% of the respondents agreed that it was readily available, 10.63% agreed that it was fairly available while 47.87% agreed that it was poorly available and another 39.16% agreed that it was not available.



Source: Field Data

Figure 4.9: Teachers Houses in the Rural Part of Chibombo



Source: Field Data

Houses for teachers are a pre-requisite for the supply of teachers to a school especially in the rural areas where accommodation for rent is hardly available. The data revealed that 3.07% of the respondents were of the view that the provision on teachers houses was readily available, 5.34% were of the view that accommodation for teachers was fairly available. On the other hand, 49.17% felt that teachers' houses were poorly available and another 42.42% agreed that the supply of accommodation was not available. On the ground observations showed that most schools had few teachers compared to the required teacher's establishment of the school and in many schools the teachers' houses were in a bad shape and required serious rehabilitation works. Plate 4.3 shows one of the houses for teachers at one of the schools.

Any worker is largely motivated by the nature of the working environment and teachers alike, the working environment is one of the major factors that driven their energy to continue working in a particular area. The data collected however, revealed that a good working environment was poorly available as was indicated by 45.79% of the respondent, not available as was indicated by 32.90% of the respondents while 17.23% agreed that it was fairly good and only 4.08% agreed that it was readily available.

Figure 4.10: Classroom at a Rural School



Source: Field Data

For recreation and Shopping facilities, the teachers in Chibombo district were of the view that there are not available for them as 64.85% and 71.75% of respondents agreed that the services recreation and shopping facilities respectively are not available. Interviews with officers revealed that those services are accessed from Lusaka or Kabwe towns which at a minimum of about 30 kilometres from Chibombo Central business district.

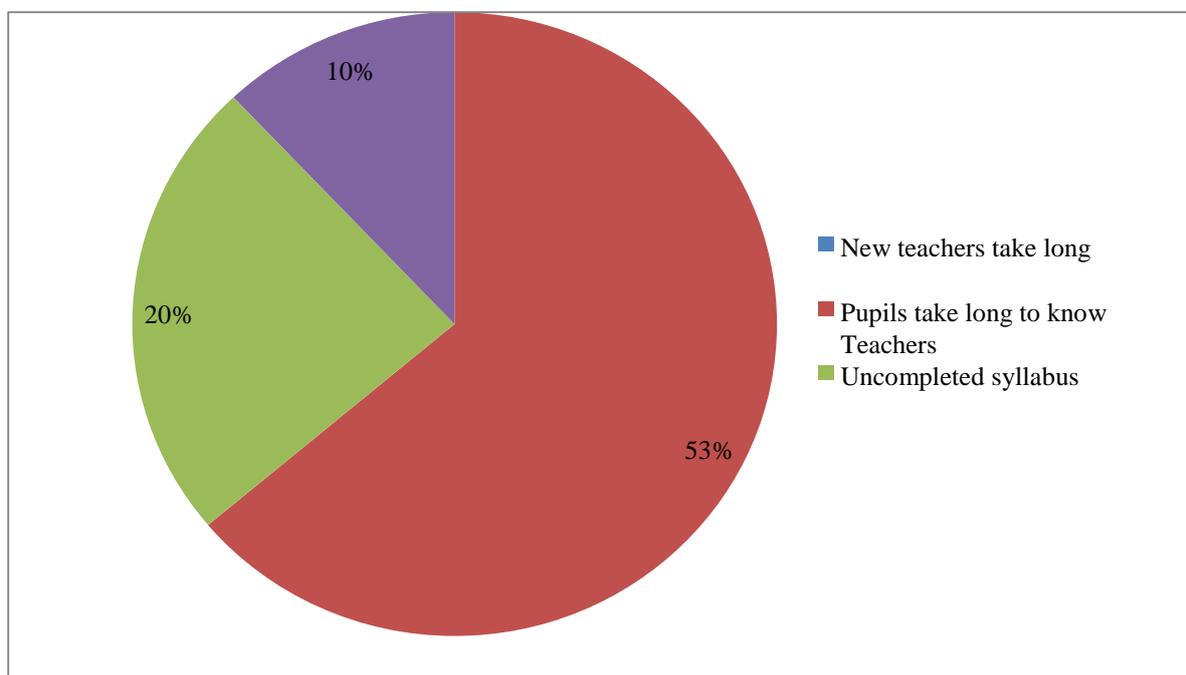
The data revealed an average score of 43.65% indicating that the community services listed in the table above are not available in the rural parts of Chibombo district, 41.69% indicated that the service are poorly available, 11.25% indicated that the service are fairly available and 3.41% indicated that the community services are readily available in the district. Lack of access to services available in the urban areas is often cited as an obstacle to the recruitment and

retaining of teachers in remote rural schools. In the above memoir, Poor drinking water, poor accommodation, lack of recreation and shopping facilities, and physical accessibility and transport are problems in some rural places.

4.4. Measures to Improve Teacher Retention in Chibombo District

The respondents were asked to state some of the measures they felt government and stakeholders should put in place in order to improve on the retention of teachers in the rural schools of Chibombo district.

Figure: 4.11 Implications of Teacher Transfers



Source: Field Data

The following were the implications of teacher transfers from the respondents, 20% said the syllabus are not completed on time. 53% of the respondents said the pupils take long to know the new teachers while 27% of the respondents said new takes get long to know the new station.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.0. Overview

This chapter discusses the findings of the study in line with the research questions which were:

1. What are the underlying causes of teacher transfers from Chibombo district between 2017-2018?
2. What are the transfer trend of teachers from and to Chibombo district from 2017-2018?
3. What are the implications of these transfers may have on the overall educational dispensation in Chibombo district?

5.1. Underlying Causes of Teacher Transfers from Chibombo District

5.1.1 Poor Deployment and Retention Management

The findings presented in chapter four showed that the respondents did confirm that poor deployment and retention of teachers did contribute to the high number of transfers from Chibombo district. The findings further revealed that teachers are allowed to transfer for as long as one has served for two years at the station of first appointment.

According to the Education Policy, the Ministry is responsible for recruitment and deployment of teachers. The recruitment and deployment is done through the HRA directorate. The Standards Directorate advises the Ministry on the staffing levels in schools, measures the overall quality in the education system as well as coordinating its activities with those of HRA and other departments. The problem of teacher deployment in the country was identified as contributing significantly to the lowering of the educational standards. The deployment of teachers to basic schools had its own challenges such as attrition and transfers. (MOE, 2010).

This is in line with the literature; Teachers leave their current schools for various reasons. Scholars like Chabari (2010) and Smollin (2011) outline the causes of teacher transfer in schools to include: poor working conditions, testing pressure in an attempt to raise the students' scores which causes teachers to experience more stress and less job satisfaction; low wages

that cannot sustain the teacher and meet other basic needs; job insecurity or threats of layoffs which contribute to teachers anxiety, pursuit of greener pastures and burn out.

5.1.2 Weaknesses in the Payroll Management

According to the findings of this study, 84.29% of the respondents agreed that weaknesses in the payroll management are contributing to the teachers' transfers from Chibombo district.

The General Auditor's report on deployment (2014) also reported that "the HRA Directorate used PMEC system to deploy teachers to schools while the Standards Directorate had a recommended formula of using the number of classes at a basic school. Documentary review revealed the current establishment used by PMEC was simply constructed from a head count and did not reflect the actual requirements for staffing levels."

5.1.3. Political Interference and Corruption in the Education System

The findings revealed that the majority of respondents agreed that political interference and corruption in the MOGE during recruitment and deployment of teachers as well as at the time when the teacher intend to transfer is one of the factors that leads to high numbers of teachers transferring from Chisamba district. However, the system has continued to raise major concerns among education stakeholders that hinder development. As commented by Zambia National Union of Teachers (ZNUT) General Secretary "The process should be transparent and fair to ensure that the most qualified candidates get the job." He added, "We do not want to hear of corruption, nepotism, political interference during the teacher recruitment exercise." Zambia Dairly Mail (March, 2016). The Anti-Corruption Resource Centre (2006) also affirmed that "As criteria for recruitment are repeatedly bypassed, unqualified personnel are often appointed. Placements in rural schools tend to be unpopular, especially among unmarried and female teachers, and can sometimes be avoided by bribing public officials. Skewed distributions of teacher postings can leave some schools overstaffed and others in crisis".

5.1.2 Massive Primary School Teachers' Upgrading to Secondary School Teachers

These findings only shows that for the teachers in Chibombo District poor pay and salary is not a factor to warrant ones wish to transfer from the district. The addition allowances given to the teachers working in the rural and remote areas have helped prevent the transfers of the teachers in Chibombo district. This is somewhat in agreement with the literature by Darling-Hammond (2001) who stated that, "The fact that teachers are underpaid in rural areas leads to

an unfortunate distribution problem, where the best qualified new teachers end up avoiding the areas that are in the greatest need of them.” This is well-illustrated in a questionnaire provided to Ghanaian teachers, wherein it was discovered that over 80% of new teachers had a preference for teaching in urban areas (Mulkeen 2005). Differences in pay were cited as a major reason for this preference. In other countries, teachers at rural schools often abandon their posts to work other, higher-paying jobs (Bennell et al. 2002).

5.1.6 Social and Cultural Isolation

The findings presented in chapter four above revealed that social and cultural isolation of the teachers teaching in the rural areas is one of the causes of the teachers wiliness to transfer to urban areas and are in support with the Collins (1999) findings who reviewed that, the main reason teachers leave rural areas is isolation: social, cultural, and professional. With regard to social isolation, rural areas generally have a very limited population.

Consequently there are limited opportunities for social interaction; a teacher’s nearest neighbour may be many miles away, community events may be limited, there may be few opportunities for extracurricular activities, and so on. Likewise, the limited population affects the number of cultural activities: teachers in rural areas have limited access to arts, movies, museums, and other cultural events. Professional isolation is the third burden faced by rural teachers, and one of the most damaging (Jimerson 2003). Due to both a limited number of positions at school and a limited number of schools themselves, there are few opportunities to advance one’s career while working in rural areas. As a result, new teachers may opt to teach at a rural school for a few years but be forced to leave in search of increased responsibilities or a promotion.

5.1.7 Low Social Status

The data in the findings only indicates that teachers are seriously affected by the level of social status given to them as they serve in the rural parts of the country. As not only do rural teachers struggle to access social services, but they are also professionally isolated. For example, Collins (1999) and Appleton (1998) maintain that geographic and professional isolation are some of the reasons why teachers abandon rural appointments. Other reasons that have been noted include, lack of resources, isolation from family, cultural barriers and professional burnout (Sharplin, 2002; Handal et al., 2013). Also diminished social and professional status triggers

disdain for rural appointments (Hudson & Hudson, 2008; McClure, Redfield, & Hammer, 2003).

5.1.8 Difficulties in Accessing Medical Services

Zambian rural areas have poor medical service provision facilities and as such teachers stationed in rural school push hard to leave the place and in this study, the findings equally revealed that teachers are leaving the rural school due to poor medical service provision in the rural areas. Supportively, in South Africa, the Department of Education (2005) and Nelson Mandela Foundation (2005) describe the problem of teacher recruitment and retention in rural schools as part of a broader social development challenge facing rural communities. They argue that lack of basic social services such as provision of adequate infrastructure, water, electricity, roads and clinics impact on the improvement and provision of quality education in rural schools. Therefore the lack of quality health care services in the rural areas has largely contributed to high number of teachers moving to urban districts where such services are better provided.

5.1.9 Limited Opportunity for Spouse Employability

This data findings' clearly indicates that the lack on employment for teachers' spouses who are not in the teaching profession is one of the major reasons that warrant teachers' transfers to urban district where there are more employment opportunities for the working couples.

White and Reid (2008) stated that, "The benefit of extra pay to one family member may not make up the consequent loss in pay due to another family member being unable to find work in a rural location." Thus transfers of transfers who are married to someone who career has limited access to employment opportunities in rural areas are inevitable.

5.1.10 Lack of Community Services

The findings presented in chapter four above disclosed that the rural schools of Chibombo district are lacking a number of community services ranging from electricity power supply, clean drinking water to accommodation and classroom infrastructure. The Department of Education (2005) and Nelson Mandela Foundation (2005) also describe the problem of teacher recruitment and retention in rural schools as part of a broader social development challenge facing rural communities. They argue that lack of basic social services such as provision of

adequate infrastructure, water, electricity, roads and clinics impact on the improvement and provision of quality education in rural schools.

Lastly, there was average staff deployment in all departments in the schools. In most cases, language and science subjects were most affected by teacher transfers. There was also a general agreement that teacher transfers increased the workload for the remaining staff as replacements were not done immediately and when they did eventually come, the students at times found it hard to adjust to them and hence complained to the management. These findings point to the growing need to take measures to obtain suitable teachers and to replace the departing teachers or more importantly to stem the flow of teachers from their respective schools. These findings agree with the views of Feng and Sass (2008) who observed that teacher quality is the most important schooling input in the determination of student achievement given the central role the teacher plays in the education sector. Given the central role of teacher quality in determining student achievement, there is growing concern over the impact of teacher job change on both the overall level of teacher quality and the distribution of teacher quality across schools. While it is normal for employee to join and leave an organization, high or low staff turnover is costly to an organization. Ingersoll (2001), contend that high levels of employees or desire transfers or desire to leave are both cause and effect of a dysfunction and low performance in organizations.

5.2 Trend of Teacher transfers from Chibombo District

The trend of teachers leaving a rural (Chibombo) District is regrettably increasing and at a very high rate as per data presented above. The data shows that the number of teachers leaving the district is higher than the number of teachers coming into the district through transfers at the same time the trend also indicated that the number of teachers that are transferring from the district without applying for transfers is higher than the number of transfers with applications. The data further presented that the number of newly recruited teachers leaving the district is higher than that of teachers who have served in the district for a longer period. This is in agreement with the literature reviewed by Hobart (2001) who said that “Even if a teacher is successfully recruited to a rural school, there are often problems with retention. Teacher attrition can be as high as 30-50% in certain rural schools.”

5.3 Measures to Improve Teacher Retention in Chibombo District

Teacher motivation towards retention is not only financially driven, but aspects such as “selfworth and community engagement or status” are vital to teacher retention in rural schools (ibid). Therefore, recruitment may be better improved by looking at sociocultural rather than financial solutions. According to McEwan 1999, the issue of addressing rural teacher recruitment and retention is grounded in teachers’ inclination to trade off financial and nonfinancial aspects of the job in an attempt to achieve high job satisfaction. Thus the findings suggested the following measures to help improve the poor retention of teachers;

1. Consider sponsoring the locals on GRZ Education Loans and later deploy them to their home land.
2. Improve teacher shortage by creating a policy that will mandatory give all student teachers in government teacher training institution to do their teaching practice in rural school.
3. Decentralise the recruitment process so as to allow individual district employ the teachers and maintain them in the district.
4. Improve teachers’ accommodations.
5. Improve the road network system for easy accessibility to the schools.
6. Improve water supply services in the schools.
7. Provide teachers in the rural schools with incentives that will allow them improve their social status such as car and housing ownership loans etc.
8. Improve the rural school’s infrastructure.

5.3 Implications of these Transfers may have on the overall Educational Dispensation in Chibombo district

The third objective of the study was to determine implications of these Transfers may have on the overall educational dispensation. This objective was measured by asking the respondents to react to various statements describing the effect of teacher transfers on the provision of quality education.

The findings shows that ministry of general education has been rationalizing distribution of teachers by transferring teachers from overstaffed to understaffed schools. This is in line with Ingersoll (2001) and Feng (2005), contend that since teacher transfers do not contribute loss in the total supply of public school teachers in the country, empirical research has assumed that

it is less significant. On the other hand Cailled (1989) maintains that because the art of teaching is a developmental process, it involves a complex set of skills many of which can only be well polished on uninterrupted job experience, makes the impact of a teacher transfer on learning process to be the same as attrition .In Zambia, weaknesses in planning have affected training, employment and deployment of teachers and thus distorted their distribution and utilization. Consequently, there exists an unbalanced distribution of teachers, teacher shortages, teacher surplus and inefficient utilization of teachers (MOEST, 2006).

Teacher transfer has a direct influence on the quality of education offered in schools. In case of shortages, the available resources (teachers and finances) spread thinly in effort to fill the gap. It forces schools to hire part time teachers instead of acquiring learning materials Large classes reduce individual learner contact which is essential for effective learning Nkanatha (2010) cites Huebler (2008) who asserts that high pupil teacher ratio contributes to poor performance as the teacher will be greatly challenged to offer individualized attention. Otieno (2006) cites poor student's teacher ratio as one of the factors that influence student performance.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Overview

This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study based on presentation and discussions findings in the previous chapter that were also based on the research objectives and questions.

6.2 Conclusion

This study examined the problem of teacher transfers; trends and causes in Chibombo District of Central Province of Zambia. This is in line with emerging research locally and internationally that is suggesting that, even if a teacher is successfully recruited to a rural school, there are often problems with retention. Teacher attrition can be as high as 30-50% in certain rural schools (Hobart 2001). The main reason teachers leave rural areas is isolation: social, cultural, and professional (Collins 1999). With regard to social isolation, rural areas generally have a very limited population. Consequently there are limited opportunities for social interaction; a teacher's nearest neighbour may be many miles away, community events may be limited, there may be few opportunities for extracurricular activities, and so on. Likewise, the limited population affects the number of cultural activities: teachers in rural areas have limited access to arts, movies, museums, and other cultural events. Professional isolation is the third burden faced by rural teachers, and one of the most damaging (Jimerson 2003). Due to both a limited number of positions at school and a limited number of schools themselves, there are few opportunities to advance one's career while working in rural areas. As a result, new teachers may opt to teach at a rural school for a few years but be forced to leave in search of increased responsibilities or a promotion. These three factors combined result in a very low retention rate of teachers, which further exacerbates the first problem of difficulties in recruitment.

The study concluded that the majority of transfers out of the district are involve female teachers while the transfers of male teachers fewit also indicated that the majority of teacher that transfer out of Chibombo choose to go to Lusaka District in Lusaka province or Kabwe District in Central province. The two districts are the nearest to Chibombo that are relatively more urbanized than Chibombo as well as the other surrounding districts.

The trend of teachers leaving a rural (Chibombo) District is regrettably increasing and at a very high rate. The concluded that the number of teachers leaving the district is higher than the number of teachers coming into the district through transfers at the same time the trend also indicated that the number of teachers that are transferring from the district without applying for transfers is higher than the number of transfers with applications. The study further concluded that the number of newly recruited teachers leaving the district is higher than that of teachers who have served in the district for a longer period. The poor trend of teachers' transfers from the rural parts of Chibombo district is a serious problem that needs urgent and serious attention.

On the causes of teacher transfers from Chibombo district to other mostly urbanized districts, the concluded that among the many reasons for teachers leaving the district in preference to other districts included:

1. Rural schools as an entry point: newly recruited teachers intend to apply in rural schools where vacancies are available with a view of leaving once they are employed.
2. Poor deployment and retention management: teachers take advantage of the lapses within the deployment and retention management systems to find their way out into urban districts.
3. Weaknesses in the payroll management: teachers take advantage of the weaknesses in the payroll management system that is poorly organised to an extent where a teacher at an urban school is on the payroll for a rural school.
4. Political interference and corruption in the education system: Political leaders at various levels interfere with the recruitment process to have their choice applicants employed in rural schools and later transferred to urban school while other teachers resort to corrupting the ministry officers.
5. Social and Culture isolation: teachers in rural areas feel socially and culturally isolated hence motivated to move.
6. Limited accessibility and mobility: poor road network and mode of transport force some teachers to transfer to better areas.

7. Difficulties in accessing medical care: Lack of good health facilities with enough trained health personal force some teachers to leave rural schools.
8. Limited opportunity for spouse employability: the limited employment opportunities for teachers that are married to spouses who are non-teacher are forced to join their spouses in other places.
9. Lack of community services: Lack of community services such as electricity power, safe clean drinking water and accommodation in rural schools is making a number of teachers leave the district.

The study also concluded that the following measures can help to improve the poor retention of teachers;

1. Normalize the payroll system so that the data on schools with vacancies are properly identified before teachers are recruited and the teachers are monitored.
2. Consider sponsoring the locals on GRZ Education Loans and later deploy them to their home land.
3. Improve teacher shortage by creating a policy that will mandatory give all student teachers in government teacher training institution to do their teaching practice in rural school.
4. Decentralize the recruitment process so as to allow individual district employ the teachers and maintain them in the district.
5. Improve teachers' accommodations.
6. Improve the road network system for easy accessibility to the schools.
7. Improve water supply services in the schools.
8. Provide teachers in the rural schools with incentives that will allow them improve their social status such as car and housing ownership loans etc.
9. Improve the rural school's infrastructure.

Poor recruitment and retention has a profound effect on rural children's education. The first consequence of the inability to recruit teachers is the hiring of under-prepared or under qualified teachers. Administrators must "find someone, anyone, to teach the class, especially in elementary grades" (Jimerson 2003). Consequently, a class may have a teacher with

insufficient credentials or education, such as when a school hires a full-time substitute to teach a class. As teachers are a very important input in the education process, having a poorly trained or less capable teacher puts an artificial ceiling on student achievement (Arnold 2005). Thus, the solutions to this problem are an issue of that requires maximum attention.

1.2. Recommendations

After a careful analysis of all the factors contributing to poor retention of teachers in rural areas, the following recommendations were made:

Zambian Parliament-Policy Makers

- i. The findings of the study indicated that teacher deployment and retention was not balanced owing to the fact that transfers were allowed as long as one served for two years at the station. In this regard, it is recommended that policy makers always consider the required numbers of teachers to be recruited so as to guarantee even distribution of this teaching staff and in turn create a tightly monitored payroll system for the employed staff.
- ii. As regards the finding concerning political interference, policy makers should uphold division of labour by allowing technocrats to handle matters of teacher deployment and transfers without undue pressure.

Ministry of Education

- i. The findings indicated that most teachers massively upgrading their qualifications are primary school teachers so as to change their social status and earn higher salaries. It is recommended that this bias of primary school teacher's upgrade in qualification should be controlled by the ministry of education by making recommendations to government for better conditions of service to enable teachers upgrade for skills and not only for higher salary as it is viewed by most teachers.

Debs / local and civic leadership and other stakeholders

- i. The Zambian government utilizes a combination of the recruitment and teacher resiliency models. Both of these models have the benefit of being unique to the local context, quick to implement, and easily adaptable to changing situations. They are synergistic in that the weakness of the recruitment model is its inability

to secure long-term retention, while the weakness of the teacher resiliency model is that it does not address recruitment.

A recommendation is therefore given that a high premium be placed on the say of the local/civic leadership about recruitment and deployment of teachers; and in conjunction with DEBs offices, local leadership should strive for better conditions of the teachers in any given locality.

ii. Under the finding to improve teacher retention, it is highlighted that in addition to financial motivation, standing guidelines for transfer application should be reviewed. To achieve this, it is recommended that DEBs offices, working together with their provincial education offices, should devise a bottle-neck procedure for transfers so as to have control over teacher movements.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS AND HEAD TEACHERS

SECTION A: Tick in the appropriate space

1. Sex Male [] Female []
2. Age Range 20-30 [] 31-40 [] 41-50 [] 51 and above []
3. How many years have you served in the teaching service
 0-10 [] 11-20 [] 21-30 [] 31 and above []
4. What is your substantive position?
 Head Teacher [] Deputy Head [] Senior Teacher [] HOD [] Class/Subject
 Teacher []
5. What is your highest professional Qualification?
 Certificate [] Diploma [] Degree [] Masters []

SECTION B

Tick in the appropriate space depending on how much you agree to the statement.

6. Teacher choose to leave the district because teachers in the rural areas receive a poor pay and salary Strongly Agree [] Agree [] Strongly Disagree [] Disagree []
 No Idea []
7. Social and Cultural isolation is one of the causes for teachers transfers to urban areas
 Strongly Agree [] Agree [] Strongly Disagree [] Disagree []
 No Idea []
8. Teachers are leaving the district because of the low social status teachers in the rural areas are subjected to by the society.

 Strongly Agree [] Agree [] Strongly Disagree [] Disagree []
 No Idea []
9. Many teachers choose to transfer to urban areas because it is difficult to access medical care in the rural areas.

 Strongly Agree [] Agree [] Strongly Disagree [] Disagree []
 No Idea []

10. Teachers decide to transfer to urban districts because the district (Chibombo) has limited employment opportunities for their spouses.

Strongly Agree [] Agree [] Strongly Disagree [] Disagree []
 No Idea []

11. Transfers to urban districts are many because rural schools lack in community service provisions

Strongly Agree [] Agree [] Strongly Disagree [] Disagree []
 No Idea []

12. Tick in the appropriate box depending on how much available the service is in the rural school areas

Community Services	Readily Available	Fairly Available	Poorly Available	Not Available
Electricity Supply (National Grid)				
Safe Drinking Water				
Good Road network				
Housing infrastructure				
Conducive working environment				
Recreation facilities				
Shopping facilities				

13. List down the measures that you feel the government should put in place in order to reduce on the trend of teachers transfers to urban districts

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THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

Appendix II: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SENIOR ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS AT DEBS

1. How long have you served in your current position?
2. How long have your served in Chibombo district?
3. In your own wards explain briefly the situation in the district in relation to teachers' transfers to urban districts.
4. What are some of the reasons given by teachers who apply for transfers to urban districts?
5. Which urban districts/provinces do most teachers apply to go to?
6. What measures is your office putting place to reduce on the high number of transfers of teachers from the district?
7. What social and communities services do think the teachers in your district are lacking?
8. What reasons to your seriously consider when granting teachers' transfers?
9. Would you kindly provide me with data on the transfer trend records for the period 1997 to 2017?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION